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**SERVICE-LEARNING AND SPANISH FOR
SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN U.S. HIGHER EDUCATION**

**APRENDIZAJE-SERVICIO Y ESPAÑOL PARA
FINES ESPECÍFICOS EN LA ENSEÑANZA
SUPERIOR ESTADOUNIDENSE**

Editor Invitado

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**Publicación de la Asociación de Licenciados
y Doctores
Españoles en Estados Unidos
(Spanish Professionals in America, Inc.)**

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Publicación de la Asociación de Licenciados
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CUADERNOS DE ALDEEU

Volumen 33

Otoño 2018

ÍNDICE

NOTA DE LA EDITORA

Nuria Morgado / 3

GUEST EDITOR'S REMARKS

Francisco Salgado-Robles / 5

ARTICLES

A SIGNIFICANT LEARNING APPROACH TO WLSP AND ITS IMPACT ON STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE FIELD AND ITS DEFINITION

Diana Ruggiero / 23

LINGUISTIC AND SOCIAL AFFORDANCES IN THE TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION COURSE VIA SERVICE-LEARNING

C. Cecilia Tocaimaza-Hatch / 55

USING COMMUNITY SERVICE LEARNING IN THE SPANISH TRANSLATION CLASSROOM: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

Gregory L. Thompson and Daryl Hague / 89

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN COURT INTERPRETING EDUCATION: A PILOT INTERNSHIP IN NEW YORK CITY COURTS

Aída Martínez-Gómez / 115

SEEMINGLY SIMPLE: NUMBERS AND THE LANGUAGE GAPS STUDENTS BRING TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

Annie Abbott / 145

**BOOSTING INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE IN
SPANISH FOR SOCIAL SERVICE PROFESSIONALS
THROUGH SERVICE-LEARNING**

Francisco Salgado-Robles and Lee Kirven / 161

**SERVICE LEARNING IN A SPANISH FOR TEACHERS
COURSE: PROVIDING CONTEXT FOR SPECIALIZED
LANGUAGE AND CONTENT LEARNING**

Megan Solon / 191

**A WIN-WIN: THE INTENTIONAL CULTIVATION OF
RECIPROCAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LSP AND
COMMUNITY PARTNERS**

Patricia Moore-Martínez and Joshua M. Pongan / 221

**A NEEDS-BASED APPROACH TO DEVELOPING
CULTURAL COMPETENCY IN SPANISH FOR ANIMAL
HEALTH AND CARE PROFESSIONALS**

Maura Velázquez-Castillo and Shannon Zeller / 253

INTERVIEW

**CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN SPANISH FOR SPECIFIC
PURPOSES IN THE UNITED STATES BY LOURDES
SÁNCHEZ-LOPEZ**

Laura Marqués-Pascual / 281

BOOK REVIEWS

***SPANISH FOR THE PROFESSIONS*, POR MARTA BORIS
TARRÉ Y LORI CELAYA**

Antonio Martín-Gómez / 296

***LANGUAGE FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES: TRENDS IN
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT*, EDITADO POR MARY K.
LONG**

Angela George / 300

*COMMUNITY-BASED LANGUAGE LEARNING: A
FRAMEWORK FOR EDUCATORS*, POR JOAN CLIFFORD Y
DEBORAH S. REISINGER
Mary K. Long / 305

COLLABORATORS / 309

SPECIAL ISSUE
(NÚMERO ESPECIAL)

**Service-Learning and Spanish for
Specific Purposes in U.S. Higher
Education**

**(Aprendizaje-Servicio y Español
para Fines Específicos en la
Enseñanza Superior Estadounidense)**

**Guest Editor (Editor Invitado):
Francisco Salgado-Robles**

NOTA DE LA EDITORA

Este número especial de *Cuadernos de ALDEEU* sobre el *Aprendizaje-servicio y español para fines específicos en la enseñanza superior estadounidense* es una muestra más de nuestro propósito de cumplir con los objetivos de la revista, a saber, de seguir representando los variados y multidisciplinarios intereses de sus miembros y lectores con la publicación de volúmenes sobre temas de carácter general con sus secciones especiales, y otros sobre temas monográficos. Siempre teniendo en cuenta las áreas que manifiestan una atención creciente en los campos profesionales, tanto las secciones especiales como los temas monográficos se orientan a ofrecer al lector una recopilación de ensayos de los más notables especialistas sobre el tema de estudio, con el rigor académico y la originalidad que *Cuadernos de ALDEEU* siempre ha requerido. La colaboración de expertos como editores invitados se hace imprescindible para que estos volúmenes sobresalgan por su interés académico y rigurosidad.

En esta ocasión extendiendo mi agradecimiento al editor invitado para este número monográfico, Francisco Salgado-Robles, por su profesionalismo, atención, celo y cuidado con que ha llevado la selección y edición de cada uno de los ensayos, así como la maquetación del texto para la imprenta. Por extensión, agradezco enormemente la colaboración de los especialistas aquí reunidos, sin duda, referentes de lujo cuyos ensayos han contribuido a un volumen de indiscutible calidad y rigor académicos.

Aprovecho estas líneas para agradecer a Gerardo Piña-Rosales su constante estímulo y atenta revisión del manuscrito de la revista antes de enviarla a imprenta. De igual manera, mi agradecimiento se dirige a la Junta Directiva de ALDEEU y a los miembros de la asociación, sin cuyo apoyo y confianza nada de esto sería posible. Esperamos que este número de *Cuadernos de ALDEEU* sirva de impulso para continuar con la exitosa trayectoria que siempre ha mantenido.

Nuria Morgado
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GUEST EDITOR'S REMARKS

This special issue, 'Service-Learning and Spanish for Specific Purposes in U.S. Higher Education,' is offered to the academic community to present the results and perspectives of the work of a selection of scholars in the domain of *Cuadernos de ALDEEU*. With the growth of Spanish enrollment in the United States higher education system, institutions, program administrators, and researchers have had to cope with the redesign of their curricula in order to ensure continuity and to strive for the best academic results (Brown and Thompson). Therefore, extensive research has been devoted to addressing how best to prepare students by enabling them to gain high-level language and intercultural competencies that will serve them personally and professionally in the international scenario of the 21st century. In this development, second language (L2) pedagogy experts and language program directors have addressed two key factors: community-service learning (CSL) and language for specific purposes (LSP) (Abbott and Lear; Lafford "Languages for Specific Purposes"; Lafford, Abbott, and Lear; Sánchez-López "Service-Learning Course Design"; Wurr and Hellebrandt, *inter alia*).

CSL arose from the tenets of experiential education and constructivist theories that advocate for learning through first-hand discovery (Furco). The chief characteristic that distinguishes CSL from other types of volunteer or internship endeavors is that students' service experiences are tied to the academic content of an on-campus course or curriculum (Giles, Honnet, and Migliore). Many U.S. universities promote students' volunteering and CSL. The number of participating universities that use Campus Compact has grown remarkably, i.e., from 235 institutions in 1991 to more than 1,200 institutions in 2013 (Bowley and Meeropol). In Jacoby's words, CSL refers to "experiential education that engages students in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities" (5). Robert L. Sigmon—one of the pioneers in the field of service-learning—highlighted that "each participant is server and served, care giver and care acquirer, contributor and contributed to" (4). Although CSL was introduced in the United States in the 1960s, only recently has it been developed for all education levels. Wurr and Hellebrandt were pioneers in identifying the intrinsic relationship

between Spanish language study and the Hispanic community's needs in the United States.

LSP also represents a key component of the 21st century Spanish curricula by bridging the gap between what students learn in the classroom and how they use this knowledge outside of the classroom. LSP has been approached from different perspectives, but one of the definitions that best exemplifies the nature of this volume is given by Hyland:

Specific purposes teaching refers to a distinctive approach to language education based on identification of the specific language features, discourse practices, and communicative skills of target groups, and on teaching practices that recognize the particular subject matter needs and expertise of learners” (201).

These two factors have been decisive in the development of Spanish at the postsecondary level in the United States. For instance, Lafford, Abbott, and Lear highlight four core issues currently facing LSP and CSL in the United States, all of which could help transform the U.S. university curriculum: (a) focusing LSP on a new specific purpose-foundational training in professionalism; (b) threading training in professionalism throughout the curriculum; (c) building interdisciplinarity to advance LSP and CSL; and (d) building the LSP research base. Key questions which have not received full-fledged attention in previous literature are addressed in this volume. The present monograph has been organized to showcase some of the work being conducted by scholars within and around these calls. Consequently, this volume responds to the growing demand for more comprehensive research that delves further into the impact of the CSL component in Spanish for specific purposes (SSP) courses.

This special issue is organized in three sections: essays, interviews, and book reviews. A total of nine papers discusses innovative practices and findings in teaching SSP in a variety of fields, such as Animal Health and Care, Criminal Justice, Education, Interpretation, Social Services, and Translation. An interview with one of the most prominent scholars in the field of SSP follows. The volume closes with three book reviews: one textbook on Spanish for the Professions (Legal, Health Care,

Finance, Law Enforcement, Real Estate, Computer Science and Human Resources Professionals); one edited book of interest to anyone looking to design LSP courses or programs in any world language; and one academic book that integrates community-based language learning into teaching and curricula.

In “A Significant Learning Approach to WLSP and its Impact on Student Perceptions of the Field and its Definition,” Diana Ruggiero presents the findings of an exploratory study on significant learning in a graduate-level world languages for specific purposes (WLSP) pedagogy course and its impact on student perceptions of the field and its definition. WLSP encompasses a diverse range of related fields and disciplines of study, and its contribution to the world language curriculum and student learning goes beyond curriculum diversification and professional language development. Despite this, students and language educators alike tend to perceive WLSP in terms of its formal content and pragmatic agenda. As suggested by this study, new approaches to the teaching of WLSP—such as significant learning—may help redress this issue. Significant learning refers to a holistic approach to course design that challenges students and teachers to move beyond the acquisition and mastery of foundational knowledge to the development of metacognitive, integrative, and intercultural skills. This study considers the impact of a significant learning approach to the teaching of a WLSP pedagogy course on student understandings of WLSP. Specifically, it presents the findings of a survey and an educative assessment. The results suggest that a significant instructional approach to WLSP may be beneficial in helping students better understand the value and significance of the field. This is significant in that today’s students may become the teachers of tomorrow, which means they will have the opportunity to positively shape the future direction, value, and place of WLSP within world languages programs.

In “Linguistic and Social Affordances in the Translation and Interpretation Course via Community Service-Learning,” Cecilia Tocaimaza-Hatch starts by referring to the 2007 Modern Language Association’s call for a renewed vision of foreign language education where learners gain linguistic, cultural and socio-historical competencies in the target language. In response, there has been a surge of language for the professions courses that aim to assist learners in the development of multiple skills (i.e.,

translingual and transcultural). The current study investigates how a Spanish translation and interpretation (T&I) course fostered opportunities for language learning or affordances (van Lier) through the incorporation of CSL, that is, a type of experiential learning where students reach academic objectives while meeting an expressed need in the community (Wurr). For the CSL component of the T&I course, learners carried out technical translations into Spanish for local non-profit organizations, and either shadowed professional court interpreters or served as consecutive interpreters during a parent-teacher conference at an elementary school. Based on the descriptive and qualitative analysis of learners' commentary and reflections gathered over the semester, results showed that the CSL experience presented multiple linguistic and social affordances. Linguistic affordances point to features of the CSL environment that promoted language learning such as learning technical vocabulary; social affordances emphasize the development of other information gained through participation in CSL, e.g., becoming aware of the power of language in creating/preventing access for those who do not speak the majority language. These findings suggest that the incorporation of CSL in the T&I course provided affordances that support learners' development of translingual and transcultural skills necessary to become fully competent in the target language. The study concludes with recommendations for the application of CSL in T&I courses.

In relation to the T&I field, Gregory Thompson and Daryl Hague contribute to this special issue with "Using Community Service Learning in the Spanish Translation Classroom: Challenges and Opportunities." The authors understand CSL as the type of experiential learning through which students apply academic-course content to real-life situations as they provide meaningful service to community organizations. During recent years, CSL has played an increasingly important role in LSP courses. Curiously, however, CSL has been largely absent from a growing area of LSP: T&I courses. For that reason, Thompson and Hague conducted a case study to evaluate CSL's role in the translation classroom. The students in their case study are enrolled in a four-year undergraduate-degree program designed to prepare them to work as translators and interpreters. This program is a limited-enrollment program, meaning that before students can take any classes, they must pass an entrance examination to

demonstrate their Spanish and English proficiency. After one or two semesters of study, students participate in a CSL experience as part of one of their required courses, providing translation services for various non-profit community organizations. In this case study, the authors employed questionnaires and interviews to evaluate students' and community organizations' perspectives about their experiences with CSL. Results suggest that CSL provides benefits for everyone involved. With respect to students, they reported that they improved their linguistic and project-management skills. Furthermore, they described how CSL motivated them to go beyond what they had learned in the classroom to help community organizations achieve their goals. With respect to the community organizations' perspectives on CSL, they reported not only substantial benefits for the populations they serve, but also a very positive impression of the students with whom they worked. Indeed, they expressed great interest in continuing to provide CSL experiences for students. Notwithstanding all of these positive results, this case study also identified a recurring problem: ineffective communication. Apparently, students sometimes did not understand what was expected of them for the CSL experience, whether those were the expectations of community organizations or instructors. Consequently, the authors make three recommendations: (1) instructors must help students understand how their CSL experience will apply classroom content; (2) community organizations must help students understand the organizations' needs; and (3) students must be encouraged to be proactive and ask questions when they are unsure about CSL expectations.

Again, in relation to the T&I field, Aída Martínez-Gómez adds further knowledge about the area of interpretation with "Experiential Learning in Court Interpreting Education: A Pilot Internship in New York City Courts." In the growing field of interpreting pedagogy, certain core elements of experiential and situated learning have implicitly permeated interpreting education for decades, even if these approaches have rarely been explicitly labeled as such. Programs have traditionally relied on simulations and role-plays, based on authentic or manufactured materials, as essential activities to bring actual interpreted interaction to the classroom and to promote critical thinking and discussion regarding interpreting choices and behaviors. Despite this, it has often been argued that graduates from interpreting education

programs struggle in the transition from interpreting student to practicing interpreter, primarily due to the lack of practical experience in the field. As a consequence, programs are increasingly incorporating field-based experiential learning activities, such as internships and service-learning opportunities. A valuable type of experiential learning in interpreter education is observation-based experiences, in which trainees shadow interpreters in the course of their regular duties. These help students familiarize themselves with the nature of interpreter-mediated interactions in specific fields, interpreters' behavior, any specific terminology, and the relevant codes of ethics or professional conduct. In terms of supporting students' development of interpreter competence, observation experiences offer an appropriate gradual transition between the safe (but artificial) classroom-based simulations and the unpredictable real interactions they face in external internships/practicums. To this end, Martínez-Gómez examines an observation-based experiential learning program in the context of (legal) interpreter education in the United States. The program analyzed in this article is a pilot court interpreting internship program developed jointly by the New York State Unified Court System and six colleges and universities in New York City and surrounding areas and implemented in the spring of 2017. This article describes the background conditions leading to the implementation of the program and discusses its curriculum in the context of experiential approaches to learning. More importantly, it analyzes the results of an evaluation process that incorporates the perspectives of interns and mentors (staff court interpreters) in order to determine the appropriateness of the project and its ability to meet its planned goals. On the basis of the results of this analysis, a series of suggestions are presented to enhance and expand this pilot program.

In "Seemingly Simple: Numbers and the Language Gaps Students Bring to Community Organizations," Annie Abbott begins by stating that within nonprofit settings, numbers are ubiquitous. Intake forms require addresses, telephone numbers, Social Security numbers, date of birth and more. Numbers are the core of budgets and internal accounting. Fundraising involves pricing, headcounts and monetary goals. In sum, both the day-to-day functions and the strategic operations of a nonprofit rely on accurate numbers. Therefore, when Spanish community service-

learning students work in nonprofits, they, too, must manage and manipulate numbers frequently and accurately—in Spanish. This can be surprisingly difficult for L2 learners of Spanish, and the mistakes students make in the community partner’s organization can have very negative consequences for the enterprise and its clients. One of the very first things language students learn are numbers, and students in upper-level courses are adept at counting and recognizing numbers, even large numbers. Nevertheless, they often struggle with listening comprehension and oral production of numbers in non-academic contexts. In fact, answering the phone and taking accurate, useful messages for their supervisors can be one of the most challenging tasks for L2 learners doing CSL in nonprofit organizations. Thus, Abbott approaches this contribution in a reflective way by focusing on her experiences with upper-level Spanish CSL students enrolled in an LSP course about social entrepreneurship and volunteering in local nonprofits. While detailing students’ challenges in understanding, manipulating and saying numbers within typical tasks in nonprofit settings, the essay also shows that the seemingly simple—use of numbers—is embedded within the complexities of the immigrant experience in the United States today. Specifically, this essay covers taking telephone messages about immigration-related events, the careful use of official identification numbers, determining eligibility for programs using years and ages, and more common scenarios. LSP instructors whose students work with immigrants in local nonprofits should invest time in the classroom to teach numeracy, not only to help students prepare for seemingly simple professional tasks that require accuracy and proficiency in a very focused area of the second language, but also to better understand the issues behind the numbers. Lastly, the classroom activities presented in this essay serve as a starting point for language educators who wish to create their own materials that teach numbers as well as reflect their own community contexts.

Francisco Salgado-Robles and Lee Kirven present the results of more than two years of assessment and program development in their article entitled “Boosting Intercultural Competence in Spanish for Social Service Professionals through Service-Learning.” As the world has become increasingly interconnected, the authors believe that the need to assess intercultural competence as a measure of one’s ability to

successfully function in a particular venue is essential. In an effort to achieve this goal, universities in the United States have sought to integrate learning communities into the college curriculum. As a result, increased numbers of students are serving their communities where the primary language is not English. Consequently, research on community engagement pedagogies has increasingly focused on issues affecting the language and intercultural learning processes in which the target language is used. In particular, through their participation in community-based programs, students have the opportunity to engage in ‘real world’ learning beyond the classroom, which allows them to experience diverse cultures and backgrounds, and, in the process, challenge their own assumptions about the world. Salgado-Robles and Kirven report the relationship between student learning outcomes and two types of community engagement during a regular semester in the area of intercultural competence (Hammer and Bennett’s Inventory of Intercultural Development). This study was comprised of two groups of students enrolled in an LSP course. While the experimental group was required to complete a minimum of 30 hours of community service work during the semester, the same time commitment was required for the control group, but participants conducted a community-based project (CBP) instead of CSL. Participants had a choice of working with a variety of organizations, such as hospitals, ESL programs, Hispanic outreach non-profits, and wellness organizations. Specifically, data gathered from 84 L2 learners of Spanish enrolled in a Spanish for Social Service Professionals course were evaluated to see if learner attributes and social/contextual variables facilitated intercultural competence growth. Results suggested that the incorporation of civic engagement in the Hispanic community into a Spanish for the Professions course had a considerable impact on the development of intercultural competence. The authors encourage further research to join the conversation about the concurrent validity and comparability of different community engagement pedagogies and their impact on L2 learners’ intercultural competence.

In “Service learning in a Spanish for Teachers course: Providing context for Specialized Language and Content Learning,” Megan Solon describes the implementation of a CSL component within a Spanish for Teachers course at a mid-sized Northeastern U.S. university. The course is designed to provide

language as well as pedagogical/methodological training to undergraduate Spanish majors and to graduate students in Spanish. The CSL component, which was offered as an option for the course's culminating project, involved volunteering on a weekly basis in a Spanish classroom at a local urban public school. Students who selected this option also completed weekly reflections that encouraged them to make connections between their service activities and academic course components. Data for this study come from beginning- and end-of-semester surveys in which students provided information regarding their interest in and plans for a career in teaching Spanish, their knowledge of and confidence in language teaching methods, and their perceptions of their linguistic abilities in Spanish. Responses from students who opted for the CSL option were compared to those who opted for the more traditional course project with no CSL component. Additionally, changes in survey responses from the beginning to the end of the semester were compared both within and across groups. Finally, additional data come from the weekly reflections written by students participating in the CSL option. Results suggest few quantitative differences in survey responses between the CSL and non-CSL groups. Changes between beginning- and end-of-semester responses for the CSL group indicated slight drops in CSL students' interest in a Spanish teaching career and in their self-rated language abilities, whereas students who selected the traditional project only showed slight drops in interest in Spanish language teaching. Open-ended survey responses and blog reflections provide additional information and context to aid in the interpretation of the quantitative results. Overall, responses provided by students participating in the CLS component suggested that the CSL option provided students with opportunities to more fully engage with course concepts, spurred greater awareness of the challenges and complexities of the teaching profession, and served as an important confirmatory experience of future professional intention. It is argued that the CSL component provided important context for the specialized language and methodological content of this course.

Patricia Moore-Martínez and Joshua M. Pongan contribute to this volume with "A Win-Win: The Intentional Cultivation of Reciprocal Relationships between LSPs and Community Partners." In an attempt to respond to declining enrollment, language programs have diversified their course offerings, for

instance, with LSP courses featured among the primary directions in program development. While LSP courses have been recognized as a key pathway toward relevance and value in terms of courses, the current state of language programs has also moved departments toward a greater incorporation of community engagement components. In this context, community engagement opportunities contextualize learning outside of the classroom, and can range from interviews with community members to structured internships with a service provider in a specific community. Although there are concrete benefits to community engagement, the reality is that the process also has its obstacles, particularly the outlay of resources from both educational institutions and community partners. In this article, Moore-Martínez and Pongan identify a need for incorporating community engagement that is beneficial for both students and community partners: a reciprocal relationship. This model outlines theoretical and concrete steps, illustrating both with three case studies: Spanish for Criminal Justice and Social Services, Spanish for Immigration & Education, and Spanish Internship. These courses were selected to represent a range in degree of integration of community engagement in courses, demonstrating how this pedagogical tool can be incorporated into a two to three-week module or as a semester-long course component. To this end, this article attempts to prepare educators to incorporate community engagement with preliminary steps designed to avoid and overcome frequent obstacles. As the authors highlight, this model itself never loses sight of the needs of all involved, including educators, students, community partners and the community itself. It is built around an initial dialogue with the community in order to ensure that its needs are articulated by the community itself, an assessment of the relationship, and a semester-end debriefing. The model's presentation of the varying intensities of integration make it possible for all types of educators, whether those new to the practice or those with ample experience, to utilize community engagement to enrich student learning in their courses. Furthermore, this model reflects best practices in LSP pedagogy and community engagement including the co-creation of learning outcomes, interdisciplinary frameworks, and the bi-directional exchange of knowledge. The authors conclude with a discussion on the feasibility and flexibility of the model, recognizing the

varied contexts of incorporation and the diverse factors that must be identified for successful execution.

The last article of this special issue is a contribution by Maura Velázquez-Castillo and Shannon Zeller entitled “A Needs-Based Approach to Developing Cultural Competency in Spanish for Animal Health and Care Professionals.” The authors start by stating that Spanish LSP programs and classes grapple with how to approach relevant cultural training in their curricula. Not only is diverting from traditional conceptions of culture (such as big/high “C”) a challenge in language departments, but deciding on relevant cultural categories to include in LSP classes and programs is also a significant roadblock. Traditionally, the incorporation of culture in general language and LSP curricula is based on national cultural profiles. While this may be a helpful approach for future graduates who expect to travel abroad to engage in professional transactions, the authors highlight that it does not apply to the many occupations that employ predominantly Spanish-speaking monolingual workers within U.S. borders such as construction, landscaping, janitorial workforce, and crop and livestock agriculture labor. This population is not nationally or ethnically homogenous and faces displacement issues that affect in unique and interesting ways its general cultural profile as well as that of workplace settings. Furthermore, the linguistic and cultural interface between these workers and their predominantly English-speaking counterparts has been largely invisible to academia in general and the language teaching profession in particular. In this article, Velázquez-Castillo and Zeller describe the approach used to develop a cultural component in an LSP undergraduate certificate program in Spanish for Animal Health and Care. This program is comprised of four upper-division courses, three of which concentrate on developing the linguistic skills necessary for successful task completion on livestock farms and the fourth which deals with the specific cultural competency necessary for future professionals within livestock and rural veterinary professions. Rather than using predetermined cultural categories, the culture course is based on the program’s needs analysis, which investigated both linguistic and cultural needs in the workplace. Thus, this article discusses the methodology followed in the needs analysis and the relevant cultural categories that emerged. Additionally, the authors explain the organization of the courses’

content, and the articulation of the cultural component along with the linguistic proficiency goals of the certificate. In their view, this roadmap towards developing workplace cultural competency may be useful to those engaged in designing LSP programs for similarly underserved populations.

In addition to these nine essays, this volume also includes one interview and three book reviews. Laura Marqués-Pascual contributes a state-of-the-art interview with Lourdes Sánchez-López, one of the most renowned scholars in the field of LSP. They discuss contemporary issues in SPP in the United States, specifically, topics such as the teaching of LSP courses in the 21st century, the varied terminology for this type of course, advances in the International Symposium for LSP, theoretical foundations of LSPs, the establishment of an LSP Certificate Program, and, *inter alia*, the emerging trends in teaching and research of SSP. Lastly, this special issue comprises three book reviews. The first one, by Antonio Gómez, reviews the first textbook published in the 21st century about the field of SSP: *Spanish for the Professions* by Marta Boris-Tarre and Lori Celaya. This review highlights the potential of this textbook to educate and advance Spanish students' future professional careers. The second book review has been written by Angela George about Mary K. Long's *Language for Specific Purposes: Trends in Curriculum Development*. George emphasizes its wide range of topics that address both classroom and workplace practices. This volume culminates with a book review by Mary K. Long about Joan Clifford and Deborah S. Reisinger's *Community-Based Language Learning: A Framework for Educators*. For Long, this book offers a compelling philosophy and outstanding tools for developing a program in which students simultaneously acquire language proficiency and social justice consciousness through engagement with local communities.

In the hopes of providing fresh data to research in the field of SSP and encouraging specialists in LSP in the United States to pursue further investigation on the promising issues raised within the field, I am pleased to guest-edit this special issue for *Cuadernos de ALDEEU*. Furthermore, this monographic issue of *Cuadernos de ALDEEU* complements recent thematic publications in the United States such as the 2010 "Special Section: Curricular Changes for Spanish and Portuguese in a New Era" (Spaine Long) in *Hispania*; the 2012 "Special Issue on

Languages for Specific Purposes in the United States in a Global Context: Update on Grosse and Voght (1991)” (Lafford) in the *Modern Language Journal*; the 2013 “Digital Volume Scholarship and Teaching on Languages for Specific Purposes” (Sánchez-López) by *The University of Alabama at Birmingham*; the 2014 monographic volume on “Spanish for the Professions and Other Specific Purposes” (Doyle and Gala) in *Cuadernos de ALDEEU*; the 2017 *Language for Specific Purposes: Trends in Curriculum Development* (Long) by Georgetown University Press, and the 2018 *Transferable Skills for the 21st Century: Preparing Students for the Workplace through Languages for Specific Purposes* (King de Ramírez and Lafford) by Sabio Books. In sum, the primary purpose of this special volume is to advance and disseminate the various lines of research undertaken by SSP practitioners and scholars in the United States, but, in doing so, we also hope to contribute to the debate around a growing field of interest among academics: the liaison between the Hispanic community and L2 Spanish teaching initiatives.

Lastly, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to the *Cuadernos de ALDEEU*’ editorial board—and special thanks to Nuria Morgado in her capacity as the Editor-in-Chief—for inviting me to guest edit this Special Issue and for providing U.S. scholars in the field of SSP the opportunity to present their research. The editorial committee gratefully acknowledges scholars who gave generously of their time and expertise to review submissions to this special monograph: Sergio Adrada-Rafael (Fairfield University), Alan V. Brown (University of Kentucky), Elizabeth Bruno (University of North Carolina-Chapel Hill), Rubén Chacón Beltrán (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia, Spain), Olga Cruz-Moya (Universidad Pablo de Olavide, Spain), Laura Gasca Jiménez (Fairfield University), Gabriel González Núñez (University of Texas-Rio Grande Valley), Ana Gregorio Cano (University of Texas-Arlington), Bridgette Gunnels (Oxford College of Emory University), Manel Lacorte (University of Maryland), Edwin M. Lamboy (City College of New York-CUNY), Jorge Martí Contreras (Universitat Jaume I, Spain), Elena Martín Monje (Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia, Spain), Christopher Mellinger (University of North Carolina-Charlotte), Juan Pablo Mora Gutiérrez (Universidad de Sevilla, Spain), Lucía Osa-Melero (Duquesne University), Meghann Peace (St. Mary’s University), Óscar

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ARTICLES

A SIGNIFICANT LEARNING APPROACH TO WLSP AND ITS IMPACT ON STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE FIELD AND ITS DEFINITION

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Resumen: Este artículo presenta un estudio sobre el aprendizaje significativo en un curso de posgrado en lenguas del mundo para fines específicos (WLSP, por sus siglas en inglés). Específicamente, analiza los hallazgos de una encuesta y una evaluación educativa que observa las percepciones de los estudiantes sobre el WLSP. El aprendizaje significativo se refiere a un enfoque holístico de diseño de cursos que abarca el desarrollo de habilidades metacognitivas, integradoras e interculturales, además de la adquisición y el dominio del conocimiento de base. El resultado de la encuesta muestra que los estudiantes tienen un conocimiento limitado de WLSP. El examen a mitad de semestre, sin embargo, muestra un crecimiento considerable en las percepciones de los participantes sobre el campo. Los resultados sugieren que un enfoque en el aprendizaje significativo en WLSP puede ser beneficioso para ayudar a los estudiantes a comprender mejor el valor y la importancia del campo.

Palabras clave: WLSP, pedagogía, diseño de curso, evaluación, desarrollo curricular

Abstract: This article presents a study on significant learning in a graduate-level course on world languages for specific purposes (WLSP). Specifically, it discusses the findings of a survey and an educative assessment observing student perceptions of WLSP. Significant learning refers to a holistic approach to course design that encompasses the development of metacognitive, integrative, and intercultural skills in addition to the acquisition and mastery of foundational knowledge. Survey results show that students have a limited understanding of WLSP. The findings of the midterm, however, show considerable growth in student perceptions of the field. The results suggest that a significant learning approach to WLSP may be beneficial in helping students better understand the value and significance of the field.

Keywords: WLSP, pedagogy, course design, assessment, curriculum development

INTRODUCTION

This article considers the value of a significant learning approach to the teaching of world languages for specific purposes (WLSP) in a graduate level course. Significant learning describes a broad approach to course design that extends the focus of teaching and learning from developing foundational knowledge and applied skills to metacognitive and integrative skills as well as a broader awareness of self and others (Fink). Specifically, this study observes the impact of significant learning on student perceptions of WLSP and its value for world language (WL) education, students, and society through the use of surveys and an educative assessment. In the process, it argues for the need to broaden conceptions of WLSP for the betterment and growth of the field and its integration within the core WL undergraduate and graduate curriculum. While innovative teaching strategies well suited to the aims of significant learning are already being integrated into WLSP, second language (L2), and heritage language (HL) learner classrooms, this approach as a whole has yet to be systematically considered in WLSP. Furthermore, a significant learning approach may go a long way toward better situating WLSP and its significance for the WL curriculum, students, and society. This is especially important considering some students may go on to become language educators.

A fast-growing area of research and teaching, WLSP situates language learning within real-world contexts, including the professions and the community (Abbott and Lear; Fryer; King de Ramírez; Sánchez-López "An Analysis"; Sánchez-López "Introduction"; Sánchez-López et al. *Scholarship and Teaching*; Lafford; Lear; among others). In its content, aims, and approach, it enriches, builds upon, and contributes to the WL curriculum in emphasizing the ways in which language and its use, or rather its meaning and agency, are embedded within and negotiated between specific social, cultural, and historical contexts. In the process, it also contributes to broader professional and institutional goals regarding the development of student intercultural competence, which includes but also extends beyond communicative competence (Long 1; Ruggiero "Lessons").

As the findings of this study suggest, innovative teaching methods such as significant learning may help students gain and demonstrate a deeper understanding of the field and its relevance.

The following outlines the problem, introduces significant learning and the study, and presents and discusses the findings.

DEFINITIONS AND STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF WLSP

Students informally polled at the beginning of the semester revealed a lack of depth of understanding regarding what WLSP is and what it potentially contributes to their language education, professional and personal development, and to society as a whole. This much may be due to the current state of WL higher education. Yet it may also stem from certain assumptions implied in existing definitions of the field. As a means of defining and clarifying the scope and aims of WLSP and of illuminating the central problem addressed in this study, the following considers how WLSP scholars define the field.

Though often left implicit in the scholarship on WLSP, definitions or characterizations of the field tend to emphasize its form and content. An explicit definition is absent, for example, in the collective articles appearing in the 2012 *Modern Language Journal* and 2013 *Hispania* special focus issues on LSP. Perhaps left assumed by virtue of the field's connection with business languages, the impression given is that WLSP is about professional language acquisition (i.e., medical Spanish) and that its aim is to produce professionals who can competently navigate between different languages and the cultural norms that dictate the use of language within specific contexts (i.e., medical Spanish interpreters).

This view of WLSP, though not incorrect, is somewhat limiting in that it is predominantly a formalistic one. This is to say that WLSP is understood largely in terms of the subject matter taught and the language and communicative skills produced as a result.¹ Yet approaching WLSP only in this way fails to sufficiently capture the ways in which WLSP is informed by and contributes to a diversity of fields, theories, methods, and perspectives.

Recognizing the diversity of the field and its connection to other areas of learning and research, yet other WLSP scholars

¹ Of significance, Barbara A. Lafford notes this may be due to LSP's connection to English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which takes such an approach to the teaching of English (2).

emphasize instead the scope and aims of WLSP as connected with broader curricular aims in WL higher education. In her introduction to the edited volume *Scholarship and Teaching on Languages for Specific Purposes*, Lourdes Sánchez-López, for example, explicitly foregrounds student needs and approaches to the teaching of LSP. For similar reasons, Lafford recognizes the field's contribution to and connection with other areas of teaching and learning, noting that LSP is "inherently interdisciplinary in nature" (2). More recently, Mary Long, in her introductory chapter to the edited volume *Language for Specific Purposes*, reiterates and extends Sánchez-López's position to include WLSP's significance for advancing the WL curricular agenda. Providing perhaps the most explicit definition of LSP to date, Long rightly observes the following:

LSP courses and programs offer students applied knowledge and skills related to professional domains while at the same time helping them to develop the critical thinking skills and deep cultural knowledge that are at the heart of the traditional humanities education in language and literature (*Language for Specific Purposes* 3).

As a result of its unique position within the curriculum, Long concludes that the teaching and learning of LSP is enriched by the inclusion of diverse disciplinary perspectives, theories, and methods. By the same token, she also notes that LSP techniques and topics may also be incorporated into and contribute to other courses and programs. In this way, WLSP may be understood as both interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary: it is informed by and contributes to multiple and interrelated disciplines. It is therefore not the subject matter of a given WLSP course or lesson but the approach of the instructor that matters most.²

Such a move away from the development of factual knowledge and applied skills is consistent with an emergent trend in undergraduate education known as significant learning (see

² This view of WLSP underscores the student-learner centered approaches that have long figured prominently in WLSP pedagogy. See, for example, Sánchez-López et al., "New Directions".

Fink).³ Applied to the teaching and learning of WLSP, significant learning, discussed below, may be beneficial in teaching WLSP from a trans, inter, and multidisciplinary perspective and may result in significant shifts in student learning and attitudes regarding WLSP and its relationship to WL education, student intellectual, professional, and personal growth, and greater society.

SIGNIFICANT LEARNING AND WLSP

Significant learning is learning that produces significant change in students, is valuable throughout life, and enables lifelong learning (Fink).⁴ It recognizes the value of and need for content-based education, yet it goes beyond goal oriented teaching methods and assessments to integrate, validate, and assess student learning processes and attitudes through active learning (i.e., experiential activities, reflective assignments, educative assessments). The goal of significant learning is to create intentional learners; that is, individuals who adapt to new environments, integrate new knowledge from disparate sources, and continue to learn beyond classroom.

Implicit in significant learning is the notion of agency. Through active learning, students become the agents of their own knowledge production by taking responsibility for and ownership of their own learning process (AACU). For educators, this means shifting the primary focus of teaching away from factual learning toward the development of student metacognition, lateral thinking skills, and self-directed learning abilities (Savin-Baden and Major). At the same time, it means validating and assessing the full gamut of student learning, from the factual (i.e., content) and conceptual to the processual and attitudinal. A significant learning classroom therefore attends not only to the acquisition of foundational knowledge, but also to its application in and beyond

³ This trend is also observed in the teaching of literature and culture, as scholars shape the teaching of language in critical and relevant ways that speak to current student and societal needs, broaden cultural awareness and sensitivity, promote lifelong learning, and broaden the curriculum. See, for example, Zapata and Lacorte, and Kumagai et al.

⁴ Though developed with higher education in mind, significant learning is likewise applicable to K-12 education.

the classroom in addition to the development of student awareness of and attitudes regarding themselves and others, including an awareness of the learning process (Fink 30). To this end, Fink outlines a framework for learning that situates significant learning within the overlapping intersection of five separate domains of teaching and learning: Learning how to learn, foundational knowledge, application, integration, the human dimension, and caring. The first four domains are commonly used in language classrooms today. By the domains of human dimension and caring, Fink is referring to what language educators might term cultural competence and intercultural sensitivity.

As a guiding framework for course design, Fink's "taxonomy" of significant learning can be integrated using existing teaching strategies. These might include metacognition, reflective assignments, educative assessments, small group learning, problem-based learning, role-playing, experiential learning, and service learning, for example. Such teaching methods build on existing student knowledge and allow students to critically reflect on classroom materials, concepts, theories, issues, and problems, and connect them with those of other classes as well as to their own life experiences. In this way students produce new knowledge and contribute to the collective wisdom of the class, thus taking responsibility for their own learning and moving toward becoming self-directed and lifelong learners.

Though aspects characteristic of significant learning are already integrated into current WL teaching methodologies (i.e., metacognition, experiential learning, small group learning, service learning, problem based learning, role-playing, etc.), it has yet to be systematically applied to, theorized, and assessed as a coherent pedagogical method in WL education, let alone WLSP.⁵ While doing so is beyond the scope of this paper, the significant learning framework is nonetheless adapted for the WLSP classroom and considered below for its potential contribution to a transformation in student learning in WLSP from a content driven and goal oriented framework to one that is process driven and attitudinally oriented.

⁵ This is likely due to a number of factors, including the current use of active learning classroom strategies and the current emphasis on student-centered learning among others.

STUDY METHODOLOGY

Toward expanding the definition of WLSP and better communicating its place within and significance for the WL curriculum, student learning, and society as a whole, the current study examines the impact of significant learning on students enrolled in a graduate WLSP course in the Spring of 2018. Particular emphasis is given to student perceptions of the field as a result of undergoing a significant learning experience.

The course observed for this study is a master's level graduate course on how to teach Spanish for specific purposes (SSP). Students in this class learn about the history, scope, and aims of the field as well as the major questions, issues, theories, and methods in the scholarship and teaching of WLSP. In the process, students also reflect on cultural differences, relevant social issues, and the ways in which WLSP connects with culture and community. Students therefore acquire an understanding of and appreciation for the greater significance of WLSP beyond its immediate practical language and professional benefits. Among the first of its kind in the United States, the course may serve as a model for other similar courses at other institutions.⁶ Significant learning goals for the course include the following (Can-Do Statements):

- Identify core issues and methods in the scholarship and teaching of WLSP.
- Create lesson plans in WLSP.
- Connect WLSP to other areas of learning, culture, and the community.
- Understand how cultural differences and identity relate to concerns of WLSP scholarship and teaching.
- Value WLSP beyond its immediate practical benefits.

⁶ To the author's best knowledge, this is among the first graduate level courses in WLSP outside of applied linguistics. At the time of publication, yet another similar graduate level WLSP course is being offered at The Ohio State University. See Ruggiero "Graduate Courses" for more information.

- Be able to construct knowledge about WLSP for application to future research, teaching, and service to the community.

Following Fink and Ahumada Acevedo, the course learning outcomes, assessments, and teaching strategies were integrated so as to maximize significant learning. Learning objectives for the course, as noted above for example, employed verbs reflective of the six domains outlined in Fink's taxonomy of significant learning: to identify is to show foundational knowledge, to create is to demonstrate application, to connect is to establish integration, and so on. Likewise, course teaching strategies and assessments were designed in accordance with the significant learning goals identified for the semester and specific lesson plan in question.

The course met once every week for a duration of three hours and class time consisted primarily of active learning activities with some lecture. To this end, readings were assigned and prepared outside of class and reading assignments were used to help students better prepare for the day's lesson. Active learning strategies used during the semester included role-playing assignments, problem-based learning, small group work and discussion, community engagement, and peer teaching and evaluation. For example, students engaged in a collaborative abstract writing assignment for application to an actual academic conference, led a World Café workshop on WLSP for the department and for a regional language educators association conference, worked in teams to develop lesson plans on an assigned area of WLSP, co-taught and peer evaluated their lesson plans, role-played synchronous interpreting scenarios for a lesson on cultural issues in the teaching of medical Spanish interpreting, created a book proposal on WLSP, and observed guest presentations and workshops from faculty on campus representing various disciplines and from the community.

Likewise, assessments were designed to be educative as well as comprehensive with regards to all six areas of significant learning, and assignments were designed to be reflective and metacognitive, attending to the affective side of the significant learning taxonomy (i.e., caring and the human element). Thus, while asked to identify and apply key concepts learned in class in an exam, for example, students were also challenged to integrate that knowledge with what they know, believe, and feel toward the

solution of a hypothetical real-world WLSP related problem. Though foundational knowledge and its application were still integrated into the course, they were decentered to emphasize the interconnection between all domains of learning. In this way, foundational or factual knowledge was integrated within a broader reflective, comparative, and valuative or affective framework that helped to ensure not only retention of information but significant learning as well.

Overall, the semester progressed from passive to increasingly more active forms of learning as the course calendar moved from foundational knowledge to the affective domains of learning.⁷ Thus, lecture and reading based teaching methods were used in the beginning of the semester to establish the historical and theoretical context for the class while experiential activities such as team-based problem solving assignments and projects were used toward the end of the semester as a means of applying and integrating course concepts and demonstrating the final two domains of Fink's taxonomy of significant learning. As a result, the teacher-student roles and responsibilities likewise shifted as the semester advanced. Students began to take more ownership and responsibility for their learning and knowledge production in class while the author became less of an authoritative figure and more of a facilitator, student, and co-producer of knowledge. As shown below, the transformation students showed in their knowledge and understanding of WLSP from the beginning to the end of the semester is arguably reflective of the overall design of and approach to the course.

STUDY SUBJECTS

Participants in this study of significant learning in WLSP consisted of 10 students enrolled in a master's level graduate course on WLSP pedagogy. All the participants were female, between the ages of 21 and 52, and of varying ethnic and racial

⁷ Passive learning refers to pedagogical methods in which learning is unidirectional and flows from the teacher or a text to the student, such as lecturing. In contrast, active learning refers to those in which learning is omnidirectional and that involve student engagement in the learning process, such as experiential and community-based learning activities.

backgrounds: five students self-identified as Latino/Hispanic, one as African American, one as biracial/multiracial, and four as white. Participants self-evaluated their Spanish language proficiency as either advanced (six students) or native (four students). Students had no prior knowledge of or experience with WLSP and consented to participate in this study on a voluntary basis. As shown below, all students demonstrated the same transformation in their understanding and knowledge of WLSP over the course of the semester, regardless of age and ethnicity. Further research is needed to determine the impact of male participants in such a study.

STUDY INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

This study used a qualitative approach in the observation of significant learning and its impact on student perceptions of WLSP. Data on significant learning was collected through a survey administered after the midterm, approximately ten weeks into the 16-week semester, and through a learning assessment (the midterm).

Survey

The survey used in this study was designed to assess student perceptions of WLSP. Using a Likert-scale to gauge strength of student agreement, confidence, and abilities, the survey consisted of three sections attending to student procedural, affective, and metacognitive thinking abilities. These correspond to significant learning goals outlined for the course and in Fink's taxonomy of significant learning, namely the categories of integration, human dimension, caring, and learning how to learn. In total, the survey required 49 responses, not including demographic questions, and took approximately 13 minutes to complete. The survey was administered using the institution's sponsored online survey platform, and all 10 participants completed the survey. In addition, an informal poll of student conceptions about and prior experience with WLSP was also taken among the participants at the beginning of the semester so as to establish a general baseline. Survey results were then analyzed for significant learning following Fink's taxonomy and the related significant learning goals for the course. Given the number of

participants, particular attention was given to trends that emerged in the responses to the questions, which gauged strength of agreement with statements reflective of a significant learning mindset (see Tables 1, 2, and 3).

Midterm

The qualitative portion of this study consisted of a written learning or educative assessment given as the semester midterm.⁸ The use of hypothetical, problem solving scenarios in the midterm required students to actively apply all seven domains of significant learning toward the analysis and resolution of a relevant real-world challenge, such as outlining a textbook on WLSP.

The midterm was designed in accordance with Ahumada Acevedo's methodology of significant learning assessments, which corresponds with that of Fink and differs only slightly in terms of terminology used. Ahumada Acevedo categorizes exam questions by the type of knowledge and thinking assessed: factual, conceptual, processual, and attitudinal. These correspond to Fink's taxonomy as follows: factual (i.e., foundational), conceptual (i.e., integrative), processual and attitudinal (i.e., affective and metacognitive). The exam consisted of 11 questions divided and organized using Ahumada Acevedo's categories of knowledge and thinking. Questions ranged from short answer and comparative and reflective essays to problem-solving questions regarding hypothetical scenarios and prompts for the creation of WLSP teaching material. The foundational section, for example, required short written responses to direct questions regarding factual and conceptual information learned through class readings, lecture, and assignments. The integrative section likewise required students to demonstrate mastery of concepts, but through their application in response to comparative and reflective questions. The final two sections of the midterm challenged students to apply their foundational knowledge and integrative skills alongside their affective and metacognitive thinking

⁸ As opposed to a normative assessment that gauges foundational and integrative knowledge and serves to quantify student retention and mastery of information, ideas, and concepts, an educative assessment seeks to extend student learning by engaging student metacognitive and affective thinking abilities.

abilities in thinking through various WLSP teaching related problems. These included the development of a lesson plan, an outline of a book proposal for a textbook on WLSP, an essay on the greater social value of WLSP based on what they have learned in class and from their own personal experiences, and a reflective response to a definition of WLSP. Considering the time constraints for the midterm, parts of the assessment required students to work individually while other parts in pairs. Likewise, students were asked to complete some questions without recourse to outside materials (i.e., from memory) while others with the aid of class resources, a partner, prior knowledge, or the internet. As shown below, the midterm design allowed students to demonstrate their knowledge and mastery of the course content and core concepts in different ways. This is significant in that students were able to show a depth of knowledge in the processual and attitudinal sections of the exam that was otherwise absent in the factual portion.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Survey

At the beginning of the semester, study participants were informally polled regarding their prior experience with and knowledge of WLSP through class discussion. At that time, all of the participants reported having had no prior knowledge of or formal experience with WLSP. When asked to define WLSP or to state their expectations regarding the course and what they might learn, participant answers described WLSP in formalistic terms (subject matter, content, and application). Thus, participant responses agreed in their perception of WLSP as being about the acquisition and development of specialized language skills for application in real-world, professional contexts. When asked whether or not they could explain the relationship of WLSP to culture and community and the benefits and significance of WLSP beyond its immediate practical applications, however, the participants were unable to do so.

The formal survey results, however, show a transformation in student perceptions of WLSP. Table 1 shows responses to the question “Based on what you have learned so far

this semester, rate your confidence in the ability to do the following.”

Table 1. Based on what you have learned so far in class, rate your level of confidence in your ability to do the following

Topic subcategory	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Define WLSP.	5	5	0	0
Explain how WLSP relates to language study.	4	6	0	0
Explain how WLSP relates to culture.	7	3	0	0
Explain how WLSP relates to professional domains.	6	4	0	0
Explain how WLSP relates to the community.	7	3	0	0
Explain the significance of WLSP beyond language acquisition.	2	7	1	0
Design a lesson plan in WLSP.	3	7	0	0
Create a chapter for a textbook in WLSP.	1	6	3	0
Integrate WLSP into an undergraduate or secondary school language class.	4	4	2	0
Apply concepts learned to other areas of study,	4	5	1	0

work, or life in the future.				
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All 10 study participants reported to either strongly agree or agree in their level of confidence regarding four of the 10 statements, including defining and explaining WLSP and its relationship to language study, professional domains, culture, and community, as well as designing a WLSP lesson plan. The majority also reported to strongly agreeing or agreeing with the remaining four categories. Notably, nine students strongly agreed or agreed that they felt confident in their ability to explain the significance of WLSP beyond language acquisition, as opposed to none at the beginning of the semester. This response was consistent with that of their confidence in their ability to apply WLSP to other areas of study, work, or life in the future. Three students expressed a lack of confidence in their ability to create a textbook on WLSP while two likewise did not feel they could implement WLSP into a secondary language classroom.

Corroborating this transformation in student perceptions of the field, Tables 1 and 3 show student attitudes regarding WLSP and the course respectively. In response to the question “rate how much you agree with the following statements,” Table 2 shows that all 10 students either highly agreed or agreed with 11 of the 12 statements, including “WLSP encompasses more than the teaching and learning of profession specific vocabulary and language skills.” Notably, nine of 10 participants strongly agreed with statements relating to WLSP’s relevance for WL education and other areas of study as well as its ability to foster intercultural sensitivity and communicative competence, critical and creative thinking skills, and awareness of social issues. All 10 participants strongly agreed with the statement “WLSP raises awareness of local communities of the target language.”

Table 2. Indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements

Topic subcategory	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
WLSP encompasses more than the teaching and	7	3	0	0

learning of profession specific vocabulary and language skills.				
WLSP can be integrated into the teaching of literature and culture in world languages.	8	2	0	0
WLSP can be integrated at all levels of world language education.	7	2	1	0
WLSP is an important part of world language education.	9	1	0	0
WLSP fosters cultural awareness and sensitivity.	9	1	0	0
WLSP fosters the development of professional language skills.	9	1	0	0
WLSP fosters communicative competence.	8	2	0	0
WLSP fosters critical and creative thinking skills.	9	1	0	0
WLSP raises awareness of local communities of the target language.	10	0	0	0
WLSP raises awareness of critical issues of relevance to communities of	9	1	0	0

the target language.				
WLSP advances the ACTFL standards of world readiness (the five Cs).	10	0	0	0
WLSP compliments other areas of language learning (i.e., literature, culture, linguistics, etc.).	9	1	0	0

Lending support to the notion that student perceptions are changing, in part, as a result of their experience in the course, Table 3 addresses student participant perceptions of the course, likewise indicating their degree of agreement on seven statements. All 10 participants indicated that they either highly agreed or agreed with all of the statements. Of significance is the fact that 9 of the 10 participants indicated that they highly agreed that the course challenges their understanding of WLSP and WL education and that it likewise challenged them to apply what they had learned in creative and critical ways. Perhaps even more importantly, all 10 participants agreed that the course challenged them to think differently about the significance of language study for their respective lives beyond the classroom and degree program.

Table 3. Indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements

Topic subcategory	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
This course challenges my understanding of WLSP.	9	1	0	0
This course challenges my understanding of world language	9	1	0	0

education (what it is and how it is approached).				
This course challenges my understanding of education (in general, i.e., what it is and how it is approached).	7	3	0	0
This course challenges me to apply what I learn in critical and creative ways.	9	1	0	0
This course challenges me to become a more independent learner.	8	2	0	0
This course challenges me to think differently about language and culture.	9	1	0	0
This course challenges me to think differently about the significance of language study for my life beyond my degree and this classroom.	10	0	0	0

The survey results reveal the extent to which student perceptions and attitudes regarding WLSP changed within ten weeks of the beginning of the course. While previous knowledge of WLSP was limited at the outset of the semester, participating students were in agreement by the midterm that WLSP encompasses more than professional language acquisition, relates

to other areas of learning and study and to the community, develops cultural awareness, intercultural competence, and awareness of social issues, and contributes to WL education, student growth, and society. It is important to note that though students addressed the relevance of WLSP through course readings, discussion, and assignments, at no point were they exposed to or expected to assume any given or specific definition and perspective of WLSP. Rather, following the significant learning goals of the course, students were to come to their own definition and understanding of the field through active learning and reflection. Given that the course had transitioned from passive to active learning during that point in the semester, it is likely that this transformation, then, is connected to the significant learning design of the course.

Midterm

As noted above, the midterm for this course and study was designed so as to facilitate significant learning. Following Fink and Ahumada Acevedo, it did so primarily by asking open-ended questions that sought to assess student understanding, integration, application, and development of facts and concepts (the foundational and integrative domains of learning) as well as processes and attitudes (the metacognitive and affective domains of learning). Students demonstrated significant learning by effectively building on and integrating their previous knowledge, classroom learning, and personal beliefs, attitudes, and values in answering the questions, finding solutions to hypothetical scenarios, and in creating (i.e., a lesson plan and textbook outline). Furthermore, a second phase of the exam consisted of a teaching demonstration of the lesson plan created as part of the written portion. The actual teaching of the lesson plan, however, is not considered as a part of this study as it reflected the approach outlined in the lesson plan. Significantly, student understanding of WLSP, as illustrated by their responses in the midterm, became more refined and nuanced as they progressed through the exam. The following highlights more salient examples of this transformation in student perceptions of WLSP.

Factual

In comparison with the beginning of semester student poll of knowledge about WLSP, the factual and conceptual portion of the exam showed minimal student growth in terms of their understanding and perceptions of WLSP. The first set of questions, for example, asked students to generate a definition of WLSP first in their own words and then in dialogue with a partner. Just as in the beginning of the semester, individual responses to these questions emphasized the subject matter, content, and disciplinary inclinations of WLSP. At the same time, many of the students noted the significance of culture in their responses, thus demonstrating an awareness of cultural differences and an understanding of the relationship between language and culture in specific contexts. Collaborative responses likewise showed the same results. The following four examples are illustrative of the range of participant responses in the factual portion of the exam:⁹

Excerpt 1 (individual response): *WLSP es la rama de la educación en donde la lingüística aplicada juega un papel importante en el estudio y desarrollo de técnicas, actividades y contenidos en pro de la enseñanza de las lenguas en ámbitos profesionales.*¹⁰

Excerpt 2 (individual response): *WLSP es la enseñanza y aprendizaje del lenguaje, pautas, normas y cultura específicas que se usan en campos muy especializados. Por ejemplo—el lenguaje y cultura del campo legal, medico, o de negocios.*¹¹

⁹ All English language translations of student quotes are by the author and are provided in the footnotes.

¹⁰ Excerpt 1 (individual response translation): WLSP is a branch of education in which applied linguistics plays an important role in the study and development of techniques, activities, and contents in favor of the teaching of languages in professional contexts.

¹¹ Excerpt 2 (individual response translation): WLSP is the teaching and learning of specific language, patterns, norms, and culture that are used in very specialized domains. For example, the language and culture of the legal, medical, or business domains.

Excerpt 3 (individual response): *WLSP es un enfoque de enseñar que se preocupa por las metas específicas de unas personas que van a trabajar en un campo específico. Los estudiantes tienen que tener una competencia previa de la lengua, entonces, por este curso, aprenden el vocabulario específico entre otras cosas necesarias para comunicarse efectivamente en el campo.*¹²

Excerpt 4 (collaborative response): *LSP World Language for Specific Purposes, o WLSP, se refiere a un área específica dentro del campo de las Lingüísticas Aplicadas que se enfoca en estudiar el como se enseña y se aprende una L1/L2 con el fin específico de ser usado en un contexto académico o profesional. En clases de LSP, el profesor toma un papel de mediador donde guía a los estudiantes a aprovechar de su existente conocimiento de un idioma para aprender términos, vocabulario, conceptos y cultura que son únicos y pertenecen solo al campo mas especializado—como los campos de negocio, ley, medicina, turismo, etc. El propósito de estas clases es capacitar, preparar a los estudiantes no solo a aprender el contenido relacionado con el campo específico, sino el saber usarlo en situaciones reales tomando en cuenta su cultura, la cultura del L2 y la cultura del trabajo.*¹³

¹² Excerpt 3 (individual response translation): WLSP is a teaching approach that concerns itself with the specific goals of people who will work in a specific field. The students have to have a previous competence of the language, then, through this course, they learn the specific vocabulary among other things necessary to communicate effectively in the field.

¹³ Excerpt 4 (collaborative response translation): LSP World Language for Specific Purposes, or WLSP, refers to a specific area within the field of applied linguistics that focuses on studying how an L1/L2 is taught and learned with the specific purpose of being used in an academic or professional context. In LSP classes, the teacher takes a mediator role where he guides students to take advantage of their existing knowledge of a language to learn terms, vocabulary, concepts and culture that are unique and belong only to the most specialized field—such as the fields of business, law, medicine, tourism, etc. The purpose of these classes is to train, prepare students not only to learn the content related to the

According to student responses in the factual section, then, students identified WLSP as a branch of applied linguistics aimed toward the teaching of language and culture for specific, professional contexts. These definitions differed from those offered at the beginning of the semester, however, with respect to the acknowledgement of the significance of culture.

Concepts

Cultural awareness in WLSP was further demonstrated in the conceptual portion of the exam, which asked students to select and reflect on a quote of their choice from a list of academic articles on WLSP.¹⁴ For example, one student chose to comment on a section from an article on WLSP in which the authors addressed employer expectations for college graduates. Reacting to the superficial way in which assessments gauge student readiness, the student commented the following:

Los empleadores piensan que si las escuelas preparan mejor a sus estudiantes estos serán capaces de satisfacer las demandas de trabajo más efectivamente, pero teniendo en cuenta que esto no es basado solo en el GPA de los alumnos y futuros profesionales. Lo que se busca es incorporar clases como WLSP donde los valores interculturales, la adaptabilidad, el trabajo en equipo, su conocimiento global, la comunicación verbal y escrita e inclusive el lenguaje corporal tendrá más influencia en la dinámica de las nuevas empresas (el mundo real) y en la productividad de la misma.¹⁵

specific field, but to know how to use it in real situations taking into account their culture, L2 culture, and work culture.

¹⁴ Cultural awareness corresponds to Fink's final two domains: human dimension and caring.

¹⁵ Student comment translation: Employers believe that if schools prepare their students better, they will be able to meet job demands more effectively but bearing in mind that this is not based solely on the GPA of students and future professionals. What is sought is to incorporate classes such as WLSP where intercultural values, adaptability, teamwork, global knowledge, verbal and written communication and

The above student demonstrates a keen awareness of the significance of cultural awareness, intercultural sensitivity, and the relationship between language and culture, including nonverbal communication, for success in the professional workplace. It also significantly notes the value of WLSP in fostering such awareness and traits in students. Similarly, another student commented the following in response to yet another quote concerning the greater benefits of WLSP for aspiring professionals and society:

La interculturalidad está presente en ciudades como Memphis donde el auge de inmigrantes se ha hecho sentir en todos los aspectos de esta sociedad. WLSP clases son imperativas para el desarrollo proactivo de esta sociedad. La comunicación a niveles sociales ha llevado consigo a un mejor entrenamiento por parte de los profesionales que están a cargo de satisfacer las necesidades de una nueva población poli cultural. La habilidad de estos profesionales va a estar medidas con sus habilidades para satisfacer las necesidades de una nueva clientela.¹⁶

Such responses show that students recognized the greater personal and societal benefits of WLSP. This is significant considering students characterized the field in terms of its pragmatic aims and benefits when asked to formally define WLSP in the factual section of the exam. As students progressed through the process and attitudes portion of the midterm, the depth of the students' understanding of WLSP, in comparison with their initial definition, became even more pronounced.

even body language will have more influence on the dynamics of new companies (the real world) and the productivity of it.

¹⁶ Student comment translation: Interculturality is present in cities like Memphis where the immigrant boom has been felt in all aspects of this society. WLSP classes are imperative for the proactive development of this society. Communication at social levels has led to better training by professionals who are in charge of satisfying the needs of a new polycultural population. The skill of these professionals will be measured with their skills to meet the needs of a new clientele.

Process

The section of the exam addressing process asked students to work in partners to create a lesson plan on a WLSP topic of their choice for use in an undergraduate WL classroom. The topics chosen by the students included Spanish for commerce (tourism), Spanish for healthcare (eating disorders), and Spanish for law (immigrant rights). All of the lesson plans integrated the 5 C's of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages' World Readiness Standards (communication, cultures, comparisons, connections, and communities) and included passive and active learning activities. Though the survey showed that students reported feeling less than confident about their ability to design a WLSP lesson plan, all students were able to do so successfully for the midterm.

One lesson plan, for example, on Spanish for law situated the learning of immigration law vocabulary within a community engagement context: producing brochures and giving workshops on immigrant rights for Latinos in the community. To that end, the lesson plan integrated formal presentation and audio-visuals along with role-playing and discussion. By the end of the lesson, the hypothetical students would have learned about immigrant rights as well as their own rights as U.S. citizens, legal issues facing undocumented Latinos in the United States, and vocabulary on immigrant law specific to Latino immigrants.

Yet another lesson plan on Spanish for healthcare integrated a community engagement component, focusing on raising awareness of eating disorders like anorexia among Latinos. As in the previous example, this lesson plan also included a range of passive and active learning activities, including presentation, vocabulary exercises, role-playing, and discussion. The hypothetical students would have learned Spanish vocabulary relating to nutrition, eating disorders, and anorexia as well as about anorexia, diet and nutrition issues affecting the Latino community. Similarly, contextualizing this lesson plan is a community engagement component in which the hypothetical students would have had to create informational brochures on eating disorders and anorexia as well as given information workshops on the subject for Latinos in the community.

Illustrative of the class as a whole, the above examples reveal an awareness of the interdisciplinary nature of WLSP and

of the broader significance of WLSP for students and the community. Students situated the teaching and learning of profession specific vocabulary within a broader disciplinary, social, and cultural perspective that spoke to problems or issues of relevance to Latinos in the United States. For these students, the teaching of Spanish law vocabulary, for example, became a pretext or vehicle for engaging U.S. immigration policy, citizen's rights, immigrant rights, undocumented immigrants, social justice, cultural differences in language use, cultural discrimination, and the local Latino community. In terms of disciplinary perspectives, students could potentially include history, literature and culture, linguistics law, sociology, and cultural anthropology, among others to help prepare and give the lesson. Similarly, the lesson plan concerning anorexia implicated the perspectives of medicine, healthcare, and nutrition, the sciences in general (biology and chemistry, for example), sociology and cultural anthropology, linguistics, and cultural studies. It also bridged language learning with the Latino community and issues of concern in finding solutions to evident problems in the healthcare system in addressing Latino community needs concerning nutrition and eating disorders. Of significance, students successfully accomplished the lesson plan portion of the midterm despite having had reported low confidence in their ability to produce a lesson plan in the survey. More importantly, they demonstrated a keen awareness of the disciplinary depth and social relevance of WLSP in their lesson planning despite the limited definition of WLSP provided at the beginning of the midterm.

Attitudes

Perhaps the most significant growth in student perceptions of WLSP was documented in the attitudes portion of the exam. In this section, students were asked to reflect on the value of WLSP based on what they had learned, their own experiences, and their own values. In their response, students were prompted to consider what they encountered in their daily lives via the media and their interaction with others as well as their own values. As a result, responses were highly subjective, yet revealing in that they nonetheless collectively emphasized broader personal and social benefits of WLSP not explicitly stated in the factual and

conceptual portions of the midterm. Benefits identified by students included the role of WLSP in developing student cultural awareness and intercultural sensitivity, broadening the WL curriculum, producing engaged, global citizens, and bettering local communities as a result. The following response, for example, shows how one student connected with the social value as well as pragmatic benefits of WLSP through her experience in the community and with family:

El español con fines específicos ha estado siempre latente de una forma u otra, pero en la actualidad se ha reconocido el gran valor que aporta en el desarrollo de la sociedad. Grandes empresas han hecho extensos estudios para ahondar como el hecho cultural afectan los negocios en diversos aspectos. La ciudad de Memphis ha manifestado un tremendo auge en la población latina lo que ve reflejado a nivel universitario de preparar profesionales capaces de establecer una adecuada comunicación en aspectos no solo de índole laboral pero también social, cultural, psicológica y hasta cierto punto moral con el fin de establecer una mejor conexión entre cliente, empleador y sociedad. En Memphis, cada día se hace más inminente la necesidad de traductores bilingües que puedan satisfacer las necesidades de la población, aunque esta es una ciudad pequeña; compañías desde Florida son requeridas en áreas médicas como intérpretes. Hospitales como St. Jude's tienen ya sus propias clases de intérpretes para cumplir con la demanda creciente de la población latina. Mi propia madre escoge los sitios que puedan comprender su idioma y se siente muy satisfecha cuando por fin alguien le entiende. En mi opinión, no podemos dejar a un lado ni hacer caso omiso a las necesidades de una porción de la comunidad solo porque el idioma o la cultura es la barrera principal.¹⁷

¹⁷ Student comment translation: Spanish for specific purposes has always been latent in one way or another, but today it has been recognized for the great value it brings in the development of society. Large companies have made extensive studies to [understand] how the cultural factor

Implied in the statement above is the notion that WLSP has the potential to impact not only student and business needs, but the lives of Spanish speaking immigrants and therefore the vitality and well-being of the community as well. Significantly, she recognizes how WLSP fits into the broader WL agenda of developing what she calls a certain “morality” among students (i.e., intercultural sensitivity) in addition to interdisciplinary understandings of language use. This response stands in stark contrast to the student’s previous definition of WLSP in the factual section of the midterm, which outlined the subject and content of WLSP teaching.

Similarly, another student made the connection between WLSP, cultural awareness, and the betterment of workplaces and society through the development of global citizenship. In this case, the student did so through her observations of the media and its negative portrayal of Spanish speaking immigrants in the United States:

Creo que las redes sociales y la televisión son relevantes en diferentes maneras. Por ejemplo, la manera en que muchos programas muestran a los hispanos es a menudo negativa. Pienso que por enseñar español para fines específicos podemos incorporar la cultura y aumentar la sensibilidad cultural de los estudiantes. Muchas personas que viven en los estados unidos no entienden los

affects business in various aspects. The city of Memphis has shown a tremendous boom in the Latino population which is reflected at the university level of preparing professionals capable of establishing adequate communication in aspects not only of work but also social, cultural, psychological and to some extent moral with the end of establishing a better connection between client, employer and society. In Memphis, the need for bilingual translators who can meet the needs of the population is becoming more imminent, although this is a small city; Companies from Florida are required in medical areas as interpreters. Hospitals like St. Jude’s already have their own interpreter classes to meet the growing demand of the Latino population. My own mother chooses places that can understand her language and she feels very satisfied when finally someone understands her. In my opinion, we cannot leave aside or ignore the needs of a portion of the community just because the language or culture is the main barrier.

*problemas que se encuentran muchas personas hispanas y solo ven la representación de ellos por los medios masivos. También los medios masivos tienen su propio lenguaje en mi opinión—puede ser mucho más coloquial e informal. Entonces podría ser que observar videos/televisión o leer tweets o posts de Instagram ayudaría con entender cómo comunicarse en unas situaciones específicas. Por ejemplo, si trabajas como un intérprete médico y una persona sin mucha educación entra y habla con su lengua coloquial, tienes que entender como traducir lo que dice.*¹⁸

The response above shows that the student recognizes the value of WLSP in developing cultural awareness as well as broadening student literacy to include social media and other twenty-first century texts. It also shows that the student is aware of the broader relationship between WLSP, language and culture, and intercultural competence. Thus, according to this response, WLSP is valuable because it raises awareness of social issues facing immigrants and cultural differences in colloquial language use and at the same time improves intercultural competence and the experience of Spanish speaking immigrants in local communities as well as society as a whole. As with the previous example, this student's response also differed significantly from the initial definition of WLSP given in the opening factual section of the midterm, which likewise outlined the subject matter and content of WLSP teaching.

¹⁸ Student comment translation: I think social networks and television are relevant in different ways. For example, the way many programs show Hispanics is often negative. I think that by teaching Spanish for specific purposes we can incorporate the culture and increase the cultural sensitivity of the students. Many people who live in the United States do not understand the problems that many Hispanic people encounter and only see the representation of them by the mass media. Also, the mass media have their own language in my opinion—it can be much more colloquial and informal. So, it could be that observing videos/TV or reading tweets or Instagram posts would help with understanding how to communicate in specific situations. For example, if you work as a medical interpreter and a person without much education enters and speaks with her/his colloquial language, you have to understand how to translate what she/he says.

Similarly, one student in particular explicitly noted the value of WLSP in fostering student intercultural sensitivity and its connection to the betterment of local communities:

El campo de EFE [WLSP] va mas allá de aprender vocabulario relacionado a una profesión específica, la EFE también ayuda al desarrollo de la conciencia intercultural, la cual es necesaria para mantener una relación mas respetuosa y tolerante en este mundo diverso, por tanto, la EFE ayuda a expandir y abrir la mente del estudiante. Finalmente, la EFE no solamente ayuda a que el profesional obtenga un mejor trabajo o sea mejor pago, sino que además estará cumpliendo y participando de manera activa a la solución de problemas y mejoramiento de servicio a la comunidad.¹⁹

As noted in the examples above, students demonstrated significant depth of understanding regarding the benefits and value of WLSP for students, WL education, and society. In some cases, students seemed to contradict themselves in providing a limited conceptual response in the first section but then expanding upon it in the attitudinal portion, clarifying the depth of their knowledge and understanding as a result.²⁰ The reasoning for this contradiction requires further investigation, but it may be that passive and active forms of learning and the corresponding assessments typically used to gauge factual and conceptual learning versus processual and affective learning engages different parts of student consciousness. In other words, students may not yet be in a position to fully *explain* the depth of their knowledge, but they may be able to *show* it. Reflection and metacognition are therefore appropriate tools for helping make the knowledge that is

¹⁹ Student comment translation: The field of EFE [WLSP] goes beyond learning vocabulary related to a specific profession, EFE also helps the development of intercultural awareness, which is necessary to maintain a more respectful and tolerant relationship in this diverse world, therefore EFE helps expand and open the mind of the student. Finally, EFE not only helps that the professional gets a better job or better payment, but also will be actively fulfilling and participating in the solution of problems and improvement of service to the community.

²⁰ It should be noted that student responses were not assessed for “correctness,” but rather for depth of understanding.

unconscious and latent in the mind of students conscious and accessible.

Overall, the educative midterm showed that the majority of students gained a deeper and more nuanced understanding of WLSP and an appreciation for its value beyond its immediate pragmatic benefits to students, language learning, and society. Of significance in this study is the fact that, though hinted at in the addition of cultural awareness and competence in the definition of WLSP in the opening factual and conceptual portion of the exam, the depth of student understanding was not fully illuminated until students progressed through processual and attitudinal questions. This reinforces the value of a significant learning approach to WLSP.

CONCLUSION

WLSP is at the same time multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and even transdisciplinary in its aims, scope, and methods. It is multidisciplinary in that its understanding of language and culture in specific contexts reflects the perspectives of multiple related disciplines and fields (i.e., cultural studies, literature, anthropology, linguistics). It is interdisciplinary in that its methods and theories are likewise informed by and informs those of other disciplines and fields across the humanities and sciences. Lastly, it is transdisciplinary in that though encompassing a multiplicity of theories, methods, and perspectives, it transcends any one particular disciplinary boundary as something entirely new and distinct unto itself.

Yet, unless educators critically evaluate the way in which WLSP courses are designed and delivered, students may not realize the full impact of the field on their learning, personal and professional growth, and on society as a whole. The potential consequences of this misunderstanding cannot be overstated for the development, growth, and integration of WLSP within the mainstream WL curriculum. Despite what WLSP scholars think about what they do and the value it adds to WL programs, it is the greater assumptions about WLSP and its place within the curriculum held by students and non-WLSP administrators and colleagues that will determine the path and relevance of WLSP in the years to come.

It is therefore incumbent upon scholars to communicate the nature and value of WLSP not only amongst one another and colleagues in the form of scholarship, but to students as well, though not solely through course reading material. Rather, as shown in this study, providing significant learning opportunities can help bring the relevance of WLSP to light. Integrated course design, active learning strategies, and educative assessments challenge students to build on previous knowledge and life experiences, make connections with other areas of life and learning, reflect on and expand their awareness and ways of thinking about themselves, others, and the world around them, and refine their assumptions, values, and belief system. In this way, WLSP courses become more than a subject matter and language learning objective, but opportunities for personal growth. Indeed, it is only when students invest something of themselves into their own learning process that they will begin to change the ways in which they think about, apply, and value WLSP beyond the walls of the classroom and throughout their lives as independent, self-directed, and lifelong learners.

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LINGUISTIC AND SOCIAL AFFORDANCES IN THE TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION COURSE VIA SERVICE-LEARNING

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Resumen: En este estudio se explora cómo el aprendizaje-servicio (ApS) en un curso de Traducción e Interpretación en español (TeI) facilitó oportunidades de aprendizaje o lo que van Lier denominó *affordances*. Como parte del proyecto de ApS, los estudiantes realizaron traducciones técnicas para organizaciones sin fines de lucro y sirvieron como intérpretes en reuniones entre padres y maestros en una escuela primaria, o acompañaron a intérpretes de la corte en sus tareas. El análisis descriptivo y cualitativo de las reflexiones que los estudiantes realizaron en cada paso del proyecto reveló *affordances* de carácter lingüístico y social. Estos resultados indican que este tipo de proyecto en un curso de TeI es útil para promover áreas clave de la competencia del aprendiz de español.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje-servicio, español con fines profesionales, traducción e interpretación, *affordances*, teoría sociocultural

Abstract: This study investigates how a Spanish translation and interpretation (T&I) course fostered opportunities for language learning or affordances (van Lier) through the incorporation of service-learning (SL). For the SL portion of the T&I course, learners carried out technical translations into Spanish for local non-profit organizations, and either shadowed professional court interpreters or served as consecutive interpreters during a parent-teacher conference at an elementary school. Based on the descriptive and qualitative analysis of learners' commentary and reflections gathered over the semester, it was found that the SL experience presented multiple linguistic and social affordances. These findings suggest that the incorporation of SL in the T&I course provided affordances that support learners' development of translingual and transcultural skills necessary to become fully competent in the target language.

Keywords: service-learning, Spanish for the professions, translation and interpretation, affordances, sociocultural theory

INTRODUCTION

In 2007, the Modern Language Association (MLA) called for a renewed vision of foreign language instruction in higher education that meets the sociolinguistic needs of a globalized world (*Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World*). In their arguments, the MLA maintained that an increasingly interconnected world calls for speakers who are competent in the target language (TL) both linguistically (translingual skill) and from cultural and socio-historical perspectives (transcultural skill). In other words, the end-goal of language education should seek to shape speakers who can fully function between and within cultures and languages. In pursuing this goal, several priorities were proposed such as the development of courses on language for the professions, including the translation and interpretation (T&I) course, which is the focus of the current study.

In the last decade, the United States has seen a growth in the number of T&I courses, majors, minors and programs (Colina; Sánchez-López). However, with this expansion, several challenges have become apparent. First, there has been a focus on literary rather than specialized translation despite the high demand of the latter (Biasseti 615). Second, there has been an emphasis on translation over interpretation, which ignores the development of competencies inherent to interpreting (Valdés and Angelelli). Lastly, although T&I courses are commonly housed in foreign language departments, there is a need to better situate the interpretation and translation skills in the language learning/teaching curriculum and within the body of knowledge pertaining to the language acquisition field (Colina and Lafford; Colina).

In light of these challenges, the current study reports on the implementation of a T&I course where learners carried out translations into Spanish in the fields of mental health, art, and housing for non-profit organizations, and, either shadowed professional court interpreters or served as consecutive interpreters during a parent-teacher conference at an elementary school. Here, learners' hands-on experiences were possible through the integration of service-learning (SL). SL is a type of experiential learning that aims to foster students' academic objectives while meeting an expressed need in the community

(Wurr). The incorporation of SL in the T&I course provided learners with a curriculum ranging from an introduction to basic translation and interpretation theory and practices to participation in meaningful and dynamic tasks with and within the community that speaks the TL for the ultimate purpose of promoting translanguing and transcultural abilities.

While several studies support SL for language learning purposes (e.g., Bettencourt; Caldwell; Grim), this study's objective was to explore how an SL component centered on translation and interpretation was instrumental in creating language learning opportunities, or *affordances* (van Lier), thus contributing to the growing literature on the intersection between language learning and SL. The next section introduces the affordance construct and exemplifies its use in language learning research. This is followed by the literature review, which discusses, first, how translation and interpretation skills line up with overall language learning goals. Secondly, the discussion turns to SL and examines how this tool supports pedagogical outcomes in T&I courses.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (Vygotsky; SCT) differs from other theories in that it provides a broader perspective to the learning process where learners' roles and surrounding conditions are of the essence (Sánchez-López). In recognizing the connection between learning and context, SCT is suitable in the investigation of learning in SL. When instructors design an SL program, they create a wide range of experiences that students participate in and that are usually out of reach solely through classroom instruction. Indeed, as argued by Overfield, "the unique cultural, social, and individual components of SL pedagogy provide a learning space that highlights the linguistic, cultural, social, aspects of the language-based event, and it situates second language learners in the center of that" (62). In SL, the learning experience expands and opportunities for language learning become richer and more diversified.

In describing situated learning from a sociocultural perspective, the affordance construct is instrumental to the analysis. Affordances refer to the reciprocal relationship between an organism and a feature of its environment. They emerge out of

individuals' interactions where they encounter a semiotic budget full of potential meanings that represent opportunities for learning. The significance of an affordance depends on learners' engagement, where, as agents and co-constructors of their own learning, they perceive and seek linguistic affordances and "use them for linguistic action" (van Lier 252). Depending on their abilities and characteristics, learners can leverage these dynamics and promote further action thus leading to more successful levels of interaction and learning (van Lier).

Prior investigations have operationalized the affordance construct in various types of interactive settings, be it the classroom or computer-mediated learning contexts. With the purpose of investigating the emergence of affordances during in-class interactions, Thoms analyzed several data sources: exchanges between students and the instructor, learners' responses to a questionnaire, and results from a stimulated recall session. The qualitative analysis, which followed tenets of grounded theory, described how teacher reformulations built on learners' contributions cultivated a language learning environment rich in language learning affordances. The studies by Haines, Kreniske, and Thoms and Poole discuss affordances in language learning contexts supported by technology. Haines examined the affordances that in-service teachers observed in reflections and semi-structured interviews regarding the use of blogs and wikis. The thematic analysis of the data demonstrated how affordances developed and were mostly unique to each individual teacher, their pedagogical experiences, and intentions.

Kreniske investigated how two distinct writing contexts affected learners' writing. One group of students wrote on a blog and received comments from peers and others, while the second group used a word processor and received no comments. The study focused on the affordances for narrator-audience interaction and operationalized the concept of *imagined* affordance, which emphasizes learners' perceptions and expectations. The narrative analysis measured fluency (total words in the narrative) and identified evaluative components of learners' writing, e.g., cognitive and intensifying expressions. Findings underline how the blog afforded audience interactivity and demonstrate how the affordances of the writing context affect how students think and write. Thoms and Poole investigated learners' interactions during collaborative reading performed by means of a digital annotation

tool. The researchers performed a qualitative analysis of learners' comments in the virtual environment based on tenets of grounded theory. They identified the emergence of three types of affordances: linguistic (explicit linguistic information), literary (insights regarding the reading), and social (matters not related to language form or text content). It was concluded that most affordances were literary and supported learners' comprehension of the subject matter, literature.

Therefore, in SL, learners are exposed to multiple affordances, be it features of the space in which they perform their service or the communicative exchanges that result from it. The study of affordances is relevant because it facilitates an understanding of predispositions and possibilities (Forrester) for learning in SL, and, in this study, as applied to the T&I course. Moreover, the study of affordances sheds light on features of SL that can provide situated learning for translators and interpreters. Ultimately, as argued by Kiraly, it is not sufficient for individuals to limit the scope of their training to theoretical matters. Students must engage in authentic work in real settings involving physical interactional frameworks of a translation job, thus replicating conditions that pertain to the profession such as professional responsibility and time pressure. Through these experiences, learners participate in authentic T&I tasks and acquire a more accurate view of the process of translation, the translator's function, and the capabilities needed to successfully perform the job.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Translating and Interpreting for Language Learning Purposes

In thinking about translation and language teaching, a connection is often made to the widely criticized Grammar Translation Method used to teach Classical Latin and Greek at the end of the 18th century, which emphasizes grammatical principles contextualized in translation exercises and ignores language as social communication (Zimmerman). In fact, the continued ban of translation from the language classroom is said to originate in the fallout of this method and current views on language instruction that prime language for authentic uses (Colina). However, more

recently, there has been a reconceptualization of translation as a linguistic skill in its own right and as a tool for language learning, where the focus of the translation activity is on language teaching and learning rather than on the quality of the resulting translation, i.e., pedagogical translation (Colina and Lafford; Canga-Alonso and Rubio-Goitia).

Colina and Lafford define translation as “a cross-linguistic mediation process of, or a product resulting from, transferring or mediating text(s) of different lengths (ranging from words and sentences to entire books) from one human language to another, which generally requires a significant degree of resemblance or correspondence” (114). They also add that this mediation is not exclusive to translation of written texts but includes interpreting, i.e., oral translation. With this reconceptualization of translation, Colina and Lafford argue that pedagogical and natural translation (that which is carried out by anyone with sufficient knowledge of two languages) agrees with language instruction goals. They contend that translation as language mediation promotes language learning from various angles, including textual, cultural, social, and motivational for learners of different linguistic backgrounds (115).

Prior investigations demonstrate that T&I practices encourage language learning and contribute to the dynamic nature of the communicative classroom where language for authentic uses drives instruction (Rivera-Mills and Gantt). For instance, in Trovato, students in a translation course increased their knowledge of technical vocabulary and cultural, pragmatic, and stylistic concepts as they translated tourist texts. In Canga-Alonso and Rubio Goitia, participants observed that the experience of translating journalistic texts fostered noticing and metalinguistic understanding of the source and TL. In Beaven and Álvarez, students in an online language course engaged in collaborative translation tasks, which contributed to their growing intercultural competence as they navigated the culture and meanings expressed in the target text. Lastly, Biasetti described an interpreting course designed for the purpose of language learning. The author noted that learners’ participation in interpreting tasks promoted the course’s learning outcomes, including increased lexical and cultural knowledge, and learners’ ability to comprehend content in the source language and reformulate it in the TL.

Therefore, T&I can be instrumental in fostering the development of translanguaging and transcultural skills comprising lexical, syntactical, metalinguistic, and cultural knowledge, particularly through hands-on experience (Colina), which, in this study, is possible through SL. Here, it is worth noting that translanguaging and transcultural skills partially align with the construct of translational competence. Translational competence comprises various subcompetencies determined by the reality of professional demands, including (a) communicative and textual abilities (an understanding of passive and active communication in at least two languages and their textual conventions), (b) knowledge of culture that goes beyond learned information and extends to every-day and folk knowledge, and (c) knowledge of specific target fields that support comprehension of the source text and additional texts required by the task (Kelly). Therefore, learners' engagement in T&I tasks comes full circle with the development of essential skills necessary to become a fully functional language speaker and a better professional in the T&I arena.

SL in the Translation and Interpretation Course

SL is best described as community service that meets an expressed need in the community and serves as a vehicle for learners to meet their own academic objectives and gain a sense of civic responsibility as they engage in meaningful reflection (Barreneche). Indeed, participation in SL teaches social responsibility, instills democratic citizenship, hones leadership skills and promotes engaged and resourceful individuals with 21st century skills (Edgerton; Simmons and Roberts-Weah; Barreneche; Faszler-McMahon). In this context, learning is substantiated by a continuous cycle of reflection where individuals make connections between the experience and personal and professional growth (Shaw and Roberson).

Although there is a growing body of literature that proves the effectiveness of SL in promoting language learning objectives for students of different linguistic backgrounds (Zapata; Caldwell; Barreneche; King de Ramírez), fewer investigations have explored the integration of SL in language for the professions classes, particularly T&I. For instance, Nelson and Scott investigated the effects of SL in foreign language instruction in

students completing the *Applied Spanish: Community Studies* minor. The minor included several courses, including translation and interpretation classes. The translation course was writing intensive and covered various topics including grammar and translation techniques. The interpretation course introduced students to standards of practice and ethics, and modes of interpretation. SL projects were carried out in partnership with a health office. Through a survey, the authors identified gains in students taking these courses, namely, understanding and sensitivity toward the Hispanic community and culture as well as awareness of socio-political issues, increased proficiency in the TL, confidence in using the Spanish language, motivation to continue learning Spanish, and contributions towards future career planning.

Ebacher introduced guidelines on SL in the T&I course and reported on students' benefits from the experience, which were gathered through a service-attitude assessment. In the translation course, students had an introduction to translation theory and practice; the SL component consisted of providing interpretation (10 hours) and translation (20 hours) to various community entities. Outcomes of the experience included: a self-assessment of language skills, motivation to continue improving the language, confidence on current skills, connections with other disciplines (e.g., medicine and ethics), and increased civic engagement as seen in their wish to contribute to society now and in the future and their understanding of issues in a diverse democratic society.

Lizardi-Rivera taught a Basics of Translation course attended mostly by Spanish heritage speakers (HS)—speakers who grew up in a home where a language other than English was spoken, in this case, Spanish (Valdés). Students were tasked with finding organizations or individuals in the community who needed (and could not afford) translation services who would become clients for their SL projects. The projects included materials that a school needed to send home with the children and a questionnaire requesting parental feedback at a day care, among others. The author highlights how translation tasks helped students put theoretical readings into practice; multiple drafts, instructor feedback, and peer editing also defined the enterprise. Lizardi-Rivera concluded with recommendations pertaining to SL initiatives, such as determining the make-up of working teams

based on language proficiency, personality and aptitude, and emphasis on deadlines necessary to complete the project.

Lastly, Bugel reported on an SL program that combined translation and interpretation, which was implemented as part of a translation SL course (Spanish in the Business World) in partnership with an elementary school with the goal to mend language barriers between the school and children's families. Class discussions covered matters of translation theory and history, and the multifaceted roles of translators in society, particularly as it pertains to community engagement. In addition, students provided interpretation services during parent-teacher conferences and translated various types of texts such as resources parents could use to support their children's school work. As a result of the experience, SL participants acquired an understanding of linguistic, sociocultural, and theoretical constructs derived from the translation and interpretation tasks as they worked in close contact with the local Spanish-speaking community.

Two other studies, Weldon and Trautmann and Brown and Purmensky described SL endeavors where students engaged in interpreting. In the former, a 12-hour SL placement was offered in a Medical Interpreting class. Students' reflections on their experience as interpreters in a health center constituted the data for analyzing how the five ACTFL standard goals, i.e., Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities, were successfully met through SL. In Brown and Purmensky, the authors report on a Translation course offered during a study-abroad program. The SL component consisted of working at a dental clinic where students performed various activities, including interpreting for a dentist and his assistant. Learners completed a survey on their perceptions of the experience and its impact on their language development. Results pointed to increased cultural understanding, language competence, and confidence. Learners also reflected on their activities in a journal; entries were qualitatively analyzed through two themes: language-related learning and culture-related learning. The authors concluded that SL impressed students linguistically, culturally, socially, and interpersonally, and promoted dissonance as a result of being placed in a situation that challenged their ideas about others and themselves.

Other studies, although not framed within a T&I course, report on SL projects that called for translation activities and highlight the benefits of the experience. Faszler-McMahon's study involved intermediate-high Spanish learners. The SL component consisted of assisting a non-profit organization that worked with entrepreneurs in Latin America. Students translated business plans that would be viewed online by lenders throughout the world. The analysis of learners' reflections and in-class discussions led the author to conclude that, overall, the translation project supported cultural and linguistic goals, such as exposure to dialectal differences and register. Tocaimaza-Hatch and Walls examined how an SL project mediated vocabulary learning in an upper-level Spanish conversation class. In the study, HSs and Spanish second language (L2) learners translated explanatory materials for a zoo. The quantitative analysis (pre- and post-tests) of target items selected from the source texts demonstrated that learners increased their vocabulary through the experience. Gains also related to breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge, which included increased awareness of semantic relationships between high and low frequency words and an understanding of vocabulary differences based on register and dialectal variation. The study also demonstrated that HSs increased their confidence in their linguistic abilities in the heritage language, their commitment to their own community, and their understanding of their bilingualism as a tool for good.

In summary, the studies in this section illustrate how connections can be established between language learning, SL, and T&I, which result in language learning outcomes that range from a wider lexicon and confidence to speak the TL to increased sensitivity to other cultures and communities' ways of living. Moreover, these investigations show how SL can provide future translators and interpreters with an ideal setting for situated learning by placing them in a context where they experience professional activities and thus develop the ways of thinking and doing of professionals (Kiraly; Rueda-Acedo).

The current study is thus framed within the language acquisition field and seeks to contribute to the scant literature on SL in language for the professions courses by focusing on the T&I course. The purpose of this research is to explore via descriptive and qualitative measures how SL as part of the T&I curriculum

can create affordances (van Lier) that foster the translingual and transcultural skills necessary to be fully competent in the TL.

METHODOLOGY

This section describes the T&I course where an SL component was introduced. Through the SL experience, learners carried out translations into Spanish in various fields for local non-profit organizations, and, either shadowed professional court interpreters or interpreted during a parent-teacher conference at an elementary school. This section also describes how data were collected and qualitatively analyzed with the ultimate purpose of identifying affordances for language learning through the SL experience.

T&I Course Description

The T&I course was an upper-level Spanish course housed in the foreign languages department at The University of Nebraska at Omaha, which is located in the Midwest in the United States. The institution is a public, regional, and doctoral university with an enrollment of 15000 students approximately. The university is located in Omaha, which has a total of 524,290 residents; Latinos represent 12% of this total (Cogua-Lopez et al.).

The T&I course included 10 students (eight females and two males) ages 18 to 40. Five students were Spanish HSs and five were Spanish L2 learners. Students' proficiency was not formally assessed; however, because this is an upper level course designed for Spanish majors and minors, students' competence in Spanish is usually within the Intermediate-Mid and Advanced-Low range in the ACTFL speaking scale (the instructor and researcher is a certified ACTFL OPI rater). Their career interests included criminal justice, teaching, nursing, and business.

The T&I course pursued these objectives: (a) developing a basic understanding of translation theory and modes of interpretation, (b) comprehending the communicative function of the translation and interpretation processes, (c) analyzing common problems regarding grammatical, discursive, and pragmatic functions that emerge in English-Spanish translations, and (d) deepening grammatical and lexical knowledge through the study of target topics in technical areas.

The two textbooks utilized in the course were Sonia Colina's *Fundamentals of Translation* and *En otras palabras: Perfeccionamiento del Español por Medio de la Traducción* by Lunn and Lunsford. Class time was spent discussing the readings assigned for the day and performing brief translations and interpreting exercises in preparation for the SL component of the course. In addition, students participated in a workshop on court interpreting offered by a court interpreter and the language coordinator for the Nebraska State Court.

SL Component: Creating Bridges through Language

The SL component, which was a required component of the T&I course, was titled *Creating Bridges through Language*. It had the purpose of (a) enabling hands-on experience in translation and interpretation so that students could build dossiers for future employment, (b) raising awareness of how language barriers obstruct access to services and impacts the quality of life of fellow community members, and (c) helping students learn of ways in which they could remedy language barriers through their language skills. With this component, students participated in translation and interpretation activities worth 45% of their final grade for the T&I course (10% for interpretation and 35% for translation).

A partnership was developed with four non-profit organizations that were in need of translated materials: a museum of art, two organizations providing mental health services, and one organization whose mission is to enable access to safe and continuous housing. The university's service-learning academy suggested the partnerships to the instructor.

Source texts making up the translation project for each organization added up to approximately 3000 words. Students worked in dyads or triads to complete the projects. Those working for the museum of art translated labels to be displayed in a gallery at the museum and material to be used in children's programs. One mental health organization requested that the students translate portions of their website while the other requested that their flyers describing their services and application process be translated. Lastly, the housing services organization requested that informative materials, e.g., how to file for taxes, property owner and tenant rights and obligations, be translated. In addition, seven students provided consecutive interpreting at a parent-teacher

conference at an elementary school and one student assisted during the interview process of an individual interested in applying for services at one of the mental health organizations. Two students, who were not confident in their language skills to provide interpreting services, shadowed court interpreters.

The scope of students' work as part of the SL experience could be described within the parameters of community interpreting and translation. This is where services are offered with the intent of making participation possible for those who do not speak the mainstream language. In this investigation, students, as community members themselves, provided services for other community members for the purpose of encouraging social and economic participation (Hale; Taibi and Ozolins). Community interpreting and translating fits with the social engagement pursuits that characterize SL.

Table 1 presents a summary for all activities pertaining the SL component during the 16-week T&I course. Activities that doubled as data sources for the current study are identified as DC, for Data Collection and described along with other methodological details and data analysis in the next section.

Table 1. SL timeline

Dates	Activity
Select days during weeks 2-7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The students and instructor visited the community partners. Representatives from the organizations did a presentation where the organization's mission and needs were introduced, which was followed by a Q&A. • Students completed a reflection following each visit (DC).
Week 8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students "applied" for a translation project (DC).
Weeks 9-15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Partnerships and translation projects were determined based on students' preference and competence to perform the project. • Four non-consecutive class periods were devoted to partnerships working on the project with assistance from the instructor. Students also worked on the project on their own time. • Students met the interpretation requirement.
Week 16	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For the final submission of their translation project, students turned in several items: an

	<p>analysis of parallel texts relevant to their translation, a corpus of technical vocabulary that they had developed for the project, evidence of having completed revise and review processes, and the final translation.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students completed a final reflection on the course and SL (DC). • The instructor reviewed and revised final translations and delivered edited drafts to the community partners within three months of the course's completion.
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The SL component provided a practical outlet for the theoretical notions that students discussed in the T&I course. As seen in Table 1, first, after visiting each of the organizations and gaining information on their needs and functioning, students “applied” for a translation project. That is, they selected one of the four projects available for the course. This selection was often guided by students’ career interest and/or desire to collaborate with a particular organization. As part of the application, students composed a translation brief where they explored the extra-linguistic factors (e.g., audience, medium, time and place of reception), and function that would guide the translation process for their chosen project. This exercise facilitated their comprehension of Skopos theory (i.e., the theory of translation that states that the translation process is guided by extra linguistic factors, particularly, function). Moreover, students reflected on their own translation competence particularly as it pertained to specialized and cultural knowledge required by their selected project. Next, partnerships (two to three students were assigned to each project) and translation projects were assigned based on students’ preference and competence to perform the work.

Subsequently, learners performed several tasks that supported the actual translation task: a parallel-texts analysis where they explored other texts with similar text-types and genre and the creation of a corpus based on the terminology employed and required by the source and target texts. Lastly, students engaged in revising and reviewing processes prior to submitting the final translated text.

Students’ work was assessed based on concepts of evaluation highlighted by Colina to determine translation quality, which had been discussed in class lectures and readings. The

rubric accounted for TL use in the translated text, functional and textual adequacy according to the text's purpose (i.e., function type) and needs of the intended audience, intended meaning transfer (i.e., shades of meaning are rendered accurately), and appropriate and accurate specialized terminology.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

As noted in Table 1, there were three sources of data: learners' reflections after visiting the organizations, applications to request a specific translation project, and a final reflection on the course and SL. All were carried out in an electronic journal available in the course's online platform. Appendix A reproduces the three sets of questions and prompts. Students completed the first two tasks in Spanish, and, for the third one, they could choose to respond in either English or Spanish.

Because the purpose of the study was to examine how translingual and transcultural skills were encouraged through SL in the T&I course, the qualitative analysis was grounded in the data (students' commentary) and sought to identify language learning affordances provided by the SL context. The data analysis procedure mirrors that implemented in Thoms and Poole in their study of affordances (which was reviewed before). As a first step in the analysis, the researcher read through the students' comments in the three sources of data. With this first pass through the data, it was found that learners' reflections after their visits to the community organizations and their translation project applications were descriptive of the organization, their mission, and the mechanics of the translation project. Furthermore, learners provided insights regarding the circumstances that prevented the organization from reaching out to the Spanish-speaking community members (e.g., lack of bilingual employees) and the difficulty of individuals to access vital services. They also assessed their own competence in Spanish. The final reflection revealed learners' perceptions and thoughts regarding SL and the course. Here, they spoke of how the experience had promoted learning of linguistic and social issues.

Following this general overview of the data, two broad categories were identified: linguistic and social affordances. Linguistic affordances referred to properties of the environment, both naturally occurring or cultivated by learners, which arose in

learners' interaction and participation, that promoted language learning (Thoms; van Lier). Social affordances pointed to the development of information, even if unspoken, that resulted from exchanges and participation (Gibson). After a second pass through the data, coding categories were established which, with a third pass through the data, were further defined as seen in Table 2. Here, each category is followed by a notation in parentheses reporting the number of instances in which the category was referenced. Thus, with repeated reviews of the data, these themes were coded, refined, and categorized as crucial, prevalent, and relevant to the investigation (Braun and Clarke).

Table 2. Affordances: Coding categories

Linguistic affordances	Social affordances
Comments regarding vocabulary (21)	Comments regarding activities that transcend the classroom (10)
Comments regarding translation and interpretation skills (16)	Comments regarding civic engagement (9)
Comments regarding grammar (11)	Comments regarding advocacy for (own) Latino community (7)
Comments regarding Spanish/English syntactical contrasts (8)	Comments regarding the power of language (6)
Comments regarding pronunciation (5)	Comments regarding future career (6)
Comments regarding assessment of own competence (5)	
Comments regarding style (register) (3)	
Comments regarding semantics (2)	
Comment regarding pragmatics (2)	
Comments regarding reading comprehension (2)	
Comments regarding punctuation (2)	

In order to establish trustworthiness in the qualitative analysis, these techniques (from Lincoln and Guba) were implemented: multiple data sources (i.e., reflection, application, and final reflection) were systematically reviewed and data were parsed and

analysed at three different points in time over a year. Furthermore, the researcher (and instructor) was engaged with students and community partners throughout all facets of the SL component, which gave her an overview of the process and its participants from beginning to end.

RESULTS

Learners' comments were coded as two overarching categories, linguistic affordances, i.e., properties of the environment that promoted language learning (Thoms; van Lier), and social affordances, i.e., the development of information resulting from SL participation (Gibson). Frequent and relevant themes within each category were grounded in the data (see Table 2) and were deemed crucial to this study's purpose: exploring how SL in the T&I course promoted affordances for language learning through the development of translingual and transcultural skills.

Linguistic affordances were numerous. These encompassed commentary on how SL activities in the course had been beneficial to vocabulary development; gaining a more accurate understanding of what it entails to engage in translation and interpretation activities; and working through difficult grammatical structures. Other affordances were furthering understanding of Spanish/English contrasts (e.g., lexical or syntactical); raising awareness on pronunciation issues particularly for low frequency words; assessing one's Spanish competence; understanding textual features such as style and register; and gaining awareness on semantic nuance. Still others were pragmatic factors resulting from culturally diverse contexts; reading comprehension for precise understanding of content; and being aware of accurate punctuation since translated materials would eventually be made public.

Social affordances described SL tasks transporting students to the real-world through activities that transcended routine classroom practices; increasing students' sense of civic engagement as described in their augmented knowledge of the community and intention to be more involved in it; desire to advocate for the Latino community once they came to see the lack of resources available to them because of language barriers; becoming aware of how language can empower and, by the same

token, decimate Latinos' opportunities for progress and well-being; and, lastly, envisioning T&I as a future career.

While the analysis reported before provided a descriptive overview, the next sections present a sampling of relevant and frequent themes with corresponding (unedited) quotes from participants that exemplify findings and further the analysis of affordances in SL through T&I tasks.

Linguistic Affordances

As seen in Table 2, commonly mentioned themes addressed vocabulary learning, gaining insights into translating and interpreting as skills that encompass control of numerous abilities and cognitive processes, and understanding difficult grammatical elements. Other items included awareness and knowledge of Spanish/English contrasts and pronunciation, and being able to gauge their competence in Spanish through the experience.

Excerpt 1, by PK, an L2 learner, speaks of the value of the experience to foster vocabulary. The comment refers to the various layers of word knowledge and vocabulary learning strategies motivated by the experience. On the one hand, PK speaks of increased word depth and breadth prompted by the need to understand the multiple meanings and uses implied in a lexical item in order to identify the term that would most appropriately convey the source text's intended message, while providing a fitting lexical unit in the TL. On the other hand, PK observes how the meaningful and in-depth manipulation of vocabulary promoted retention.

Excerpt 1. Linguistic affordances: vocabulary

I found this activity to be among the best of vocabulary practices. Because of the necessity of understanding various aspects of each vocabulary word, because of their repetition in the project, and because of the requirement of comparing related vocabulary, my retention in regards to these specific words is very high. The vocabulary I have learned, I will likely always remember, and further, I fully understand those vocabulary words as opposed to

understanding one or two definitions or uses of each.
(PK–L2)

Excerpt 2, by EW, a HS, alludes to various linguistic targets and highlights the experience of translating in a technical field. It also points to a social affordance (to be discussed in the next section) regarding the value of doing activities that are intended for a real audience, which compelled learners to produce an accurate and efficient translation.

Excerpt 2. Linguistic affordances: vocabulary, grammar, punctuation

The area of my Spanish competence that was most impacted was vocabulary because I learn new vocabulary through the [translation] project, medical terms like (Trastorno Bipolar, Esquizofrenia, Trastorno Esquizoafectivo, and a lot more) [...]. However, my grammar was heavily impacted as well because translating for an organization like [organization name] you have to have correct grammar and punctuation. (EW–HS)

The next excerpt (PK–L2) also emphasizes the intersection between the various subsets of knowledge and expertise that translational competence calls for.

Excerpt 3. Linguistic affordances: translational competence

The variety of projects was stupendous, and it was neat to see their use outside of the classroom. Our project involved familiar and briefly legal translation, and the juxtaposition of the two required that we analyze grammatical, pragmatic, and semantic differences between the languages, and in what context to give preferential treatment to which of the qualities. (PK–L2)

Although the bulk of the work involved in the SL project consisted of producing a translation project, the interpretation experience at

the parent-teacher conference (or shadowing court interpreters) also prompted important reflections. One participant indicated that the experience had been “eye-opening about what it’s really like to be an interpreter in real-life” (DD–L2), thus acknowledging the rigor and abilities that the activity entails. Many, including HSs, argued that the task had an impact on their pronunciation; they appeared to become more aware of their oral abilities, perhaps, as a consequence of fulfilling a formal role as interpreters in an unfamiliar setting, which might have triggered the use of less frequent lexical items.

Excerpt 4. Linguistic affordances: pronunciation

Having the opportunity to interpret at the school earlier this semester helped me better pronounce certain terms that I would not use on a daily basis at home with my family or in another Spanish course. (MH–HS)

Besides identifying various linguistic targets (e.g., vocabulary, register), several learners commented on how they had been able to reassess their competence in Spanish and acknowledge that they found areas that needed improvement.

Social Affordances

With the SL experience, learners began to see language as more than a subject in college or a means to exchange a message; they began to perceive language as intrinsically connected with multiple areas in life and as a gateway to possibilities (Bourdieu). Students became aware of social circumstances and challenges faced by their neighbors in the community and considered how their linguistic abilities could enable them to participate and advocate for them. These themes were described under social affordances, which, in this research, were identified as: SL as activity that transcends the language classroom, civic engagement and advocacy, and the power of language (see Table 2 for descriptive counts for these themes).

In the next excerpt, SC (L2) expresses concern for those who do not enjoy legal status in the U.S. and are denied services by the mental health organization. His comment signals a new understanding of issues that pertain to living in a diverse

democratic society, which is an aspect that determines an individual's civic engagement.

Excerpt 5. Social affordances: civic engagement

[organization's name] is not an organization that only receives resources from donations; at this time, 48% (of its funds) comes from the state, while 52% comes from the federal government. For this reason, for them to be able to assist people [...], the individual needs to be an American citizen. [...]. I have to say that this deeply worries me since it means that the U.S., or its government, will not help those who do not have an American passport. [...] What happens to those that are not American?

Often learners were disappointed and saddened by the realities that they were exposed to through SL. These realizations broadened their perspectives and gave them motivation to move into action. In the next excerpt, ML (L2) recounts her Spanish learning history and observes a shift in her persona regarding language for individual purposes and language for empowering others in her increased sense of civic duty.

Excerpt 6. Social affordances: power of language; civic engagement

I think my perspective on my language skills prior to now, was one of personal necessity or want [...]. My language-learning was very much about what I personally needed or wanted, which, retrospectively, was selfish. This project helped me to understand the language barriers people in my own community face when trying to access necessary and helpful services. It made me understand where a need for bilingual people exists in my community and made me view my language skills as a means of giving back to my community. So because of that, I really think that projects like this help shift a multilingual person's language perspective from being an individual interest to a communal benefit. (ML-L2)

In this project, language became the means to tap into the way of living of a portion of the community, which for many participants was unknown. It also showed learners how they could help the situation, as seen in excerpt 7, where EW (HS) envisions using her translation skills and the information she gained through partnering with community organizations to advocate for the Latino community and facilitate resources. This sentiment and desire to support their own community was frequent in HSs' comments.

Excerpt 7. Social affordances: civic engagement; advocacy

With all the knowledge about translation it allows me to be an advocate for my community. I would be able to translate information that is important for my community to know, provide my community with different resources or point them in the right direction. (EW-HS)

In thinking about the benefits promoted through SL in the T&I course, one may wonder if such benefits could be attainable through classroom instruction only. All learners agreed that, although difficult, the SL component facilitated affordances that would not have been possible in the classroom. For once, learners' own motivation would have been drastically different. Regarding this topic, PK's (L2) comment echoes those of other students: first, had it not been for the activities being framed as SL, students would not have gone beyond the purely linguistic demands of the translation activity and would have disregarded the sociohistorical contexts of those for whom the translations were intended. Second, the authenticity of the task disrupted and expanded their world as university students as they sought answers and expertise in others.

Excerpt 8. Social affordances: civic engagement; advocacy; transcending the classroom

[Had this been a class project,] there would have been less motivation to complete the project to a high standard. Also the standard would have been giving the translation that the professor was seeking, as opposed to completing

the translation most appropriate and useful for the organization (although theoretically these are the same, and are in fact very similar, they are not [...]). For a fictitious project, I would have given the answer satisfactory to the professor. For this project, I consulted with a behavioral psychologist who performs the tests and services which ["the organization"] is referencing. (PK–L2)

All in all, the SL component in the T&I course provided linguistic and social affordances that might be difficult (if not impossible) to fully replicate in the language classroom. In the next section, implications of this research are drawn as they pertain to affording language learning through SL in the T&I course and meeting the communicative needs of 21st century multilingual individuals.

DISCUSSION

This research explored how SL in the T&I course promoted the emergence of affordances that can foster the translingual and transcultural skills language learners need to be fully competent in the TL. For this purpose, the concepts of linguistic and social affordances were operationalized, where the former arose out of learners' interaction with the environment and encouraged knowledge of linguistic issues, and the latter pointed to the development of other information that resulted from such participation.

Based on the analysis of participants' reflections and commentary, linguistic affordances included opportunities for improvement, mostly, in the areas of vocabulary, the various skills encompassed in translation and interpretation, and grammar, among others. These findings agree with prior investigations (e.g., Beaven and Álvarez, Biasetti and Trovato) where translation and interpretation practices fostered various linguistic domains needed in language learning. In addition, learners reported being able to gauge their competence in Spanish and identify areas that needed improvement, as also seen in Caldwell and Ebacher. Lastly, learners described translation (and interpretation) as what Colina and Lafford termed a fifth skill, that is, an integrative view of translation that activates all other language skills and promotes language learning. Indeed, the experience impacted many of the

subcompetencies that translational competence represents, including textual abilities, cultural information, and knowledge of a specific target field, among others.

Social affordances pertained to learners' comments on civic engagement, the power of language, advocacy for the Latino community, and responsibility and motivation for activities that transcend the classroom. Because learners gained deeper understanding of the organizations' functioning beyond that which related strictly to the translation task, they became aware of socio-political issues, i.e., services available only to U.S. citizens, which many found disturbing. This finding echoes Brown's and Purmensity's discussion of dissonance resulting from students being placed in situations that challenge their ideas—about others and themselves—which contributes to the learning that arises from SL. These experiences foment learners' civic engagement. Indeed, once privy to information regarding the organizations and how they engage (or not) with Spanish speakers in the community, students expressed a desire to improve the situation. Although it is not unusual in SL research for participants to increase their civic engagement (e.g., Ebacher), learners in this study had concrete plans about how they could and would contribute by making use of their translation and interpretation skills. With this experience, learners witnessed how language is intertwined in all areas of life and can concede and deter opportunities (Bourdieu), thus, they sought to enable opportunities for others through their linguistic skills.

Although the desire to provide continued service was common among all students, it was particularly pressing among HSs, as also seen in Tocaimaza-Hatch and Walls. HSs felt that they needed and could serve their own community as translators, interpreters, and facilitators and bridge information and resources. This finding is relevant for several reasons. (a) SL has been criticized for lacking diversity in those providing service thus resulting in the replication of social differentials, which can deepen prejudice and patronizing views (Marquez). In this study, though, HSs worked side by side with L2s and were empowered by the experience of serving their own community. (b) Because the experience primed language as a tool and resource framed in real life needs (not just meeting academic objectives for the language course), HSs' bilingualism was seen as an asset; the experience highlighted their abilities over their difficulties in

Spanish and promoted continued language improvement (Leeman et al.). (c) In empowering, improving, and validating the heritage language, maintenance of the language might have been promoted (Lowther-Pereira).

In sum, the SL experience made for a learning space where “linguistic, cultural, and social aspects of the language-based event” (Overfield 62) were emphasized as seen in the range of affordances that learners had access to and engaged with. SL aided in meeting the T&I course goals of promoting translanguaging and transcultural skills, as seen in learners’ understanding of cultural, social, and motivational issues as well as linguistic matters, and shaping individuals that can more fully function with and within the language community. Indeed, these findings further support the notion that SL is essential in the attainment of *symbolic competence*, or what Kramsch has described as learner’s ability to operate linguistic codes and comprehend their social implications and fully perform with language (Tocaimaza-Hatch).

Moreover, the experience represented a context for situated learning where participants not only gained theoretical notions of the T&I field but also experienced some of the elements and factors relevant to the translator/interpreter profession. This is important for students who will pursue these fields professionally as well as for all others who, as bilinguals, might be asked to translate or interpret in less formal settings and need to understand what it really entails to perform a translation and the skills needed to be an efficient interpreter (Lizardi-Rivera).

This study is significant for several reasons. First, there has been an emphasis on translation over interpretation in the literature, which ignores the development of competencies inherent to interpreting (Valdés and Angelelli). As seen in this study, partnering with entities in the community can be useful in giving students the chance to experiment with interpretation while also enabling participation by those who do not speak the majority language. In addition, the study of affordances contributed to an understanding of learning opportunities in SL that line up with language learning goals for the T&I course from the broad spectrum of translanguaging and transcultural skills, while also shedding light on how situated learning via SL can strengthen future translators’ and interpreters’ translational competence.

Several pedagogical implications are drawn from this investigation. First, there has been little guidance in the literature

for language practitioners seeking to implement SL in T&I courses (Bugel; Sánchez-López), particularly as it pertains to technical fields (Sánchez-López 87; Colina 1; Ebacher 397). This study details the SL component implemented in a T&I course where translation in technical fields was central to the experience. The information discussed here (e.g., textbooks, assignments, rubric content) can serve as a model that can assist instructors as they grapple with the challenge of designing a SL component for their course. Second, the overview of affordances introduced in this research provides a “menu” of naturally occurring learning opportunities in SL that instructors can more explicitly target as they build the curriculum for the T&I course. For example, learners reported that interpretation activities impacted their pronunciation. This linguistic affordance can be furthered through the addition of an oral portfolio activity where learners record their interpretations and carry out an analysis and self-assessment of their pronunciation. Another pedagogical implication emerges from learners’ desire to do more for the organizations they partnered with. This can be possible through the design of a T&I course sequence that maintains partnership with the same organization, thus giving learners the change to make a more significant contribution to the community while they continue to profit from language learning affordances present in such activities and context.

One limitation of this research is that it included only ten participants. This is because, from a practical perspective, the greatest challenge that T&I instructors have in these courses is the editorial work that goes into making student translations into publishable pieces (Ebacher). This makes it necessary to have a reduced number of students in the class. Nevertheless, future investigations should aim to increase the participant pool in order to gather more robust results. In addition, a future study might implement a microgenetic analysis of learners’ multiple translations drafts. A microgenetic analysis implies the examination of linguistic processes that emerge when learners face a challenge or disruption. Such an analysis would provide a glance into language development in the T&I context through translation.

CONCLUSION

An increasingly interconnected world calls for speakers who are competent in the TL both linguistically (translingual skill) and from cultural and socio-historical perspectives (transcultural skill). The current study explored how these skills were fostered in a T&I course through the incorporation of a SL component where learners produced translations for several non-profit organizations and either interpreted during a parent-teacher conference or shadowed professional court interpreters. Learners' reflections regarding the SL experience were analyzed through the affordance construct. This led to the identification of language learning opportunities present in the rich SL context that afforded a range of skills, e.g., technical vocabulary and knowledge of sociopolitical issues. Findings support the essential role that SL can fulfill in meeting a broad range of pedagogical objectives in T&I instruction.

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APPENDIX A

Hoja de reflexión de la visita

- (1) ¿Cuál es el objetivo de esta organización?
- (2) ¿Qué necesidades tienen en general?
- (3) ¿Qué necesidades tienen en conexión con la traducción?

Formulario para solicitar asignación

- (1) Identifica los proyectos de trabajo según tu grado de preferencia (1, menor interés, 4 mayor interés).
- (2) Explica cuáles son los requisitos específicos que presenta el proyecto de traducción que te resulta de mayor interés en cuanto a vocabulario, complejidad de la estructura, registro, contenido, audiencia, formato, etc.
- (3) Explica qué cualidades u otros factores tienes como traductor que serán útiles para realizar este proyecto en particular. Es decir, ¿qué te distingue de tus compañeros en la clase para llevar a cabo este proyecto y realizar un trabajo sobresaliente?

Final Reflection

- (1) Did the project support or promote learning outcomes in this class? Which ones and how? (you may want to look at the course's syllabus to remember what the course's objectives were)
- (2) Which area of your Spanish competence (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, etc.) was most impacted by the activities related to the project? Please explain your answer.
- (3) Do you feel that working on a project without application beyond the classroom would have changed the learning experience? How?
- (4) In previous semesters, students have described comparable projects as "deepening" their learning or giving them opportunities to learn things that they would not have been able to learn during regular class. Do you feel that these descriptions apply to you this semester? Please explain your answer.
- (5) Do you feel that doing projects such as this one helps students see their language skills from a different perspective? In other words, how do you see your own bilingualism after having learned

about the various language barriers that people in Omaha experience when trying to access services?

(6) Do you feel that this project was useful in showing you, a bilingual individual, how you could contribute to your community in the future and after graduation?

USING COMMUNITY SERVICE LEARNING IN THE SPANISH TRANSLATION CLASSROOM: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

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Resumen: El aprendizaje-servicio comunitario (ApSC) desempeña un papel cada vez más importante en los cursos de lengua para fines específicos (LFE). Curiosamente, sin embargo, ApSC ha estado ausente en gran medida de los cursos de traducción e interpretación. Por esa razón, realizamos un estudio de caso sobre el papel de ApSC en el aula de traducción e interpretación. Los estudiantes en nuestro estudio están inscritos en un programa de grado de cuatro años diseñado para prepararlos para trabajar como traductores e intérpretes. Como parte de su programa, los estudiantes brindan servicio de traducción e interpretación para varias organizaciones sin ánimo de lucro. Nuestro estudio empleó cuestionarios y entrevistas para evaluar las perspectivas de los estudiantes y las organizaciones comunitarias acerca de sus experiencias. Nuestros resultados indican que el ApSC proporciona beneficios para todos los involucrados. Específicamente, los estudiantes mejoran sus habilidades lingüísticas y de gestión de proyectos, mientras que las organizaciones comunitarias reportan beneficios sustanciales para las poblaciones a las que sirven. Con respecto a los desafíos, nuestros resultados indican que la comunicación ineficaz, en particular sobre las expectativas, crea el mayor obstáculo para los participantes de ApSC.

Palabras clave: aprendizaje-servicio comunitario, traducción, interpretación, español para fines específicos, diseño curricular

Abstract: Community service learning (CSL) plays an increasingly important role in language for specific purposes (LSP) courses. Curiously, however, CSL has been largely absent from translation and interpretation courses. For that reason, we conducted a case study looking at the role of CSL in the translation and interpretation classroom. The students in our study are enrolled in a four-year degree program designed to prepare them to work as translators and interpreters. As part of their program, students provide translation and interpretation services for various non-profit community organizations. Our study employed questionnaires and interviews to evaluate students' and community organizations' perspectives about their experiences. Our results suggest that CSL provides benefits for everyone involved. Specifically, students

improve their linguistic and project-management skills, while community organizations report substantial benefits for the populations they serve. With respect to challenges, our results indicate that ineffective communication—particularly about expectations—creates the biggest obstacle for CSL participants.

Keywords: community service learning, translation, interpretation, Spanish for specific purposes, curriculum design

INTRODUCTION

Community service learning (CSL) is a type of experiential learning. Through CSL, students apply academic-course content to real-life situations as they provide service to community organizations. CSL therefore benefits both students and those they serve (Dubinsky; Hauver and Iverson). CSL differs from simple service or volunteerism because CSL uses experiential learning to simultaneously further academic-course objectives and address community needs (Wurr and Hellebrandt). Likewise, CSL differs from project-based learning because in addition to learning through experience, students provide a valuable service to individuals who may not receive assistance without the CSL program. Concerning CSL's unique character, Barbara Jacoby emphasizes that CSL is not “the traditional, paternalistic, one-way approach to service, where one person or group has resources that they share with a person or a group that they assume lacks resources” (8). Instead, as Jacoby notes, CSL creates a symbiotic relationship wherein reciprocity exists between the learning and service aspects of the experience.

Because CSL meets the demand for both quality instruction and practical application of classroom material, more universities are using CSL to prepare students for the “real world” (Govekar and Richi 3). Such is the case for language courses, particularly LSP courses. Indeed, in recent years, CSL has become more prevalent in the language classroom in two ways: (1) the number of students who participate in CSL has grown; and (2) the variety of courses that include a CSL component (Barreneche and Ramos-Flores) has increased. In the language for specific purposes (LSP) classroom, CSL experiences emphasize completing authentic real-world tasks that provide valuable service to worthwhile organizations. As students participate, they

become more competent in the target language and area of study (Varas).

Even as CSL has become prevalent in LSP classes, CSL has nevertheless been largely absent from translation courses. Commenting on this absence, Marko Miletich states: “Although Social Work, Sociology and Political Science Departments carry out many of the service-learning projects, the model could be incorporated more often to translation and interpreting courses” (251). CSL remains largely absent in translation courses despite the fact that many researchers have found that CSL helps students acquire a deeper understanding of classroom content than coursework alone. With respect to this understanding, Lantolf states that simply doing an activity does not promote the most effective learning; rather, learning improves when activities are motivated by a culturally constructed need. Such a need undeniably exists in the translation and interpretation classroom.

While many translation and interpretation courses do not use CSL to a significant degree, some studies have evaluated CSL in such courses. In one such study, Carmen Lizardi-Rivera found that “learners need to literally get their hands dirty with a real-life translation project to realize just how demanding and serious the responsibility of translating a text is” (113). Other researchers have found benefits beyond an understanding of professional behavior. For example, Pacheco Aguilar found that through CSL, translation “students can be expected to take control of and responsibility for their own learning process and can also have an influence on social and political forces in their educational environment” (13). Likewise, Miletich notes that CSL helps students see how coursework relates to professional development and understand social issues in the local community. Pacheco Aguilar continues, declaring:

The objective behind undertaking authentic translation work within the educational setting is to strengthen the links between theoretical reflection and practical know-how in order to develop self-reflective professional translator expertise and generic skills like creativity, critical thought, autonomy, responsibility, cooperativeness and professionalism in a holistic way (13).

The present case study evaluates the CSL experiences of students enrolled in a four-year degree program that trains them to work as interpreters and translators. The first part of this study presents several translation competence models and explores how CSL contributes to translation competence. We continue by describing the study's methodology including a description of the participants, procedures, and instruments. We conclude by explaining the study's results and our suggestions for future research and our conclusions. In brief, our results suggest that CSL benefits both students and community organizations. Students improve their professional skills, while community organizations are able to serve clients they might not reach without the CSL programs.

TRANSLATION COMPETENCE, WORK PLACEMENT, AND CSL

Several scholars have proposed translation competence models. Among the most widely cited are those of Anthony Pym, Dorothy Kelly, and a research cohort based at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona known as the PACTE (Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation) group. While these scholars' models differ, each assumes—either explicitly or implicitly—that competent translators have three skills that students should develop through service learning: (1) resolving challenges, (2) organizing their work, and (3) assessing their performance.

Concerning the skills associated with translation competence, Anthony Pym has long promoted a minimalist model. Specifically, Pym asserts that translation competence combines two abilities: (1) “the ability to generate a series of more than one viable target text (TT1, TT2 ... TTn) for a pertinent source text (ST)”; and (2) “the ability to select only one viable TT from this series, quickly and with justified confidence” (2003:489). Among other things, this minimalist definition necessarily implies the three skills described above. That is, translators cannot “generate” many possible target texts and then select the most appropriate one without resolving challenges, organizing their work effectively, and assessing their own performance.

Unlike Pym, Dorothy Kelly and the PACTE group propose a highly granular approach to translation competence. Specifically, Kelly and PACTE view translation competence as consisting of several subcompetences. These subcompetences combine to supply “the declarative and procedural knowledge needed to translate” (PACTE 106). PACTE identifies five subcompetences, while Kelly identifies seven. PACTE’s five subcompetences are as follows: (1) “bilingual subcompetence,” which concerns the “predominantly procedural knowledge” required for successful intercultural communication; (2) “extralinguistic subcompetence,” meaning “predominantly declarative knowledge” about the world generally plus “field-specific” knowledge about the world of the source text, e.g., law, medicine, science; (3) “knowledge about translation subcompetence,” which includes “predominantly declarative knowledge” about the translation profession and the “methods and procedures” translators employ to resolve common problems; (4) “instrumental subcompetence,” which is “predominantly procedural knowledge” about using different resources—electronic, printed, human—to produce a translation; and (5) “strategic subcompetence,” which is “procedural knowledge to guarantee the efficiency of the translation process and to solve problems encountered” (106). In addition to describing these five subcompetences, PACTE asserts that “psycho-physiological components” influence all of them.

Like PACTE’s model, Dorothy Kelly’s model asserts that psychological components influence translation competence. Unlike PACTE, however, Kelly categorizes these psychological components as a separate subcompetence rather than an overarching influence, and she also adds professional interpersonal skills as a subcompetence discrete from the others. As a result, Kelly posits seven subcompetences as compared to PACTE’s five. Kelly’s subcompetences are as follows: (1) “communicative and textual competence,” meaning “active and passive skills” with respect to languages and text types; (2) “subject area competence,” meaning familiarity with the source text’s field; (3) “professional and instrumental competence,” meaning the ability to use the resources necessary to create the translation; (4) “psycho-physiological or attitudinal competence,” including “self-confidence” and “memory”; (5) “interpersonal competence,” meaning the capacity to interact effectively with the

many people encountered during the translation process, whether they be translation professionals, clients, or others; (6) “strategic competence,” including the skill necessary to organize a project, find solutions for translation challenges, and assess the quality of one’s own work; and (7) “cultural and intercultural competence,” meaning familiarity with a community’s “history, geography, institutions and so on,” particularly a given community’s “values, myths, perceptions, beliefs, and behaviours” (Kelly 32-33).

In a recent article, influential translation-studies scholar Don Kiraly reviewed the foregoing competence models. He concluded that they were “essentially heuristics with fuzzy boundaries” that have nevertheless helped researchers understand the “complex process of translation and the knowledge & skills needed to engage with it professionally” (134). In addition, Kiraly considered Kelly’s model the most helpful due to its precision, its “high degree of ecological validity” (134), and its artful balance of prior models’ insights.

After choosing Kelly’s model, Kiraly uses it to make an argument for “work placement” (139) in translation programs. “Work placement” refers to having students work for a language-service provider while still in school. Kiraly believes work placement to be especially helpful for developing strategic competence—the subcompetence Kelly considers most important because it “links the various competences to each other” (Kiraly 135). Indeed, Kiraly argues that work placement plays a “vital” role in the “process of merging the competencies developed in the institutional setting” (140).

Like work placement, community service learning offers students an opportunity to immerse themselves in a genuine working environment. CSL can therefore help students develop their translation competence just as work placement does. CSL arguably offers greater benefits than work placement, however, because CSL students improve the community as well. These benefits, particularly as they involve an activity like translation that promotes intercultural communication, suggest that CSL may well be superior to work placement and internships.

In spite of the benefits of using CSL with Spanish-translation students, a limited amount of research has been carried out to date (Bugel; Ebacher; Lizardi-Rivera; Miletich). We propose that using CSL with translation and interpretation courses allows students to receive an “authentic translator education”

while serving their community and becoming more socially aware (Pacheco Aguilar). Our study seeks to add to the growing body of research on using CSL by evaluating the service-learning experiences of undergraduate Spanish-translation students at Brigham Young University by answering the following questions:

1. How does including service learning in translation classes contribute to the overall development of the students' competency as translators?
2. How do students connect classroom content to the service-learning experience?
3. How do community partners perceive the work completed by these students, and how does it benefit their organizations?
4. What do community partners and students believe can increase the benefits of translation-related service learning?

METHODOLOGY

Our study evaluates how students view the relationship between service learning and translation learning as well as how community partners feel they benefit from CSL. We used two different surveys as well as interviews: one for students and one for community partners to gather the data to address the research questions. The surveys were designed (1) to elicit students' responses regarding the learning outcomes expected for students participating in Brigham Young University's undergraduate Spanish translation major and (2) to determine how the students perceived that the CSL experience helped them improve as translators. In addition to the surveys, we interviewed students and community partners about the relationship between service learning and translation learning.

Participants

The seven students involved in this study are enrolled in Brigham Young University's Spanish translation major, a program that seeks to prepare students with the skills and training necessary to be successful in the language industry. Students served as volunteer interpreters and translators at either the

Maliheh Clinic in Salt Lake City, Utah (a low-cost healthcare provider); Holy Cross Ministries in Salt Lake City (a Catholic charitable organization that aids immigrants to the United States); or SA Lifeline Foundation in Provo, Utah (a charitable organization that helps people overcome various addictions).

The seven students range in age from twenty-one to twenty-four. One was raised in a bilingual (Spanish-English) household in the United States, while the other six are English speakers raised in the United States. The bilingual student was born in the United States and was raised speaking Spanish and English and acquired both languages simultaneously from birth. This student served as an unpaid missionary representing the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints in Mexico, while all but one of the other students served as unpaid missionaries for the same church among different Latin American populations. The students' mission service ranges from eighteen months to twenty-four months. The student who did not serve a mission studied Spanish in high school and continued her studies at [Institution]. All of the students in this study were identified by the use of an 'S' for 'student' and a unique number for each student that was randomly chosen based on the number of participants and assigned. For example, S4 is a student in the study who randomly received the number '4' as a unique identifier.

Procedures

All of the students in this study were translation majors enrolled in either an intermediate or an advanced translation course. These courses are required for the major, which is a limited-enrollment program for which students must pass an entrance examination. This course is offered every semester and is one of the required courses for students admitted to the program. As part of their program, students are required to complete a service-learning project. Most students complete this service-learning project by their third semester, but some wait for their fourth. To complete the service-learning project, students must provide 42 hours of service to a community partner during the semester. As part of the service-learning project, students were asked to complete an online survey and participate in an interview. The students and the three community partners were each sent the surveys through their email with a deadline for completing them.

Prior to the deadline, reminders were sent via email for students and community partners to complete the surveys. After the deadline had passed, community partners and students who had not completed the surveys were sent individual emails requesting their completion. All of the students and the directors of the three different community organizations were interviewed by the course instructor, who took field notes during the interviews. The student interviews were in-person interviews in the course instructor's office, while the community partner interviews were telephonic interviews.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study were the survey on the service-learning experience for students (see Appendix A) and the service-learning agency evaluation form wherein the organizations could evaluate the students' performance during the service-learning experience (see Appendix B). Both of these surveys were created using Google Forms, and both the students and community partners completed them online during the last two weeks of the course. The student's questionnaire consisted of four sections: 1) five questions about the students' perceptions and understanding before the service-learning experience, 2) sixteen questions about the students' observations throughout the service-learning experience, 3) seven questions about the students' reflections on the entire service-learning experience, and 4) four questions where students were asked to evaluate their experience and given space to provide an explanation of their evaluation. Students used a five-point scale: 1 = 'strongly agree' and 5 = 'strongly disagree' to indicate their level of agreement with all of the statements and additionally were able to explain their scoring in the four open-ended questions in the fourth section. A sixth numeric alternative (6 = 'not applicable') was provided.

The service-learning agency evaluation form consisted of 13 statements regarding the performance and professional behavior of the students, with two additional spaces: one for additional comments about the student or the project and one for the community organization to be able to suggest future projects from which the students and the community organization could benefit. Each of the 13 items contained a statement with which respondents could express their degree of agreement using the

same scale as the student survey, with 1 = ‘strongly agree’ and 5 = ‘strongly disagree’. All items address the quality and value of students’ service, the extent to which students’ service aided learning outcomes, and the possibilities for improving future service-learning experiences. Before presenting the study results, we need to clarify several terms that appear in the survey responses: (1) translation, (2) interpretation, and (3) computer-assisted translation (CAT) tools. Translation refers only to texts, the rendering of a written message into another language. Interpretation is an oral activity, the rendering of a spoken message into another language. CAT tools are the software programs that increase professional translators’ efficiency and consistency; these programs do not do any translation work themselves, but rather allow humans to maintain the same terminology throughout a translated document and re-use previously translated material.

RESULTS

With respect to the surveys and interviews, those instruments address student perceptions of the following four issues: (1) How do students feel that CSL helps them develop translation competence? (2) How do students connect classroom content to the service-learning experience? (3) How do community partners perceive students’ work, and how does that work benefit their organizations? (4) What can be done to increase the benefits of CSL? Not all of the questions from the interviews or the surveys were reported in this study, as some did not address the research questions. We review the pertinent results in order of the aforementioned issues below.

A. How do students feel that CSL helps them develop translation competence?

Concerning translation and interpretation skills, all students enthusiastically endorsed CSL as being valuable to the development of their translation skills. Several items in the post-CSL survey addressed their perception of their skill development (see fig. 1).

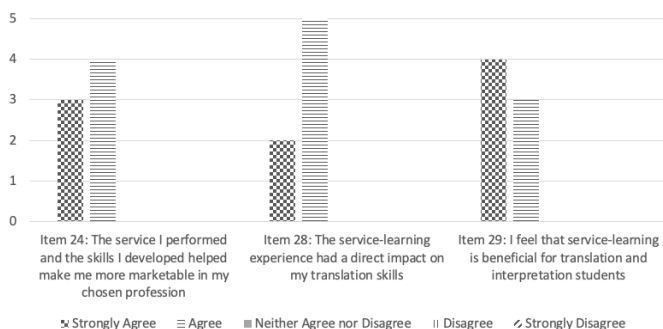


Fig. 1. Survey items on how students feel CSL develops translation competence

All three of these items specifically address how students feel that CSL helps them develop their translation competence, and all of the students agreed or strongly agreed with each of the survey items. More importantly, students' experiences went beyond skills development. That is, they observed how CSL helped them learn to negotiate with the many parties involved. The following representative responses illustrate how students felt they were able to increase their translation competence through CSL:

Excerpt 1: I believe that translation and interpretation are all about service to other people. I think this definitely should be required and allows students to gain valuable experience in hands-on areas where they can see if they enjoy their possible career direction (S2).

Excerpt 2: I think [CSL] is beneficial because I have been able to understand the needs of the community and those around me. It has increased my Spanish translation and Spanish competencies skills to where I am confident that I can translate many types of documents (S4).

Excerpt 3: [CSL] is very beneficial. You learn project management skills like time management. You learn how to work with a client. Doing translation outside of class gave me good practice. Also, it was different when I knew they would be used, and not just for a class setting (S6).

The foregoing responses reflect students' belief that CSL promotes the many subcompetences in Dorothy Kelly's model, suggesting that CSL offers invaluable support in translator and interpreter training programs.

When asked about how using CSL helped their marketability, all of the students also strongly agreed or agreed that their CSL experience helped them gain a clearer idea of their professional goals as well as helping them to become more marketable for their chosen field of translation and interpretation.

Excerpt 4: Gaining experience with different types of texts is valuable before deciding on jobs, as is acquiring professional and linguistic skills (S5).

Excerpt 5: Going out in the world definitely made me see that there are lots of transnational opportunities. More than anything, this experience opened that window (S1).

Excerpt 6: Becoming familiar with different texts and subject matters is crucial to understanding what type of translation you would want to do as a job later on, and provides you with the opportunity to increase linguistic and professional capabilities (S3).

B. How do students connect classroom content to the service-learning experience?

Four of the survey items specifically addressed how students were able to relate their CLS to what they were learning in the course (see fig. 2).

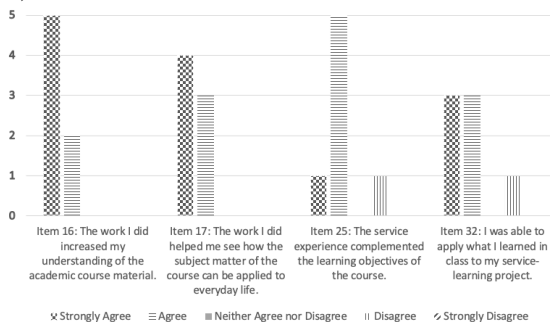


Fig. 2. Survey items on connecting course content and CSL

All students strongly agreed or agreed that CSL “increased my understanding of the academic course material” and that it helped them “see how the subject matter of the course can be applied to everyday life.” Furthermore, all of the students except one strongly agreed or agreed that CSL “complemented the learning outcomes of the course” and helped the students to apply what they learned in class to their CSL project. The student who disagreed was the same student for each of the items in the survey. Representative student comments are included below that demonstrate how students were able to make these connections.

Excerpt 7: It gives students the opportunity to apply things they are learning in class and gain experience in addition to filling a need in the community (S7).

Excerpt 8: Problems discussed in class such as text types, quality of text, team involvement, professional and linguistic competencies, target audience, skopos, etc. were all extremely relevant as I worked on my documents. Being able to determine what the source text means, and how it should be represented according to the target reader and purpose, while editing and collaborating with teammates to reach a deadline were all principles from class put into action (S3).

Excerpt 9: Yes! It was all very relevant. I have learned a lot in my translation classes and can apply it now when I do real translation work (S6).

Excerpt 10: I've been learning tons about resources and how to use those resources to translate. I've also learned how to improve my skills to be able to do that as well and so that has helped me to do a better job on this project (S4).

Excerpt 11: Everything in class has helped me be a better translator, which in turn helps me to translate for HCM better (S7).

The one dissenting voice noted that because she was taking a translation class, she did not consider her CSL experience as an interpreter complemented the learning outcomes. She stated that she was not able to connect the content to the CSL because of that.

Excerpt 12: Not from this class. Yes, I was able to apply Spanish grammar, but my service project focused nearly entirely on interpretation, and in this class, we focus nearly entirely on translation. Yes, I understand that there can be a lot of crossover, but I did not see how I used translation knowledge from this specific course in my interpretation work at the clinic (S2).

C. How do community partners perceive students' work, and how does that work benefit their organizations?

In the student survey regarding working with the community partner, five of the seven students agreed that their CSL work “addressed the community partners’ missions and needs.” A sixth student neither agreed nor disagreed, while only one affirmatively disagreed. This last student noted that the community partner provided no orientation, suggesting that the perceived failure to meet the partner’s needs reflected a lack of communication. Regardless, all students agreed that their CSL experiences helped them recognize community needs and benefited the community. The following responses illustrate how students perceived the benefits for their community partner and the greater community:

Excerpt 13: HCM is a great organization with a wonderful mission (S1).

Excerpt 14: HCM is a wonderful organization and I think people should always be looking towards helping them (S7).

Excerpt 15: I loved being able to gain experience working for people who really are in need, both of translations and help in general. I felt like it was a cause I could support

fully and felt fulfilled being able to contribute to it in any way, especially with translation skills (S3).

The community partners were surveyed as well (see Appendix B). The community partners responded affirmatively to all of the statements except for two of the questions. One of the partners found students not to always be punctual to meetings and appointments. A different community partner stated they did not feel that students took the time to understand the needs of their organization. This reflects on some of the struggles in developing lines of communication between community partners and students. As to the community partners' perceptions about the value of students' work, all three agreed that "the benefits my agency received from this project made it worth my time commitment." In addition, all expressed keen interest in having more students participate in the future. One partner, a medical-services clinic, made the following comment:

Excerpt 16: We love our XX students. Over 50% of our patients are Spanish speaking and very few of our providers can speak Spanish. Your students make it possible for our patients to get the medical care they need and are able to communicate their needs through the interpreting program. Thank you for allowing them to come (S1).

D. What can be done to increase the benefits of CSL?

While all participants considered CSL valuable, they did have several suggestions for improvement (see fig. 3).

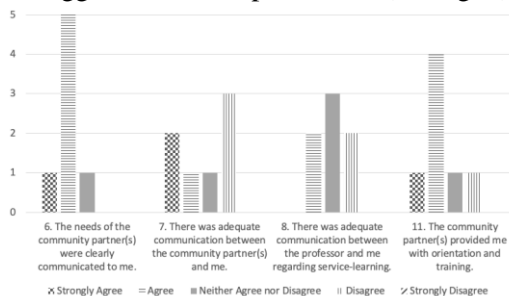


Fig. 3. Areas in need of improvement

In spite of the fact that the students felt that the needs of the community partners were communicated clearly to them, the principal suggestion—one made by both students and community partners—was to find ways to improve communication. On the student survey, more than half of the students felt that there was not adequate communication between the community partner and themselves. They also felt that there needed to be more communication between the instructor of the course and the students regarding the service-learning assignment.

Excerpt 17: Though communication was sometimes a struggle, I feel I have learned a lot about legal documents, how to format documents, and how to understand more than just formal Spanish (S7).

Excerpt 18: They were awesome though at the beginning we had trouble communicating with the organization we were working with so we couldn't communicate well with each other (S4).

Excerpt 19: The only thing that has been somewhat difficult is setting up a solid way to communicate between me, HCM, and the other students who are helping out in order to make sure no document gets overlooked (S1).

In addition, the director of the medical-services clinic noted in an interview that new students sometimes have inflated opinions about their own linguistic knowledge. She pointed out, however, that her main concern was ensuring that students understand the strict confidentiality requirements imposed by HIPAA—the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act.

One of the students made an especially gratifying observation about her experience. She noted the following:

Excerpt 20: I had to do further research on skills taught in class, mainly with CAT tools, to be able to complete the project. Had I not done this project, I would not have been compelled to learn how to use CAT tools confidently and on my own (S5).

This observation is gratifying because students frequently complain about having to learn CAT tools. This particular student's CSL experience allowed her to effectively use CAT tools in a real-world environment. Her CSL experience would have been more effective, however, if she had had better command of the CAT tools from the beginning.

DISCUSSION

Several important findings emerged from this study. First, students found that the translation work they performed during their CSL experience increased their translation and interpretation abilities while simultaneously helping them develop as emergent professionals. This reflects the work done by Govekar and Richi, who found that their learners were able to apply their classroom learning to real life tasks. Second, CSL increased students' motivation to learn. Specifically, students quickly realized that their work was not simply destined for classroom consumption—never to see the light of day—but rather would benefit them and others long after the CSL experience ended. Third, because students applied their skills to real projects for an authentic audience, they made a special effort to successfully complete their work, making sure that they did not miss even a single word of their translations. They understood that errors created real-world consequences for individuals and organizations, consequences that went far beyond a school grade.

Helping students move beyond the classroom is a key benefit of CSL, as also shown in the research of Hellebrandt and Wurr. CSL allowed the students in this study to explore translation and interpretation careers, determine what areas they liked most, and identify where their skills needed to improve. In other words, students understood that the classroom was simply a starting place, an introduction that taught them how to find the additional information they needed to complete their tasks. For example, several students described their experience with computer-assisted translation tools. After they learned about such tools in the classroom, their CSL assignments required genuine mastery of those tools. As a result, these students made significant efforts outside of class to understand the tools. Such growth was a direct consequence of CSL.

The need for effective communication—among students, instructors, and community partners—stands out as an area of primary concern for CLS participants in this study. In written comments and interviews, students and community partners described communication difficulties. To be responsible professionals, students need to know how to work and communicate with a vendor. These students' struggles will likely benefit them tremendously as they work with clients in the future, for they now understand that they must maintain constant and open communication to be successful. Part of that communication should address clients' needs. One community partner, for example, noted that some students did not understand the partner's needs. Those needs are not always obvious. As a result, students and partners should meet together throughout the CSL process to ensure they understand each other's needs.

Our results indicate an additional area of concern: course objectives. When developing service-learning courses, instructors need to ensure that course objectives clearly relate to the CSL experience. More than half of the students in this study stated that the syllabus did not clearly connect course objectives with CSL. Students also felt that their community partners did not effectively communicate how their project related to course objectives. In an interview, one course instructor stated that the study's results have motivated him to make changes in the future. Currently, he places students with a community partner and simply lets them go to work. In the future, he plans to help students and partners understand how course objectives relate to CSL.

FUTURE RESEARCH AND LIMITATIONS

The results of this research raise many questions and offer many areas of research that deserve further attention. Communication between partners and students was one of the areas that students felt was lacking. Future research needs to consider how to facilitate communication between students and community partners during CSL so that both sides better understand each other's needs. In addition, studies need to consider how best to implement CSL into the objectives of Spanish-for-specific-purposes courses regardless of the area and focus of the course. Also, since this study used surveys, interviews, and self-report data to determine how students and

community partners felt that they benefitted from the experience, future studies need to include direct types of assessments, including pre- and post-tests of translation knowledge, the use of a control group not involved in CSL to contrast their performance to those who are involved with CSL, and possibly language proficiency measures to determine if involvement with CSL increases students' overall proficiency.

While this study focused on a small sample (seven students) of mainly second language (L2) learners, future studies can consider not only a larger population of L2 learners but also how this type of experience could be modified for native Spanish speakers or for heritage language (HL) learners of Spanish. Previous research (Thompson; Petrov) has found differences between HL and L2 learners involved in CSL. The current study only had one participant who was not an L2 learner, making such a comparison difficult. Further studies can compare populations with greater diversity to determine how best to meet the needs of individual learners.

CONCLUSION

This study sought to evaluate how students perceived that CSL allowed them to apply classroom content to improve their translation skills and their understanding of how professionals behave. The study also attempted to investigate how community partners benefit from working with Spanish-for-specific-purposes courses. We found that both students and community partners felt that they benefitted from the experience; furthermore, students readily concluded that CSL helped them apply the skills learned in class to real projects. Finally, we found that both sides experienced communication issues, struggling somewhat to understand each other's needs.

While this case study is small, it suggests how CSL can make a positive contribution to translation classes, particularly with respect to professional development. Indeed, our results support the arguments promoting CSL in the LSP classroom. Lafford, Abbott, and Lear, for example, state that one of CSL's foundational goals is to "focus LSP on a new specific purpose (foundational training in professionalism) (i.e., those linguistic abilities, behaviors, skills, and manners that are vital to all professions in the target culture)" (171). The initial findings of our

study provide evidence that CSL helps students meet this goal, giving students the opportunity to further their academic objectives and become professional translators and interpreters.

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APPENDIX A

Survey of Students' Service-Learning experience

Name: _____

Brigham Young University
Department of Spanish and Portuguese

We would like to know your opinion about the service-learning component of this course. Please evaluate your experience and the responses you provide will be used to improve the project in the future. Your participation in this survey will take approximately 10 minutes and regardless of your answers will have no effect on your grade. Thank you for your participation.

First, we would like to ask you some general questions about your service-learning experience. Using the following scale (ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree”), please indicate your level of agreement with the statements below by writing the appropriate number. If a statement is not relevant, please write 6 (“Not Applicable”).

- 1 – Strongly Agree
- 2 – Agree
- 3 – Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 – Disagree
- 5 – Strongly Disagree
- 6 – Not Applicable

At the beginning of the semester:

- ____ 1. I knew what service learning was.
- ____ 2. The course objectives and how they related to the service-learning experience were clearly stated in the syllabus.
- ____ 3. The course objectives and how they related to the service-learning experience were clearly communicated by the professor.
- ____ 4. The course objectives and how they related to the service-learning experience were clearly communicated by the community partner(s).
- ____ 5. I was eager to begin my service-learning project.

Throughout the semester:

___6. The needs of the community partner(s) were clearly communicated to me.

___7. There was adequate communication between the community partner(s) and me.

___8. There was adequate communication between the professor and me regarding service learning.

___9. I felt I could contact the community partner(s) if I had concerns.

___10. I felt I could contact the professor if I had concerns.

___11. The community partner(s) provided me with orientation and training.

___12. The community partner(s) provided me with challenging and meaningful activities. ___13. I took the time to understand the community partners' needs.

___14. In my work, I addressed the community partners' missions and goals.

___15. I took this project seriously.

___16. The work I did increased my understanding of the academic course material.

___17. The work I did helped me see how the subject matter of the course can be applied to everyday life.

___18. The service aspect of this course showed me how I can become more involved in my community.

___19. The service aspect of this course helped me become more aware of the needs of my community.

___20. The community service involved in this course benefited the community.

___21. During my service I interacted with people from different social, economic, or ethnic backgrounds.

Reflecting on the course and the entire service-learning experience:

___22. This course helped me gain a clearer idea of my educational goals (for example, my major or minor).

___23. This course helped me gain a clearer idea of my professional goals (for example, my career).

____ 24. The service I performed and the skills I developed helped make me more marketable in my chosen profession.

____ 25. The service experience complemented the learning objectives of the course.

____ 26. The time needed to satisfy the service-learning component of this course was worthwhile.

____ 27. The service-learning experience had a direct impact on my personal growth.

____ 28. The service-learning experience had a direct impact on my translation skills.

Essay questions:

In addition to writing in a number, please answer the following questions completely and sincerely as your answers are valuable resources for future classes. You can write as much as you want as the box will expand to the length of the text and you can answer in English or Spanish.

____ 29. I feel that service-learning is beneficial for translation and interpretation students. (Please explain your answer below and why you feel that way.)

____ 30. I would recommend working with the community partner(s) with whom I worked. (Please explain your answer below and name the community partner.)

____ 31. I would take another translation/interpretation course with a service-learning project. Why/why not?

____ 32. I was able to apply what I learned in class to my service-learning project. (Please explain below)

APPENDIX B

Service-Learning Agency Evaluation Form

(Adapted from work by Melody Bowdon, University of Central Florida)

Service-Learning Agency Evaluation Form

(To be completed by Agency Contact Person)

Name of Service-Learning Student: _____

Agency Name: _____

Contact Person: _____

E-mail: _____ Phone: _____

Please indicate your level of agreement with the below statements.

1 = Agree

2 = Somewhat Agree

3 = Neutral

4 = Somewhat Disagree

5 = Disagree

1. My experience with service learning this semester was worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I developed or confirmed a positive impression of BYU's Department of Spanish and Portuguese students through this project.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I enjoyed working with the students on this project.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The benefits my agency received from this project made it worth my time commitment.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I would participate in a service-learning project with BYU's students again.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The students who worked with my agency conducted themselves in a professional manner.	1	2	3	4	5

7. The students who worked with my agency were punctual for meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The students who worked with my agency maintained sufficient contact with my agency.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The students who worked with my agency seemed to take this project seriously.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The students who worked with my agency respected the opinions of agency staff and incorporated agency staff suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The students who worked with my agency took time to understand my agency's needs and to address them in their work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The students who worked with my agency were committed to excellence in their work.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I expect that the information delivered, the documents prepared, or the services provided by the students will be useful to the clients of my agency or will be used by my agency.	1	2	3	4	5

Additional Comments:

Suggestions for Projects for Future Courses:

Signature: _____ Date: _____

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN COURT INTERPRETING EDUCATION: A PILOT INTERNSHIP IN NEW YORK CITY COURTS

Aída Martínez-Gómez

John Jay College of Criminal Justice (CUNY)

Resumen: Este artículo explora la cuestión del aprendizaje basado en la experiencia a través de observación en el contexto de programas de formación de intérpretes (jurídicos) en los Estados Unidos. Se examina un programa piloto de pasantías en interpretación judicial desarrollado por el New York State Unified Court System y seis universidades en Nueva York y sus alrededores. Se describen las condiciones que favorecieron su puesta en marcha y se presenta el currículo en el contexto del aprendizaje basado en la experiencia. Además, se analizan los resultados de un proceso de evaluación que incorpora las perspectivas de alumnos y mentores para determinar si el proyecto consigue alcanzar los objetivos iniciales. A partir de estos resultados, se ofrecen sugerencias para mejorar y ampliar este programa piloto.

Palabras clave: formación de intérpretes, interpretación judicial, aprendizaje basado en la experiencia, pasantía, observación

Abstract: This article explores observation-based experiential learning in the context of (legal) interpreter education in the United States. It examines a pilot court interpreting internship program developed jointly by the New York State Unified Court System and six colleges and universities in New York City and surrounding areas. It describes the background conditions leading to its implementation and discusses its curriculum in the context of experiential approaches to learning. More importantly, it analyzes the results of an evaluation process that incorporates the perspectives of interns and mentors in order to determine the project's ability to meet its planned goals. On the basis of the results of this analysis, a series of suggestions are presented to enhance and expand this pilot program.

Keywords: interpreting education, court interpreting, experiential learning, internship, observation

INTRODUCTION

It has often been argued that graduates from interpreting education programs struggle in the transition from interpreting student to practicing interpreter, mainly due to the lack of practical experience in the field (Johnston 263). As a response, and in order to bridge this gap, interpreter education programs are implementing experiential learning initiatives, which build on the opportunities provided by real experience to have students reflect on their knowledge and skills and apply the conclusions and implications drawn from these reflections to new practical experiences. As students engage in this cyclical process, “they gain further understanding, broader appreciation of the discipline and an enhanced sense of personal value and civic responsibility” (Lesch 213), while benefiting the community that they serve during these learning experiences (Lesch; Shaw and Roberson).

This article examines a pilot court interpreting internship program developed jointly by the New York State Unified Court System and six colleges and universities in New York City and surrounding areas and implemented in the spring of 2017. It describes the background conditions leading to the implementation of the program and discusses its curriculum in the context of experiential approaches to learning. More importantly, it analyzes the results of an evaluation process that incorporates the perspectives of interns and mentors (staff court interpreters) in order to determine the appropriateness of the project and its ability to meet its planned goals. On the basis of the results of this analysis, a series of suggestions are presented to enhance and expand this pilot program.

EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN INTERPRETING EDUCATION

Despite the long history of the notion that experience is a central component of learning processes, the modern experiential learning paradigm can be said to have emerged in the 1970s in the work of David Kolb, with strong intellectual foundations in the theories of earlier psychologists, educators and sociologists such as John Dewey, Kurt Lewin or Jean Piaget, among others. At the core of this constructivist model of human learning sits Kolb’s definition of learning as “the process whereby knowledge is

created through the transformation of experience” (49). At its foundation appear six principles of learning shared by Kolb and his predecessors, which challenge the widespread educational model of learning through transmission of knowledge: (a) learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes; (b) all learning is relearning; (c) learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world; (d) learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world; (e) learning results from synergetic transactions between the person and the environment; and (f) learning is the process of creating knowledge (Kolb and Kolb 194). Experiential learning theory understands learning as a dynamic process based on a continuous four-step cycle: students go through a real *concrete experience*, which serves as a basis for *reflective observation*. These reflections are then internalized by students in the form of abstract concepts and generalizations (*abstract conceptualization*) that elicit implications for future action, which, in turn, inform and are tested in new situations (*active experimentation*). These become new concrete experiences that start the cycle all over again (Kolb 50-53).

The value of experiential learning theory has become obvious to education programs in a variety of applied disciplines, from healthcare to legal professions. In interpreter education programs, experiential learning approaches have been widely applied, although they have rarely been explicitly labeled as such (Herring and Swabey 36). They have often been closely interlinked to the core pedagogical principle of situated learning, which can be understood as “a context-dependent approach to translator and interpreter training under which learners are exposed to real-life and/or highly simulated work environments and tasks, both inside and outside the classroom” (González-Davies and Enríquez-Raído, “Situated Learning” 1). Yet again, explicit references to situated learning in Translation and Interpreting Studies are also recent and not too widespread.¹

¹ For a comprehensive overview of experiential learning in interpreting education, see Herring and Swabey. Regarding situated learning, see Sawyer (81-85) for a detailed description of its applicability to interpreter education, and González-Davies and Enríquez-Raído (*Situated learning*) for a collection of articles that explicitly report on specific practices.

Regardless of labeling, certain core elements of experiential and situated learning have implicitly permeated interpreting education for decades. Programs have traditionally relied on simulations and role-plays, based on authentic or manufactured materials, as essential activities to bring actual interpreted interaction to the classroom and to promote critical thinking and discussion regarding interpreting choices and behaviors (see Gile 150-151 for general interpreting pedagogy; and Edwards; de Jongh; and Mikkelsen for court/legal interpreting in particular). Classroom mock interpreting activities have an uncontroverted value as a vehicular tool for situated and experiential learning, particularly for beginners or in situations where real-world practice is not possible (Herring and Swabey 22-23). However, it cannot be overlooked that they introduce a degree of artificiality in the learning process, which is certainly not unique to interpreting education (Monikowski and Peterson). As González et al. highlight in regard to court interpreting education,

courses and programs [...] do not provide enough practical experience for successful court interpreting. An important aspect of educational programs in T&I is the opportunity to practice interpretation skills not only in these programs, but also in low-stakes settings or law school clinics. [...] Real-life interpreting experiences such as these provide students with an opportunity to apply ethical and professional interpreting standards and to learn about the sociocultural backgrounds of prospective clients (1147).

In order to overcome this, programs are increasingly incorporating field-based experiential learning activities that not only occur beyond the classroom, but also engage the immediate community in different ways. Internships and service learning opportunities, among other ways of community-engaged learning (see continuum in Lesch 216), “foster the development of critical thinking, decision making, and self-assessment that are essential to interpreting effectively and competently” (Winston 223), while at the same time “facilitat[e] cooperation between communities and the university, and provid[e] the means whereby both parties can actively discover knowledge, teach, and learn from each other” (Lesch 215).

Observation-based experiences, such as the one described in this article, in which trainees shadow interpreters in the course of their regular duties, are a type of experiential learning that has traditionally been overlooked. In the vast majority of programs, students abruptly move from the safety and artificiality of classroom simulations to the unpredictability of real interactions in external internships/practicums. Observation-based learning experiences may offer an appropriate gradual transition between these two stages. As Bentley-Sassaman indicates, observations of experienced interpreters at work allow students to familiarize themselves with the nature of interpreter-mediated interactions in specific fields, interpreters' behavior, any specific terminology, and the relevant codes of ethics or professional conduct, thus "giv[ing] students a taste of their future career" (65). These observation-based experiences, this author argues further, can serve as initial instances of the experiential learning cycle. In her own words,

[s]tudents need to see a variety of interpreting and signing models to construct how they might interpret a similar situation [...] The provision of observation allows students the opportunity to reflect on what they have seen, think about how they could interpret that situation, and then test their conclusions by interpreting something similar in a laboratory environment (Bentley-Sassaman 65).

Nevertheless, it may be argued that this last phase of active experimentation does not need to occur in laboratory conditions. In fact, it can become the transition into a more participatory type of learning opportunity (e.g., active internships entailing actual interpreting practice), which in turn generates new experiences for students to reflect on their own work, and thus closes and restarts the experiential learning cycle. In an attempt to gain a deeper understanding of observation-based experiential learning, the following pages analyze a pilot program of this type in the field of court interpreting, as developed between the New York State Unified Court System and six colleges and universities in New York City and surrounding areas.

INTERNSHIP IN NEW YORK CITY COURTS

Background and Program Development

New York City is unarguably one of the most culturally and linguistically diverse areas in the world. Over three million of its eight million residents are foreign-born and more than 200 different languages are spoken throughout the city. In fact, 49% of New Yorkers speak a language other than English at home. Although a preference to speak a language other than English at home does not necessarily imply lack of English proficiency, about two million New Yorkers (roughly 23% of the city's total population) believe that they speak English less than "very well".²

This cultural and linguistic diversity is certainly present in the day-to-day functioning of multiple institutions, including the justice system. Legislative and executive mandates have regulated the need to ensure meaningful and equal access to services, activities, and programs by individuals with Limited English Proficiency (LEP), although they vary in scope and in the settings and jurisdictions in which they are enforceable.³ In the state of New York, Part 217 of the Uniform Rules for the New York State Trial Courts (22 NYCRR) provides that

[i]n all civil and criminal cases, when a court determines that a party or witness, or an interested parent or guardian of a minor party in a Family Court proceeding, is unable to understand and communicate in English to the extent that he or she cannot meaningfully participate in the court proceedings, the clerk of the court or another designated administrative officer shall schedule an interpreter at no

² All statistics on this paragraph come from data available from the NYC Department of City Planning (www1.nyc.gov/site/planning/data-maps/nyc-population.page), particularly the 2010 Census, the 2015 American Community Survey, and the 2013 *The Newest New Yorkers* report.

³ For public services and government-related agencies in general, see, for instance, Presidential Executive Order 13166, New York State Executive Order 26, New York City Local Law 73, New York City Executive Order 120. For language access within the justice system in general, see the Court Interpreters Act (28 U.S.C. §1827).

expense from an approved list maintained by the Office of Court Administration (§217.1.a)⁴.

By virtue of this statute, the Office of Language Access, created by the Office of Court Administration of the New York State Unified Court System in 1994, oversees and manages court interpreting services throughout state's 12 judicial districts, among other tasks. In 2016 alone, it provided more than 500,000 hours of interpretation in 115 different languages through its staff of over 300 court-employed interpreters and its network of approximately 700 independent contractors (NYS UCS, *Ensuring Language Access* 25, 33).

In order to continue enhancing these services, the NYS Unified Court System developed a strategic plan for language access in 2017, following the significant progress achieved through the two previous ones (2006 and 2011). The 2017 strategic plan for language access defines specific initiatives in nine different areas, including improving the recruitment, assessment, and training of court interpreters. As an item under the recruitment strategies, this plan envisages an internship program for college students (NYS UCS, *Ensuring Language Access* 10-11).

Prior to the implementation of the 2017 strategic plan, certain interpreting programs (e.g., at John Jay College) were already offering students the opportunity to observe interpreter-mediated court proceedings as part of their (legal) interpreting coursework. These experiences were facilitated by the Office of Language Access of the NYS Unified Court System in an ad hoc and on-demand basis. Creating the internship program proposed in the strategic plan would allow to formalize these arrangements. The first stage in this process would be offering the pilot internship program described and evaluated in this article (NYS UCS, *Ensuring Language Access* 11).

Goals and Curriculum

The Office of Court Administration (specifically through the Office of Language Access and the Division of Human

⁴ Judiciary Law section 390 (NY CLS Jud §390) codifies the appointment of sign language interpreters for the deaf or hard of hearing.

Resources) developed “the standards and protocols for the selection, training, assignment, supervision and evaluation of interns” (NYS UCS, *Ensuring Language Access* 11). This included designing the curriculum (including learning goals, core content, and activities), defining the basic structure of the program (duration and sequencing), and establishing assessment procedures and methods. Initial feedback regarding these elements was sought from the six colleges and universities in the New York City area that would participate in this pilot internship, but their involvement in the development of the program was limited.

This initial pilot internship consisted of 20 hours of court interpreting observation, distributed in five 4-hour sessions throughout five consecutive weeks. Given its duration and the academic requirements of the participating schools, this program was designed as a non-credit-bearing one. The program description provided by the NYS Unified Court System is as follows:

[t]he internship will provide an overview of interpreting services in the New York State Unified Court System, the administration and management of these services, and site visits to observe interpreted proceedings in various courts throughout the New York City courts, particularly courts that use court interpreters on a frequent basis such as the NYC Citywide courts (Civil/Housing, Family and Criminal courts). Interns will shadow staff interpreters during the workday as they provide language services to court users. Interns will be introduced to the screening and testing process for prospective court interpreters, the Court Rules and federal requirements for providing language services, ethical guidelines and remote interpreting (NYS UCS, *Interpreter Internship Application and Curriculum Outline* 1).

Interns were exposed to these contents gradually as they progressed through the internship. The first session served as an introduction to court interpreting within the NYS Unified Court System. It covered a general description of court structure and case types and a detailed overview of language access services, including policies and procedures, the organization of interpreting

services, basic information about screening and recruitment processes and a presentation of interpreters' ethics and responsibilities. Sessions two to four took students in rotations through criminal, civil, and family courts. Students shadowed staff court interpreters throughout their regular work days and familiarized themselves with a variety of court proceedings and the more practical aspects of the profession (including the plethora of specific interactions that require interpreting in the administration of justice, as well as the social expectations and institutional requirements that influence interpreting practice). Under the appropriate circumstances (low-stakes situation, consent of the parties involved, student level of comfort and skill, etc.), some students interpreted in out-of-court matters under the supervision of a mentor. Finally, the last session brought all students back together for a critical analysis and discussion of their court experiences. It also included an interpreting practice component, where students interpreted in a series of simulated scenarios similar to those observed during the previous weeks. They were evaluated by their mentors and encouraged to reflect upon their performance in a follow-up discussion.

The scaffolded sequence of activities throughout the five weeks of the program mirrors Kolb's experiential learning cycle. While the observations and the occasional low-stakes interpretations by the students themselves provided the concrete experiences, the last session not only provided the space to reflect upon them, but also to apply the generalizable knowledge inferred from that reflection to a new experience, in this case under simulated conditions.

Participating Schools and Interns

Six colleges and universities in the New York City area participated in this pilot 20-hour internship in the Spring 2017 semester. As table 1 shows, all of these schools offer one or several translation and/or interpretation programs that vary in terms of language combination, type of academic program, target student population, and number of credits. The most common type of program within this particular group of schools seems to be designed for undergraduate students with an English-Spanish language combination. Interestingly enough, only four institutions

include interpreting in their program offer and only two include legal interpreting specifically.

Table 1. Participating schools

School	Translation/interpreting programs ⁵	Number of interns
Baruch College	Minor in Spanish-English Translation: 9 credits	1
Hunter College	BA in Spanish (with a concentration in Translation and Interpretation): 36 credits BA in Russian (with a concentration in Translation): 24 credits	5
Hunter College (Continuing Education)	Three Certificate Programs in Translation and/or Interpretation: 168-216 hours ⁶	7

⁵ Based on information available on the relevant bulletins or catalogs (as of December 2017):

- Baruch College (www.baruch.cuny.edu/bulletin);
- Hunter College (catalog.hunter.cuny.edu);
- John Jay College of Criminal Justice (jjay.smartcatalogiq.com);
- Montclair State University (catalog.montclair.edu);
- Pace University (pace.smartcatalogiq.com).

For programs administered through continuing education offices or schools of professional studies, the information was available on the following websites:

- Hunter College (Continuing Education Programs): www.hunter.cuny.edu/ce/certificates/translation-interpretation
- New York University (School of Professional Studies): www.scps.nyu.edu/academics/departments/foreign-languages/academic-offerings/ms-in-translation.html, www.sps.nyu.edu/professional-pathways/diplomas/language-and-translation.html

⁶ Non-credit-bearing courses. Programs require completion of seven to nine courses. Each course entails approx. 24 hours of instruction.

John Jay College of Criminal Justice	BA in Spanish (with a concentration in Translation and Interpretation): 36 credits Three Certificate Programs in Spanish Legal Translation and/or Interpretation (undergraduate): 18 or 24 credits	8
New York University (School of Professional Studies)	MS in Translation (Chinese, French or Spanish): 36 credits Professional Diploma in Legal or Medical Interpreting (Chinese or Spanish) ⁷ Professional Diploma in Translation (Arabic, French, Spanish or language-neutral) ⁷	9
Montclair State University	BA in French (with a concentration in Translation): 39 credits BA in Spanish (with a concentration in Translation): 39 credits Certificate Program in Translation and Interpreting in Spanish (graduate): 12 credits Certificate Program in Spanish Translation (undergraduate): 12 credits	10
Pace University	Translation Studies minor (French, Italian, Russian or Spanish): 15 credits	1

In order to participate in the pilot program, prospective interns had to be “interested in court interpreting as a career, proficient in English and a second language, [and] enrolled in a court interpreting/translation program or language department major with coursework completed beyond the introductory level” (NYS UCS, *Interpreter Internship Application and Curriculum Outline* 1). As table 1 shows, the six participating schools sent a total of 41 students to this pilot internship. The information provided by those interns who filled out the evaluation questionnaire ($n = 28$)

⁷ Information on number of credits/hours not available. Program consists of 4 courses of undetermined length.

sheds light on the linguistic profile and previous interpreting education and experience of this cohort.

The vast majority of interns (82%) have Spanish in their language combinations, followed by French (7%), Mandarin (7%), Russian (7%) and Lingala (4%). In terms of language ability, interns self-assessed their language proficiency at an average of 9.7 over 10 for their first language (which is Spanish for 54% of interns, English for 32%, and Mandarin and Russian for 7% each) and at an average of 8.2 over 10 in their second language (English for 61%, Spanish for 29%, and French for 7%).⁸ Table 2 offers a summary of their language combinations:

Table 2. Interns' language combinations ($n = 28$)

Language combination	
Spanish (A) - English (B)	50%
English (A) - Spanish (B)	28.6%
Russian (A) - English (B)	7.1%
Mandarin (A) - English (B)	3.6%
Mandarin (A) - Unknown (B)	3.6%
Spanish (A) - French (B) - Lingala (C)	3.6%
English (A) – French (B)	3.6%

Almost all interns (89%) had already had education or training in translation and/or interpretation before starting the internship.⁹ In line with the programs offered at the participating schools, the most common form of education within this cohort are undergraduate courses or programs in both translation and interpretation that last for over a year. Nevertheless, as table 3 shows, other types of programs are also common, including on-

⁸ One student (4%) did not specify her/his second language.

⁹ One can speculate that the remaining 11% are either students of a language major (with no focus on T&I, as allowed by the program admission criteria) or students in a T&I program who have not yet started their T&I courses.

the-job training. It is interesting to note that 50% of interns indicated having participated in more than one type of program.

Table 3. Interns' T&I education/training ($n = 28$)

Type of program ¹⁰		Focus		Length ¹¹	
Undergraduate Courses/Program	53%	Translation	32%	Less than 1 semester	4%
Certification Courses/Program	36%	Interpretation	4%	1 or 2 semesters	29%
Intensive Courses	32%	Translation & interpretation	54%	Over 1 year	57%
On-the-job Training	32%				
No education/training	11%				

Thirty-two percent of interns reported having practiced interpreting in a professional-like manner, despite being still in the process of obtaining their degrees/certificates. From the descriptions provided, many of these experiences are in the legal and medical fields, whereas some also take place in education and social services settings. The most common employment arrangement is that of independent contractor, although some interns report offering their interpreting services as volunteers for different organizations. None, however, report having experience in court interpreting, even though four of them (14%) indicate that they took the court interpreter certification exam in 2015 or 2016.

¹⁰ The original questionnaire lacks an option for graduate courses/programs. Students from NYU's MS program did not have an answer that reflected their experience appropriately. This will be amended in future administrations of the questionnaire.

¹¹ No information available on number of credits/hours. This will be amended in future administrations of the questionnaire.

Besides these professional-like experiences, 82% of interns mention having non-negligible informal interpreting experience, mainly for their families and friends in a wide array of fields (including healthcare, law, business, finance, education, religion, etc.), but also in their current workplaces (with clients, at meetings, in conferences) and even for strangers.

EVALUATION OF INTERNSHIP EXPERIENCE

This pilot 20-hour internship was offered twice during the spring of 2017 (March 3-April 7 and March 31-May 5). As explained above, interns met at the Office of Language Access in weeks 1 and 5 and rotated through different courts during weeks 2 to 4. This particular cohort rotated through the NYC Civil, NYC Criminal and NYC Family courts in Manhattan, Kings County (Brooklyn) and Queens, as well as the Supreme Criminal Court in Queens. The following pages summarize the results of their experience with the aim of identifying potential areas of improvement for future offerings of this program.

Methods

The pilot nature of this 20-hour internship required a careful evaluation process to determine the appropriateness of the project and its ability to meet its planned goals. For these purposes, the Office of Language Access and the Division of Human Resources, with feedback from professors from the participating schools, developed an internal evaluation process that incorporated the perspectives of interns and their on-site mentors (staff court interpreters). The instruments used to compile this information included:

- a) Interns' evaluations
- b) Mentors' weekly evaluations on interns' participation
- c) Mentors' final evaluations on interns' interpreting skills

Interns' evaluations: Interns were asked to fill out an anonymous self-administered online survey after completing the internship. The survey was divided into two parts. Part one covered language profile, translation/interpreting education and interpreting

experience. Part two included a combination of open-ended and close-ended (Likert-scale) questions about their satisfaction with the program in terms of content, methods, relationship with mentors, and impact on their professional future.

Mentors' weekly evaluations on interns' participation: After each week's rotation in the different courts, mentors completed a self-administered online survey where they reported on both the interns' behavior and the proceedings observed by the interns in that particular rotation.

Mentors' final evaluations on interns' interpreting skills: During the last session of the internship, interns interpreted in simulations of actual court proceedings (video recordings) in the three modes of interpreting required in courts (sight translation and consecutive and simultaneous interpretation). Mentors evaluated their performance in these three interpreting exercises by filling out a paper form containing 5 Likert-scale items and an open space for additional comments for each of the exercises. The goal of this final evaluation, as proposed by the Office of Language Access, was to offer all students the opportunity to try their hand at the three modes of interpreting in a zero-stakes situation (only some had interpreted in low-stakes situations during rotations), to get acquainted with the format of the court interpreting certification exam, and to receive feedback for their future skill development in their education programs.

Interns' Evaluations

Interns reported high levels of satisfaction with the pilot internship, with average scores of over 4 in a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) (see table 4). Among the four areas explored in the survey, their relationship with mentors and the breadth of content were the most satisfying aspects of their internship. Median scores are above 4.7 and mode scores are consistently 5 in all items within these areas. In terms of instructional methods, interns found their observations of court interpreters at work very valuable, whereas they seemed to be slightly more dissatisfied, in comparison, with the range of opportunities they had to practice their own interpreting skills and the feedback received (median scores of 4.18 and 4.32, with

greater standard deviation than other items, and minimum values of 2 and 3, respectively). Finally, and potentially in connection with the limited practice, interns rated the influence of this internship in their development as future professional interpreters with a 4.25 (with a 0.8 standard deviation and minimum value of 2).

Table 4. Interns' evaluations ($n = 28$)

	Median	Mode	Std. dev.	Min. value	Max. value
Content					
This experience gave me a realistic preview of the court interpreter career field.	4.82	5	0.39	4	5
I was given adequate training or explanation of the court interpreter's role in the courts.	4.75	5	0.65	2	5
As a result of my internship, I have a better understanding of concepts, theories, and skills in my course of study.	4.71	5	0.46	4	5
Methods					
My observations of court interpreters working in various settings were useful in understanding the skills required in court interpreting.	4.75	5	0.52	3	5
The internship program offered ample opportunities for	4.18	4	0.86	2	5

improving my interpreting skills.					
I received feedback to improve my interpreting skills.	4.32	4	0.67	3	5
Relationship with mentors					
My mentors were available and accessible when I had questions or concerns.	4.96	5	0.19	4	5
Influence on professional future					
I feel that I am better prepared to enter the world of court interpreting after this experience.	4.25	5	0.80	2	5

These numerical data are corroborated by the interns’ qualitative responses to open-ended questions. To the question “Are you more likely to pursue a career in court interpreting after this internship experience? Why or why not?”, 21 interns (75%) answered positively and two (7%) answered “maybe”. They believe that court interpreting would be an “interesting” and “exciting” career that would allow them to enable access to justice for LEP communities. As one student states,

Excerpt 1: I would love to pursue a career as a court interpreter because as a person who learned a second language (English) I understand the frustration that comes with not being able to communicate your ideas or thoughts, I want to be a tool to help people who are like I once was, I want to return the favor to my city and my community, and I want to be part of a team that brings down language barriers.

Interestingly enough, one intern (4%) responded negatively to this question. Internships can be very valuable experiences, not only

to consolidate ideas about potential career paths, but also to refute them, as was the case of this particular student. In her/his own words: “No, but it's because I didn't really know what court interpreting entailed. So, the internship showed me what I would be doing and helped me make this decision.”

Their overall positive experience does not seem to be tainted by those less-satisfactory aspects that interns reflect upon in the spaces provided in the survey for recommendations and additional comments. In line with the quantitative results in table 4, the most common suggestion for improvement of the program (made by 36% of interns) is increasing interns' opportunities to practice their interpreting skills. Although they are aware of the constraints that the institutional setting can impose on the practice of uncertified interpreters (“I would have liked to practice interpreting in certain non-official situations under the supervision of a mentor, although I understand there are many limitations placed on interns, especially in a legal setting”), some interns suggest creative alternatives that would cause minimal impact on the functioning of the courts (“I think it will be very helpful if the intern could attend to a long trial and while the court interpreter is interpreting the intern could also interpret in a way that only his mentor could hear”). In the second type of comments, 36% of interns suggested different ways to increase their opportunities to observe different proceedings, from extending the length of the program to accommodating its schedule to the busiest days in the courtrooms. As some students noted, some courtrooms experience lower caseloads on Fridays.¹² Whereas some students wished for more observation opportunities, others favored the idea of providing a more in-depth experience, even if it would be at the expense of the variety of proceedings that they would get exposed to: “It could be better for interns to focus on one particular court and learn from one or two designated experienced interpreters.”

Finally, individual students had a variety of other recommendations, such as offering a certificate of completion or organizing an informal intern gathering to expand their peer network. One observation, however, touched upon the core

¹² The original selection of Fridays took into account course schedules in the participating schools. Since fewer classes tend to be scheduled on Fridays, it was considered that scheduling conflicts would be minimal, and more students would be able to participate in a Friday internship.

content of the internship, its tailoring to diverse student profiles and its relationship with the participating schools, and thus requires careful consideration for future offerings of this program:

Excerpt 2: I felt that some of our mentors were not informed that we, the interns, had taken basic courses on interpreting. Some of their insights, thoughts and tips were things that we had learned in the classroom; hence at moments it was repetitive. Content such as, the cannons of interpreting, difference between interpreting and translation and such.

Mentors' Evaluations

Interns were mentored throughout the program by staff court interpreters of the NYS Unified Court System, either in the different civil, criminal, and family courts that students visited, or at the Office of Language Access. The mentors involved varied depending on the week. During the three weeks of rotations through the different courts (weeks 2 to 4), interns were assigned to one or more mentors at each court. Twelve to fifteen staff interpreters participated as mentors during these three weeks of court rotations. In week five, a total of seventeen staff interpreters (who may or may not have mentored students in the previous three weeks) gathered at the Office of Language Access to participate in the final session. In it, each intern was paired with one mentor for the evaluation of their skills in three interpreting simulations.

Student participation and behavior during internship

According to the mentors, students' behavior was exemplary in the three areas evaluated: engagement, punctuality, and professional appearance (see table 5).

Table 5. Mentors' evaluation of intern behavior ($n = 103$)

	Yes	No	No answer
Intern was engaged in the internship program	97%	1%	2%

Intern was on time	95%	5%	0%
Intern was dressed in business casual attire	96%	2%	2%

The observations provided in the comments section of their surveys complement these data by painting a more detailed picture of the interns' participation in the program. These mentors particularly highlighted the fact that many interns were "attentive" and "inquisitive". They observed proceedings with careful attention to detail, asked pertinent questions not only about their immediate observations but also about the broader implications of a career as a professional court interpreter (salary, union issues, impact of the work in one's personal life, etc.), and took notes of courtroom dynamics, interpreter behavior, and legal terminology. Mentors also commented on their eagerness to learn, their enthusiasm and motivation, and their interest in the issues observed and in pursuing interpreting as a career. Other personality traits and behaviors were mentioned as well, such as being "observant", "friendly", "prepared", or open to suggestions for further study. In the words of one of the mentors,

Excerpt 3: [Intern] was very observant, very receptive regarding recommendations for study aids. It was a joy to have [Intern] around. Has a very good sense of observation and asks intelligent questions. Follows the courtroom proceedings with rapt attention. A little bit shy but has the potential to become a very good interpreter.

Only three mentors expressed concerns about two types of issues: lack of professionalism in failing to inform one's mentor of an absence ("Intern did not show up and did not call") and difficulties maintaining the neutrality and impartiality required by the court interpreters' code of ethics ("Should limit herself only to observe"). When faced with the latter, however, one of the mentors turned the situation into a teaching moment:

Excerpt 4: She left the Petition Room Window, when other interns were still observing, and came back to the office because she was upset at the way the litigant was handled. She did not remain neutral and simply observe.

This opportunity was used to learn about the important issues of interpreter neutrality and impartiality.

Students' interpreting skills

The mentors' evaluations of interns' performance during the simulated interpreting scenarios provide valuable information not only to students, who can work on the identified weaknesses on their own, but also to the participating schools, who can use this information to fine-tune their curricula and pedagogical approaches and methods. Even though this type of assessment may seem less appropriate for the small group of students who did not have previous interpreting training, it was considered valuable in terms of exposing these students to the three modes of interpreting and providing an initial experience that had individual guidance and mentorship to address students' potential frustration and discouragement at the difficulty of the task. Furthermore, limiting this final activity to students with prior interpreting training could make other students feel excluded and thus harm the sense of cohort belonging.

This evaluation activity, including its structure, content, and assessment methods, was designed by the internship mentors and program coordinators at the Office of Language Access, based on both the internship program and the court interpreter certification exam. As explained above, it assessed students' skills in sight translation, consecutive interpreting, and simultaneous interpreting. The evaluation forms asked the mentors to rate students' performance in several categories on a scale from 1 (unacceptable) to 5 (excellent) and to provide further comments for each of the three interpreting modes.

Overall, students did fairly well in all simulations, with average scores between 3.5 and 4.3. In terms of interpreting mode, they seem to need more support in simultaneous interpreting, whereas, in terms of category, accuracy appears to be their weakest suit.

Table 6. Mentors' assessment of interns' interpreting skills ($n = 38$)

Sight translation¹³				
	Accuracy	Fluency/ Speed	Clarity/ Pronunciation	
Median	3.69	3.60	3.97	
Mode	4	4	4	
Standard deviation	0.93	0.77	0.82	
Minimum value	2	2	2	
Maximum value	5	5	5	
Consecutive interpreting				
	Accuracy	Fluency/ Speed	Clarity/ Pronunciation	Interpreting Techniques
Median	3.50	3.68	4.27	3.57
Mode	4	4	5	4
Standard deviation	0.69	0.87	0.93	0.69
Minimum value	2	2	1	2
Maximum value	5	5	5	5
Simultaneous interpreting				
	Accuracy	Fluency/ Speed	Clarity/ Pronunciation	Interpreting Techniques
Median	3.50	3.61	4.21	3.61
Mode	3	3	4	4
Standard deviation	0.60	0.72	0.91	0.68
Minimum value	2	2	1	2

¹³ The author was unable to obtain information on the selection and description of assessment criteria used in this activity.

Maximum value	5	5	5	5
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The most accurate renditions of message were achieved in sight translation, potentially thanks to the immediate availability of the whole original text throughout the interpretation, which facilitates message processing and minimizes the risk of omissions and misinterpretations. This, however, is a double-edged sword, as it seems to affect the delivery (fluency and pronunciation) of students' renderings negatively, compared with the other two interpreting modes. In their comments, mentors highlighted that the major stumbling block that students encounter in sight translation is their tendency to focus on words rather than concepts or ideas. When this is coupled with unfamiliar legal terminology, the chances of resorting to incorrect syntactic or lexical calques increase notably, and so does the likelihood of offering nonsensical translations.

In consecutive interpreting, whereas students' accuracy levels seemed to decrease, their fluency and their clarity/pronunciation improved overall (despite some extreme negative values on clarity), compared to sight translation. Mentors' comments for this interpreting mode are generally positive ("Understands the concept well, controls the listening skills timely without hesitation, interprets the knowledge, not much foreign accent in either tongue") and their perception seems to be in line with those of interns themselves ("Consecutive seems to be the translating mode students feel most comfortable with and [Intern] expressed it to all of us"). Nevertheless, concerns arise regarding interpreting techniques (average 3.57). In their comments, mentors highlighted how students rendered shorter segments appropriately, but emphasized the need for students to enhance their note-taking skills in order to be prepared to interpret longer utterances successfully.

Finally, students' performance in simultaneous interpreting was weaker than in sight translation (except in terms of clarity) and slightly weaker than in consecutive interpreting (note lower averages and modes). Interestingly enough, however, their interpreting techniques in the simultaneous mode were rated slightly higher than in consecutive, despite the difficulty of dividing attention between listening and speaking. The mentors' main concern relates to the students' noticeable number of

omissions of relevant information in the original recording, as illustrated by the following quote:

Excerpt 5: [Intern] does understand the technique required for simultaneous interpreting. However, he left out several parts of the speaker's utterances although he caught up more easily with the speaker toward the end. Needs to work on his delivery (in terms of naturalness). Also needs to improve his vocabulary.

In their comments section, some mentors included specific recommendations for interns to continue developing their interpreting skills. The vast majority encouraged students to continue practicing all interpreting modes, including note-taking for consecutive interpreting. Many also insisted on the importance of expanding their vocabulary range, particularly regarding legal terminology, and the usefulness of building one's own glossaries for these purposes. Finally, some mentors recommended increasing their exposure to the legal field, both by reading legal texts and by observing court proceedings.

CONCLUSIONS: LOOKING AHEAD

Internship opportunities such as the one evaluated in these pages allow for the integration of experiential learning components in academic programs. The observational nature of this pilot internship in particular facilitates the transition between artificial classroom simulations and pre-professional practical experience in more involved internships. Nevertheless, its implications go far beyond the classroom: these experiences not only inform graduates' performance and behavior in their first jobs (Bentley-Sassaman 64) and facilitate their transition into professional interpreting circles (Monikowski and Peterson 20), but also allow them, through active reflection on their participation in the community, to construct schema for themselves, for their place in the community, and for the community as a whole (Monikowski and Peterson 10).

It is with these goals in mind that the Office of Court Administration of the NYS Unified Court System, with the support of the participating schools, has worked to enhance its court interpreting internship opportunities since the very

implementation of the 20-hour program analyzed in this article. In fact, the interns' main suggestions for improvement, which focused on increasing their exposure to court proceedings and their opportunities to provide interpreting services to court users, had been addressed even before they voiced them, through the development of an 11-week-long internship program. This new program, which piloted in the fall of 2017, offers a minimum of 72 hours of court placements, plus 16 more hours of general overview and assessment sessions at the Office of Language Access. Although interns continue to rotate through different courts, so that they still gain a global understanding of the court system as a whole, they spend at least three full days in each court during three consecutive weeks. During these three full days, interns are able to become familiar not only with the general functioning of each specific court but also with nuanced details of different proceedings and the interpreters' participation in them. Furthermore, once this foundational knowledge has been acquired, interns are given different opportunities to interpret (ideally in situations that they have observed previously) under the supervision of their mentors. With the addition of this 11-week program to the NYS UCS court interpreting internship offerings, a scaffolded structure is created, in which the 20-hour internship becomes an introductory opportunity. It allows students to decide whether court interpreting would be a fitting a career option and, if so, it serves as a foundation for more comprehensive internship experiences:

The capstone of an interpreter education program is the practicum. Students have the opportunity to apply the foundational knowledge they obtained during their training and interpreting situations under a mentor's supervision. If students were required to complete observation hours or field experience prior to their practicum, they may have become accustomed to seeing a certified interpreter at work and should be aware of proper interpreting etiquette (Bentley-Sassaman 65).

Several aspects that emerged in this program evaluation, however, point to the need to strengthen the collaboration between the Office of Court Administration and the participating schools. On the one hand, the program would benefit from making curricular

modifications to accommodate students with and without prior interpreting education. As shown previously, students who have already taken interpreting courses require less background information (e.g., basic principles of interpreting, modes and techniques, ethical canons, etc.). With proper coordination with participant schools, interns could be grouped according to their previous interpreting knowledge, particularly in the introductory sessions at the Office of Language Access, so that more advanced students may use the time more effectively (for instance, discussing topics that they are not familiar with, engaging in practice simulations, increasing their court observation hours, etc.). On the other hand, the program would also benefit from participating schools adopting a more active role in the internship experience. So far, their involvement in terms of integrating this internship in their curricula seems to have remained at the discretion of each school. Unfortunately, no data was available at the time of writing this article about the preparation received by the students in their respective programs before the internship, the academic support provided during it, or the impact of this experience on the subsequent stages of the students' learning journey (e.g., regarding integrating mentors' feedback on students' interpreting skills to interpreting courses).

A crucial role to be played by the participating schools would be to guide the students' in-depth critical analyses of this experiential learning experience. As seen previously, *reflective* observation is one of the core elements of the experiential learning cycle. Nevertheless, students are mostly left to their own means to engage in that reflection, as time with mentors is notably limited to include sufficient support for such analysis as well. Participating schools would be well-suited to take on this responsibility, as long as they have qualified interpreting instructors that could lead these discussions. Such component could take the form of a standalone series of seminar sessions or, whenever possible, it could be incorporated in existing interpreting courses. These hours would provide the physical and intellectual space for structured and critical reflection on students' practical experiences and their relationship and potential integration with different theoretical aspects (Lesch 233). Furthermore, and following the mentors' recommendations for more interpreting practice, these hours could also include critical reflection on the students' actual interpreting practice, since

translation/interpreting practice without effective feedback loops has shown to be much less effective in the development of translation/interpreting expertise (Jiménez-Crespo 235-236). Enhancing communication between the participating schools, potentially through an informal network that would also include mentors and program coordinators at the Office for Language Access, could facilitate the sharing of best practices in interpreting pedagogy and thus strengthen the positive implications and ramifications of these court interpreting internships.

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SEEMINGLY SIMPLE: NUMBERS AND THE LANGUAGE GAPS STUDENTS BRING TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

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Resumen: Los números son ubicuos en las organizaciones sin ánimo de lucro. Por eso, los estudiantes en los cursos de aprendizaje-servicio comunitario (ApSC) que prestan servicio en una asociación sin fines lucrativos necesitan usar los números correctamente —y en español. Para los aprendices de español como segunda lengua, esto puede ser muy difícil. Este artículo describe las experiencias de la autora con los estudiantes en un curso avanzado de español para fines específicos en que se estudia el emprendimiento social y los estudiantes prestan servicio en organizaciones sin fines de lucro. Hay que preparar a los estudiantes a usar los números y a entender el contexto sumamente complejo de los inmigrantes en los EE. UU. en que surgen esos números.

Palabras clave: español para fines específicos, aprendizaje-servicio comunitario, emprendimiento social, organizaciones sin ánimo de lucro, números

Abstract: In nonprofit settings, numbers are ubiquitous. Therefore, when Spanish community service-learning (CSL) students work in nonprofits, they, too, must manage and manipulate numbers accurately—in Spanish. This can be surprisingly difficult for second language learners of Spanish. This chapter details the author’s experiences with upper-level Spanish CSL students enrolled in a language for specific purposes (LSP) course about social entrepreneurship who volunteer in local nonprofits. In nonprofits serving Latino immigrants, the seemingly simple—numbers—is embedded within the complexities of the immigrant experience in the United States today. LSP instructors should explicitly address numeracy to prepare students for professional tasks that require accuracy and to better understand the issues behind the numbers.

Keywords: Spanish for specific purposes, community service-learning, social entrepreneurship, non-profit organizations, numbers

INTRODUCTION: WOULD YOU LIKE TO LEAVE A MESSAGE?

After 28 years of teaching, including 15 years of teaching Spanish community service learning (CSL) and languages for specific purposes (LSP), my approach to these courses involves a mixture of inspiration and preparation. Throughout the week, my mind works like a sieve, straining the information that I take in—headlines, podcasts, friends’ Facebook posts, conversations with community partners, talks on campus, journal articles—in order to find something solid that I can build my lessons upon. When I sit down to construct those lessons, I first identify what I want my students to know at the end of class that they did not know before. Then I gather and order the links and materials we will access, design activities to help them engage with the information and reign it all in to fit a 50-minute class period. Finally, ten minutes before my class starts, I stand up in my office and gather the things I will use as I teach: my laptop, my gradebook and a couple of pink telephone message pads. Yes, telephone message pads in postsecondary language education.

Spanish LSP and CSL courses reveal gaps in the overall Spanish curriculum that classroom-based pedagogies and traditional academic assignments conceal. Some of those gaps are in content knowledge. For example, many of my second language (L2) learners of Spanish come to the classroom with scant knowledge about immigration policies in the United States (U.S.) and the lived realities of the US Latino immigrants with whom they will interact during their CSL work. Although this is unfortunate and Spanish programs across the country could re-orient their curricula more toward U.S. Latinos, as faculty we expect to provide new content in every course we teach. Furthermore, we pride ourselves on building university students’ critical thinking skills on complex issues like immigration, public policy, nativism and language ideologies. In other words, filling those gaps in students’ content knowledge fits within our expected roles as faculty in Spanish programs.

Other gaps and their importance are unexpected. For example, LSP and CSL students often struggle to execute some seemingly simple tasks for our community partner organizations, such as answering phone calls, greeting clients, filling out intake forms, and, yes, taking messages on pink pads. In fact, my

community partners have only complained about a few things over the past fifteen years; they tell me that the L2 students often leave telephone messages with inaccurate numbers and names and that they struggle to file clients' documents correctly. Teaching about numbers and names to intermediate and advanced students of Spanish, then, is the unexpected--but important--work I do in my classes to bridge the gap between the skills students need to be successful in the language classroom and those they need to succeed in their CSL work.

What follows is my reflection on numbers and their importance in combined LSP and CSL courses. I have approached this as a reflective essay instead of a traditional academic essay or research project because reflection is one of the cornerstones of CSL. Much of the literature focuses on students' reflective practices, but it is also useful for CSL educators, especially as a first step toward noticing patterns and identifying underlying issues. While my reflective essay provides a few concrete examples of how to integrate the teaching of numbers into the classroom, my concern is more about sharing and explaining the community contexts in which LSP and CSL students encounter numbers, specifically while serving immigrant communities. After all, it is not difficult to find or create activities on numbers themselves. For example, *Éxito comercial* (Doyle and Fryer) and other business Spanish textbooks all feature exercises involving numbers. However, they present the numbers within a corporate context: finance, sales, taxes, gross domestic product, etc. In the nonprofit sector and in human service agencies, instead, numbers are used in very different contexts: taking messages, determining eligibility for programs, filling out applications, obtaining and using valid identification other than Social Security numbers, etc. The challenge is not just numbers nor just the specific contexts in which they are used; the difficulty lies in the combination of the two. Students must accurately understand and produce numbers during their time in the community. Educators must understand a community context that is very different from the higher education profession for which they have trained.

Therefore, after a description of the patterns I have observed over the years in L2 students' struggles with numbers, I will share a variety of scenarios in which numbers are embedded into the complexities of the content knowledge students need for their CSL work. I pull these specific examples from a senior-level

LSP course I designed and have taught each year since 2006: “Spanish and Entrepreneurship: Languages, Cultures and Communities.” In class, students learn the fundamentals of social entrepreneurship with an emphasis on creating programs that are both linguistically and culturally appropriate (Abbott “Social Entrepreneurship”). Outside the classroom, students work a total of 28 hours in one of several nonprofits that serve the local Latino community. Their CSL work facilitates two areas of learning: 1) students compare the theory of social entrepreneurship with the actual practices of the nonprofits where they volunteer, and 2) students expand their understanding of the cultural and linguistic nuances that nonprofit programming for specific Latino communities should take into consideration. The examples I include in this article show that both students and instructors of combined LSP and CSL courses must continuously look at both the forest (critical thinking on big-picture issues) and the trees (accuracy with details such as numbers).

I should also note that my heritage language students do not share this struggle with their L2 classmates. Overall, the heritage students understand, write and say numbers (telephone numbers, addresses, ages, dates, etc.) with ease. But for most of my L2 students, even those who have studied abroad, numbers present both an acute and stubborn challenge. Therefore, my goal in this reflective essay is to detail the complexities of numbers for our L2 learners and to support other LSP and CSL educators as they address numbers in context with their students.

THE NUMBERS CHALLENGE

All beginning Spanish textbooks include numbers in their earliest chapters. Even before that, most children in the US are exposed to the numbers one through ten in Spanish, through Spanish language exposure programs as early as preschool or through popular culture, such as “Dora the Explorer.” Once students know how to count in Spanish, our curricula rarely ask students to use numbers in more complex ways. In other words, we pay a lot of attention to students’ literacy in Spanish but not their numeracy (the ability to understand and work with numbers). Most likely, we assume that their numeracy in English transfers to Spanish. Furthermore, most Spanish curricula are built entirely upon the academic fields of literary studies, cultural studies and

linguistics, none of which call upon students to develop high levels of numeracy.

Nonetheless, it was still startling to me to see my students' reactions when I first began incorporating numeracy and telephone message taking in my combined LSP and CSL classes. "I will read the message twice," I tell students. "Do the best you can, and afterward you can ask me questions for clarification." They sit at their desks with pens poised, reminiscent of runners lined up in their starting blocks, waiting for the starting gun. "Buenos días," I say. "Llama Isabel Carrasco Trujillo." Their eyes open wide. Their pens are still in mid-air. I continue reading at a normal pace. "Quisiera hablar con la persona que me preparó mis impuestos. He recibido varias cartas del IRS, pero no las entiendo." Some students write frantically, trying to capture every word; others are still listening without moving their pens. Wrapping up, I read, "Por favor, llámenme al 778-8165" (Abbott *Comunidades* 95). At this point, many students have shock on their faces and nothing on the piece of paper in front of them. "Otra vez," I tell them. Some have a sharp look in their eyes; they enjoy the challenge. While I read through the message a second time, some students simply put down their pens; they give up.

I would not have guessed the difficulty most L2 learners have with this exercise in my class, yet now I know exactly what to expect each new semester. That is why I included two entire lessons about telephone numbers and messages in my textbook for combined LSP and CSL courses. That is also why I burn through several pink message pads every few months: by frequently practicing listening to numbers and taking down messages, students improve. Just this week, with only two weeks left in the semester, I asked students if taking down these messages was still hard. "Sí," they replied. "But is it easier than it was?" I asked. Yes, many of them nodded with their heads.

Answering phones, taking messages and filing documents are frequent, vital tasks in human service agencies, in clinical settings and in businesses. They are also tasks that university students seldom imagine themselves doing. I have asked students how they feel about these tasks. Boring, they say. Yet the fact of the matter is that they are challenged to carry out these tasks that demand great attention to detail and accuracy. I have come to understand this dynamic in this way: many students feel that

spending their time taking telephone messages is beneath them; in fact, taking telephone messages in Spanish is often beyond them.

Faculty tend to share this attitude. Taking messages is office work and office work belongs in vocational training, they believe. The role of higher education is to foster critical thinking skills through exposure to challenging texts, critical theory and abstract concepts. However, I cannot brush aside the problems that my students' inaccurate telephone messages cause my community partners. Neither can I ignore how many students visibly give up because the task of understanding numbers overwhelms them. Instead, I approach numbers with my LSP students not as vocabulary words to memorize and string together but rather as essential components of the rich, complex and intellectually challenging community contexts where my students do their CSL work.

NUMBERS IN CONTEXT

Asking Spanish LSP and CSL students to use numbers in real-world professional settings forces us to move beyond the notion of numbers as discrete vocabulary items that they memorize as novice language learners. Therefore, this section provides numerous examples of real-world situations within nonprofit organizations that serve US Latino populations. Specifically, these examples elucidate how numbers are embedded within the complex cultural contexts and work tasks that LSP students encounter during their CSL work.

Telephone Numbers and Addresses

First, and at the simplest level, students should memorize the telephone number and address of the organization where they work. It is good to have this information in their heads as they cross from the campus bubble to the wider community, sometimes for the first time and with some trepidation. At the community partner organization, students are often tasked with answering the phone. Because clients' calls cannot always be resolved over the telephone, knowing the address and providing it to the client over the phone helps students facilitate a follow-up visit. Furthermore, it is simply a professional expectation to know and easily provide the location and contact information of the place where you work.

Today's students rarely memorize telephone numbers and addresses. They simply tap an app. This illustrates how even a seemingly simple exercise with numbers, such as memorizing the address and phone number of the community partner, brings up interrelated and complex issues. Students have grown up with smartphones and rarely memorize phone numbers or addresses. They type on their phone and before they have even written all the letters, names autofill the space. With one touch, the contact information of the correct person appears. Just one more touch and the phone calls the number or brings up the address on a map. However, the use of smartphones and mobile internet still varies widely among Latinos in the US, especially according to their age, country of origin, income and education level (Brown et al.). The digital divide, then, becomes the abstract concept that connects "mere" telephone numbers and the higher-level, issues-based approach that feels most comfortable to faculty. Students can read about the digital divide (the Pew Research Center is a good source for this information) and consider where the clients they serve in the community fall: in the gap or somewhere in between. To conclude, we can help students tease out the implications of the digital divide for the work their CSL partner does with their clients, once again grounding the abstract topic of the digital divide within the very concrete workplace context of their community partner organization.

I would like to linger on the topic of telephones in order to illustrate how a focus on something as concrete as numbers can then lead us to discussions at higher levels of complexity and abstraction. In early 2018, the Pew Research Center revealed that 20% of Americans only access the internet through their smartphone and do not have traditional home internet service. Perhaps unsurprisingly, "[R]eliance on smartphones for online access is especially common among younger adults, non-whites and lower-income Americans" ("Internet/Broadband Fact Sheet"). This facet of the digital divide is a part of life for many immigrants who students encounter, and it has implications for the kinds of services that students help provide during their CSL work in nonprofit organizations. On the one hand, accessing the internet exclusively through a smartphone makes it difficult if not impossible to fill out many forms, including applications for programs and jobs, an activity that students commonly help clients do when they work in human service agencies. For CSL students

who work in schools, it is important for them to know that writing, including essays and other school-related assignments, is complicated for students whose only connected device is a smartphone with a tiny keyboard and writing apps that lack all the features of Word. When students are unaware of these issues, they can misinterpret problems they observe as solely the fault of an individual rather than part of more systemic problem of access to a connected desktop or laptop computer. Finally, we can help students understand why immigrants and people of color—and maybe some students, too—choose to invest their money into a smartphone instead of home-based internet access. Yes, it gives them a telephone number that allows them to communicate with others, but more than that, a smartphone can be a personal safety device of sorts. In the past few years, we have seen how people of color use their phones to document and fight back against violence and abuses of power by capturing events on video or live streaming. In class, showing just a few of the viral videos in which immigrants have been verbally or even physically accosted for speaking English with a non-native accent or a language other than English can drive the point home for students. In sum, this discussion might seem far afield from the original point of memorizing telephone numbers and addresses; nonetheless, it is my observation and contention that we must address both students' difficulties with numbers and the complex cultural contexts that surround those numbers.

Now, once students can produce their organization's telephone number and address, some simple classroom exercises can strengthen their listening comprehension of numbers. I give each student a pink telephone message slip, and then I read aloud a message about an upcoming event in our local Latino community. Students' task is to transform the announcement into a correct, complete and coherent message that someone else could read and act upon. As they complete the task, not only do they sharpen their listening comprehension, but the content of the message also provides them with further knowledge about our local Latino community. For example, I recently read the following message to students:

Las citas para el Consulado Móvil Mexicano ya están disponibles. Les sugiero a las personas que necesiten una cita que llamen a diario. El número es 1-877-639-4835. El

Consulado Móvil Mexicano estará en el Independent Media Center en Urbana en 202 S Broadway Ave. Cuando llamen tienen que indicar que su cita la quieren para el consulado móvil en Urbana los días 14, 15 y 16 de febrero.

In addition to working with the telephone number, address and dates contained in the message, the content also provides rich cultural information that students can explore further in class. First, students visit and explore the Chicago Mexican Consulate's website to inform themselves in general about the services they offer. They focus on the information about the "Consulado sobre ruedas." In this way, asking students to take telephone messages in class helps them practice their accuracy with numbers and it is a starting point for discussions about larger issues related to immigration, U.S.-Mexico relations, and how Mexico provides services to their citizens in the United States.

Social Security Numbers

A focus on a different category of numbers—social security numbers—can serve as a springboard for discussing undocumented immigrants and debunking common myths about all immigrants in the United States. Furthermore, LSP/CSL students often help clients and patients fill out forms that require name, address, telephone number and social security numbers or other identifying numbers. A simple listening comprehension activity can begin the lesson: the instructor reads a series of randomly generated social security numbers and students write them down. After gauging students' accuracy, the activity can then switch: in groups, one student invents and reads a social security number and the other students write it down. This assures that students develop both their listening comprehension and speaking abilities with numbers.

Because accuracy is vital with social security numbers, it is important to help students think strategically about problem solving in these high-stakes situations. To this end, the instructor can write a number with eight digits on the board and ask students to identify why this is an incorrect social security number. After establishing that there should always be nine numbers, the instructor can provide students with communicative strategies and

scripts that help resolve this issue, such as, “Solo escuché ocho números. ¿Qué número falta?” or “Tengo un número incompleto. Voy a leerlo. Por favor, dígame dónde está el error.” These questions are more effective than the simple but overly-broad, “Repita, por favor” that most students have been taught.

After practicing the listening comprehension and oral production of numbers, students are ready to tackle deeper, thornier issues related to social security numbers in the professional contexts where they do their CSL work. Social security numbers are highly sensitive pieces of identifying information; this can prompt a discussion about client confidentiality and privacy, especially for the vulnerable, immigrant populations with whom they work.

Social security numbers also provide an opportunity to discuss issues that specifically pertain to undocumented immigrants. As a point of departure, students can list circumstances they have personally encountered that require them to give their social security number (e.g., enrolling in college, obtaining a driver's license, to begin a job) or request them to give it (e.g., renting an apartment, opening a credit card, being stopped by a police officer). The instructor can then clarify that undocumented immigrants do not have social security numbers, and, thus, do not have access, or at the very least do not have easy access, to those institutions, documents or services. To carry that line of thought further, students can complete several sentences like this one: Si no puedo [obtener una licencia de manejar], tampoco puedo _____. This is a concrete way to help students consider the obstacles that face undocumented immigrants, beyond the language barriers and cultural differences that all immigrants confront. It is also an opportunity to open a discussion of citizenship as a “privilege” (similar to white privilege and male privilege) and the unconscious bias of those who have the social security number that opens doors they do not even know are closed to others.

Delving even deeper into the issue of social security numbers allows us to debunk one of the prevalent myths about undocumented immigrants, that they do not pay taxes. Every spring semester my students who work at the local refugee center observe and help many immigrants who seek assistance filling out their income tax returns. Whereas the lack of a social security number prohibits or impedes access to many vital services, the

Internal Revenue Service makes it easy for undocumented immigrants to declare their income and pay their taxes. The Individual Taxpayer Identification Number (ITIN) is also a nine-digit number. Undocumented immigrants can use it in lieu of a social security number in order to file tax returns. Not only does this disprove the notion that undocumented immigrants do not pay income taxes, it also demonstrates the ways in which the state can provide pathways to government services for all people--if they want.

Years and Ages

Spanish students can almost always easily say the current date, what time it is, their age, how many siblings they have and how many classes they are taking. Those are typical classroom contexts in which they practice numbers. Rarely, though, do they encounter large numbers except as pages (“Abran sus libros a la página doscientos veintitrés”) and years (“La Guerra Civil Española duró tres años, desde 1936 hasta 1939”). Therefore, understanding, saying and using large numbers in professional contexts can be particularly challenging for students.

The year 2000 marks a turning point. That year and those that follow are easy to understand and say. The years before, however, are not. Honestly, 1999 is a mouthful in Spanish. Additionally, students must be able to read the years written as words, not numerals, in some of the official documents from clients’ country origin, such as birth certificates, wedding licenses and death certificates. To help students build their proficiency with larger numbers, basic listening comprehension activities are, again, part of the solution:

“Obdulio y Zulema se casaron en 1993. ¿Qué aniversario celebran este año?”

“Yo nací en 1968. ¿Cuántos años tengo?”

“Mi primer hijo nació en 1998. ¿Cuántos años tiene?”

“Mi hija tiene 15 años. ¿En qué año nació?”

As we see repeatedly in combined LSP and CSL experiences, the difficulty is rarely just with the numbers themselves. Instead, those numbers are essential components in complex professional tasks. For example, understanding, applying for and renewing Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) status requires the understanding and calculation of many numbers, including years. (At the time of this writing, U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services processes DACA renewals, not new petitions.) Out of seven guidelines for being eligible for DACA, the first two focus on dates and ages:

“You may request consideration of DACA if you:

- Were under the age of 31 as of June 15, 2012;
- Came to the United States before reaching your 16th birthday;” (“Frequently Asked”)

When they begin the course, many of my L2 students have a vague understanding, if any at all, about DACA. They need a brief history and explanation of the program, including its twists and turns. A search of the web or of YouTube results in many reliable sources that provide an overview. After acquiring a basic understanding of DACA, students can work through various scenarios to check their comprehension about who qualifies for the program or not. For example:

1. Paula nació el 14 de junio 1979 y llegó a EE. UU. el 10 de mayo de 1987. ¿Puede pedir DACA o no?”
2. Ángel nació el 7 de enero de 1982 y llegó a EE. UU. el 31 de noviembre de 1983. ¿Puede pedir DACA o no?
3. Yadira nació el 26 de agosto de 1991 y llegó a EE. UU. el 25 de septiembre de 2007. ¿Puede pedir DACA o no?

These calculations can be difficult, even in one’s first language. For the first scenario, the answer is no. Paula was over the age of 31 as of June 15, 2012; she was 33. In the second scenario, the answer is yes. Ángel was 30 as of June 15, 2012 and was an infant when he arrived. The answer to the third scenario is no. Yadira was 20 years old as of June 15, 2012 but she had already turned 16 when she arrived.

Once the basic concepts of DACA and its requirements are clear for students, then faculty can lead discussions and create lessons around higher-level analyses of the embattled program. A few of the many possible facets to explore include: the political gamesmanship tied to DACA; undocumented youth movements, such as “Undocumented and Unafraid;” how DACA recipients complicate notions of “belonging” and “success” in the United States. In a sense, taking on these big-picture issues is the easy part for many instructors. After all, we are used to building courses and lessons by identifying complex topics, gathering pertinent materials (e.g., literary works, film, journalistic pieces, scholarly articles), orchestrating in-class analyses of the materials and then assigning analytical essays in which students demonstrate their abilities to carry out a similar analysis on their own. If we approach these issues theoretically—as topics of discussion and objects of analysis—that is enough. But when LSP and CSL students confront these issues as work-related tasks for their community partner, it is not enough. Therefore, the real challenge is to switch our mindset in order to value the nitty-gritty details enough to pay attention and dedicate time to numbers.

Other Numbers and Contexts

There are many more ways in which numbers and numbers in context are vital to the work that students and community partners do within immigrant communities. At schools, our students often tutor children in a variety of subjects, including math. Obviously, numeracy—and more specifically numeracy in Spanish—is vital to that work. Additionally, one number in particular helps Spanish LSP and CSL students better understand the socio-economic contexts of the schools where they do their CSL work: the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunches. Students can search online to find out the annual household income levels that qualify families for free or reduced school lunches. From there, a rich exploration of wages, living expenses and poverty-related issues can ensue.

Indeed, the big-picture, high-level “issues” related to immigrant communities that feature numbers are seemingly endless. What fees are charged for each visa, citizenship and DACA application, and what do those sums represent in comparison to a typical family income? Is affordable, safe and

decent housing available? How much does it cost to rent or buy a place to live in the local community? What numbers do you need to fill out a mortgage application? What transportation issues face the immigrant community? What is the average distance from home to work in the community, and how much would that cost each month with the current price of gasoline? Does your state require a social security number to obtain a driver's license? The list of questions goes on and on.

CONCLUSION

Because combined LSP and CSL courses focus so much on creating mutually beneficial relationships with community partners that meet community-identified needs, it is possible to end up presenting a picture of immigrants as solely “problems” and immigrant communities as “problematic.” When it seems that we have spent too much time addressing and analyzing the problems of immigration, I pull out my pink telephone message pads again. This time, though, students take messages that reflect a different, more positive side of immigrants' lives in our community. You can use my messages with your students, find similar examples in your community and ask students to contribute items that they encounter during their CSL work.

The following examples reflect the strengths of immigrant communities. Fun, family events highlight the artistic beauty of Latino cultures: “Concierto gratuito para familias y actividades para los niños en el Centro Krannert. Música de Sonia de los Santos el sábado 17 de febrero a las 10:00. Actividades de arte desde las 9:00 hasta las 11:30. Llaman a 217-333-6280.” Ask students to jot down the details of an event that shows how much support our community gives immigrants: “Marcha en apoyo a DACA en Champaign. Mañana, 3 de febrero a las 11:00.” Show them that immigrant parents want their children to imagine that the whole world is available to them: “La vida de un astronauta. Campamento para la semana de vacaciones de primavera en el museo Orpheum. Este campamento utilizará un plan de estudios desarrollado por la NASA. Estudiantes de Secundaria. Marzo 20 al 24, 9 am a 3 pm. Tienen becas disponibles. Para registro y más información en la página web del museo o llamando al 217-352-7882.” Highlight successful immigrant-owned small businesses to counter negative stereotypes: “Para cualquier servicio relacionado

a llantas les recomiendo El Chaparral. Negocio 100% familiar (papá, hijo e hija). Más de una vez me han sacado de apuros, he ahorrado mucho dinero y siempre lo reciben a uno con amabilidad. 8124 W Bradley Ave. 898.607.9189.” Show students that the immigrant community has many challenges but also reasons to smile: “Día Latino de Salud Dental, el 3 de febrero. Llamar y dejar mensaje (en español) entre las 9 am y las 5 pm lunes a viernes al (561) 417-5897 para hacer cita. Citas para exámenes dentales sin costo desde las 7:45 de la mañana hasta mediodía. No habrá cuidado de niños. Despensa de alimentos de 8:30 a 12:30 para todos.”

Immigration in the United States is a story of numbers: centuries of immigrants, millions of immigrants. Combined LSP and CSL Spanish courses help our students understand that story in its complexity, its contradictions and its beauty. Furthermore, that story is grounded in numbers—and so is our students’ work in immigrant community contexts.

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BOOSTING INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE IN SPANISH FOR SOCIAL SERVICE PROFESSIONALS THROUGH SERVICE-LEARNING

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Resumen: A medida que el mundo se ha vuelto cada vez más interconectado, ha surgido la necesidad de evaluar la competencia intercultural como una medida de la capacidad de uno para funcionar con éxito en un lugar en particular. En un esfuerzo por lograr este objetivo, universidades estadounidenses han tratado de integrar las comunidades de aprendizaje en el currículo académico. Como resultado, un mayor número de estudiantes está sirviendo a sus comunidades donde el inglés no es el idioma principal, lo cual les brinda oportunidades para participar en el aprendizaje del "mundo real" más allá del aula. El presente estudio informa sobre la relación entre los resultados del aprendizaje del alumnado y dos tipos de participación comunitaria durante un semestre ordinario en el área de competencia intercultural. Se evaluaron los datos recopilados de 84 aprendices de español como segunda lengua matriculados en un curso de español para profesionales de servicios sociales, con el fin de ver si los atributos del alumnado y las variables sociales/contextuales facilitaban el crecimiento de la competencia intercultural. Los resultados mostraron que la incorporación del compromiso cívico en la comunidad hispana en un curso de español con fines profesionales tuvo un impacto considerable en el desarrollo de la competencia intercultural. Se invita más investigación que se una a la conversación sobre la validez concurrente y la comparabilidad de diferentes pedagogías de participación comunitaria y su impacto en la competencia intercultural de aprendices de segundas lenguas.

Palabras clave: Español con fines profesionales, aprendizaje-servicio comunitario, competencia intercultural, organizaciones sin ánimo de lucro, comunidad hispana de Estados Unidos

Abstract: As the world has become increasingly interconnected, the need to assess intercultural competence as a measure of one's ability to successfully function in a particular setting has emerged. In an effort to achieve this goal, universities in the United States have sought to integrate learning communities into the college curriculum. As a result, increased numbers of students are serving their communities where English is not the primary language, which provides them with

opportunities to engage in ‘real world’ learning beyond the classroom. The present study examines the relationship between student learning outcomes and two types of community engagement during a regular semester in the area of intercultural competence. Data gathered from 84 second language learners of Spanish enrolled in a Spanish for Social Service Professionals course were evaluated to see if learner attributes and social/contextual variables were facilitating intercultural competence growth. Results showed that the incorporation of civic engagement in the Hispanic community into a Spanish for the Professions course had a considerable impact on intercultural competence development. Further research is encouraged to join the conversation about the concurrent validity and comparability of different community engagement pedagogies and their impact on second language learners’ intercultural competence.

Keywords: Spanish for professional purposes, community service-learning, intercultural competence, nonprofit organizations, Hispanic community in United States

INTRODUCTION

As the world has become increasingly interconnected, the need to assess intercultural competence as a measure of one’s ability to successfully function in a particular venue has emerged. In an effort to achieve this goal, universities in the United States have sought to integrate learning communities into the college curriculum (Lee et al.; Nash et al.). As a result, increased numbers of students are serving their communities where the primary language is not English. Consequently, research on community engagement pedagogies has increasingly focused on issues affecting the language and intercultural learning processes in which the target language (TL) is used (Palpacuer Lee et al.). In particular, by participating in community-based programs, students have the opportunity to engage in ‘real world’ learning beyond the classroom (Clifford and Reisinger). This allows students to experience diverse cultures and backgrounds, and, in the process, challenge their own assumptions about the world. The present study is a culmination of more than two years of assessment and program development. It examines the relationship between student learning outcomes and community engagement during a regular semester in the area of intercultural competence. Data gathered from two main groups of participants

were evaluated to see if certain variables were facilitating intercultural competence growth.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study addressed three variables representing three main themes: intercultural competence in a second language (L2), learner attributes (gender), and social/contextual variables (amount of L2 use and learning context). Although these variables have been studied previously, their correlational significance has not yet been examined. What follows is a discussion of previous research regarding each of these variables.

Intercultural Competence in an L2

The concept of “intercultural competence” originated in general linguistics and has been developed in the field of teaching and learning foreign languages. Byram defines the L2 learner as follows:

An intercultural speaker is someone who can operate their linguistic competence and their sociolinguistic awareness of the relationship between language and the context in which it is used, in order to manage interaction across cultural boundaries, to anticipate misunderstandings caused by difference in values, meanings and beliefs, and thirdly, to cope with the affective as well as cognitive demands of engagement with otherness. ("Intercultural Competence" 25)

Moreover, intercultural competence includes the following four elements set forth by Byram:

- 1) *Savoir-être* (attitudes): Allows for a change in attitude towards the foreign culture due to curiosity and openness. It fosters believing more in other cultures and becoming more critical of one's own, which prevents ethnocentric attitudes in relation to others.

- 2) *Savoirs* (knowledge): The acquisition of new concepts from the foreign culture.
- 3) *Savoir-apprendre* (skills of discovery): Knowing how to learn from the other culture.
- 4) *Savoir-faire* (skills of interaction): Knowing how to conduct oneself in the new foreign culture. (*Teaching and Assessing* 34)

Developing these abilities allows the learner to analyze and express experiences, as well as adapt learning techniques to each particular situation. Byram later adds two new aspects to the previous ones:

- 1) *Savoir-comprendre* (behavior): Related to interpretation of the new culture. Development of these abilities will help diminish the individual's initial ethnocentrism.
- 2) *Savoir-s'engager* (critical cultural conscience): Implies critical engagement with the foreign culture considering one's own culture. This ability consists of being able to develop culturally appropriate behavior from a critical perspective. (*Teaching and Assessing* 58-68)

Furthermore, Bennett suggests that intercultural competence depends on the learner's own perspective and perception of the foreign culture. In his words, "It is the construction of reality as increasingly capable of accommodating cultural differences that constitutes development" (24). Bennett proposes the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (DMIS), which is comprised of six stages through which cultural differences are overcome. This model explains how individuals react to a new culture and shows that intercultural sensitivity develops gradually from the more ethnocentric stages to the more ethnorelative stages, as shown in Figure 1:

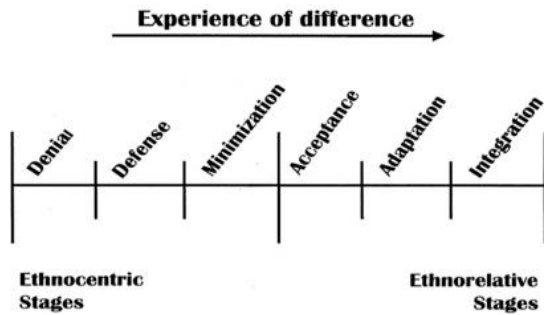


Fig. 1. Development of intercultural sensitivity

As noted by Bennett, in the ethnocentric stages, one views one's own culture as the only reality and superior to others; experiences are assimilated through the polarized perspective of "us" versus "them" that negates the existence of other cultures. These stages are formed by the following three phases:

- 1) *Negation*: This stage marks a complete indifference to cultural differences, recognizing the most obvious, but denying others more difficult to observe. The individual assumes that cultural differences do not exist, and, therefore, does not show any interest in culture.
- 2) *Defense*: In this phase, cultural differences are noted and perceived as a threat. The world is divided between "us" and "them." This provokes two defensive reactions: the individual sees "us" as better than "them," or the individual admires the other culture and sees hers/his as inferior. These attitudes give rise to simplistic stereotypes, prejudices, and even discrimination.
- 3) *Minimization*: In this phase, the values and elements of the home culture are seen as universal. All human beings are considered to be fundamentally the same. The individual trivializes or attempts to correct any perceived cultural differences from the perspective that we are all human beings with similar feelings, desires, and needs.

However, during the ethnorelative stages the individual experiences one's own culture within the context of other cultures. These stages progress as follows:

- 1) *Acceptance*: In this stage, cultural difference is recognized, and its value is accepted, but not always seen as positive. The individual displays curiosity and respect towards the new culture.
- 2) *Adaptation*: In this phase, the individual is able to adjust her/his behavior and cultural perspective in order to adapt to a different culture and communicate more effectively. The individual feels comfortable interacting with individuals with other values or beliefs. Culture is now seen as a process through which one connects with others, not something that one possesses.
- 3) *Integration*: In this stage, the individual does not belong to any one culture in particular; she/he identifies with two or more different cultures. The individual has developed a sense of self as a member of two or more cultural groups.

The Inventory of Intercultural Development (IDI), developed by Hammer and Bennett, builds upon the theoretical framework of the DMIS (Bennett) and provides individual and group graphic profiles of the orientation towards cultural differences and similarities in a continuum of development, as shown in Figure 2.

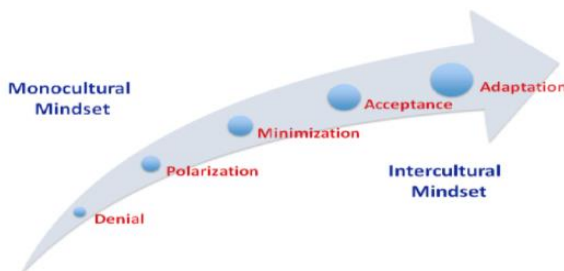


Figure 2. Continuum of intercultural development.

This inventory ranks participants' cultural sensitivity (i.e., intercultural competence) on a five-point Likert scale (1 =

disagree; 2 = disagree somewhat more than agree; 3 = disagree some and agree some; 4 = agree somewhat more than disagree; 5 = agree) based on answers to 50 questions. The statements, for example, are of the following type: “It is appropriate that people do not care what happens outside their country”, “I can change my behavior to adapt to other cultures”, “People in our culture work harder than people in other cultures”, etc. The IDI includes the following stages:

- 1) *Denial* (55 - 69.9): An orientation that recognizes the most obvious cultural differences (e.g., food), but cannot perceive more profound cultural differences (e.g., styles of conflict resolution), and avoids cultural differences.
- 2) *Polarization* (70 - 84.9): A critical position that considers cultural differences in terms of “us” versus “them.” It can manifest as: defense (uncritical vision of one’s own cultural practices and values and excessive criticism of other cultural practices and values) or reversion (excessively critical vision of one’s own cultural practices and values and uncritical of other cultural practices and values).
- 3) *Minimization* (85 - 114.9): A stage that emphasizes cultural similarities, universal values and principles. This can also hinder a deeper recognition and appreciation of cultural differences.
- 4) *Acceptance* (115 - 129.9): An orientation that recognizes and values patterns of cultural difference and similarity in one’s own culture as well as in others.
- 5) *Adaptation* (130 - 145): A position that is able to adequately and authentically adapt cultural perspectives and modify behavior.

A sample interpretation of the results is provided as follows:

- a) *Perceived orientation* (PO) reflects the level of cultural sensitivity that the participants think they have. As Figure 3 shows, the PO score (128.38) indicates that the

participant rates her/his own capability of understanding and appropriately adapting to cultural differences at the Cusp of Adaptation, reflecting a relatively early capability to deeply understand, shift cultural perspective, and adapt behavior across cultural differences and commonalities.

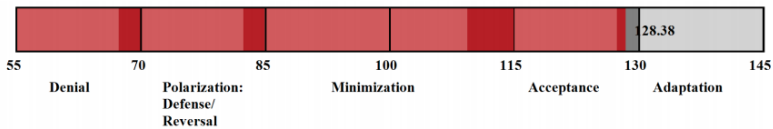


Fig. 3. Perceived orientation score

- b) *Development orientation* (DO) is the participants' position on the IDI scale with respect to their cultural sensitivity. The DO score (113.36), shown in Figure 4, indicates that the participant's primary orientation toward cultural differences is at the Cusp of Acceptance, reflecting a relatively early orientation that recognizes and appreciates patterns of cultural difference among one's own and other cultures in values, perceptions, and behaviors.

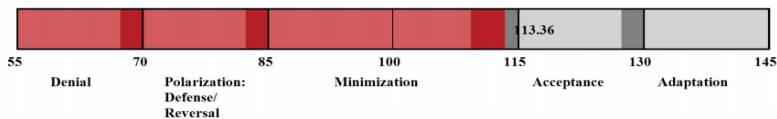


Fig. 4. Developmental orientation score

- c) *Orientation gap* (OG) is the difference between PO and DO. This category shows the difference between the level of cultural sensitivity that the participants think they have and where they fall on the continuum according to the inventory. As Figure 5 illustrates, the OG of that participant is 15.02 points. A gap score of 7 points or higher can be considered a significant difference between one's own perceived position on the developmental continuum and where the IDI places said individual's level of intercultural competence.

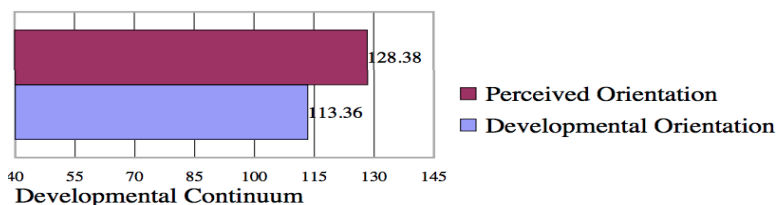


Fig. 5. Orientation gap score

Recently, a plethora of research has been published in the fields of social sciences and business using this framework, thereby demonstrating its validity and reliability (Altschuler et al.; Klak and Martin; Paige et al.; Straffon, among others).

Learner Attributes (gender)

Gender is among the most salient identity categories in language learning literature (Kinginger). Some studies on the effects of study abroad have reported that males and females develop intercultural competence differently. In "The Georgetown Consortium Project", Vande Berg et al. examined the impact of study abroad on language development and intercultural competence in students participating in various programs abroad and compared them to students who enrolled in similar courses at one of three U.S. institutions, but did not study abroad. Not only did they find that many study-abroad students significantly increased their level of intercultural competence, but these findings also showed an interaction with gender in which female students made statistically significant gains in intercultural competence while male students did not. In the same line, Pedersen assessed intercultural effectiveness outcomes in a yearlong study abroad program and found that participants studying in another country, especially women, who experienced cultural mentoring, demonstrated greater intercultural gains than those who were not mentored. A third example of gender as a significant predictor of intercultural sensitivity growth is reported by Heinzmann et al. The authors reported the results of a longitudinal quasi-experimental study on the effect of study abroad on intercultural competence. The sample consisted of upper secondary students from German and French-speaking Switzerland, who participated in an exchange program (intervention group), and upper secondary students from German

and French-speaking Switzerland, who did not participate in an exchange program (control group). Results showed that not only were the students in the intervention group significantly more interculturally skilled than those in the control group, but gender also played a role. While males in the control group reported significantly higher intercultural skills than females, females in the intervention group reported higher intercultural skills.

Social/Contextual Variables

Amount of L2 use

Study abroad literature has also documented evidence of the advantageous impact of exposure to and use of the TL with native speakers on intercultural growth (Byram and Feng; Kinginger, *inter alia*). From a language socialization perspective, this research has shown that these out-of-class (and authentic) interactions with the local community in cultural contexts increase the potential for significant gains in cultural practices. More recently, Watson and Wolfel have found a moderate correlation between the amount of contact through TL conversations and gains in intercultural competence, which supports the notion that interaction with native speakers in the host country plays a key role in the level of cultural awareness the participants gain while abroad.

Learning context

Research has shown that intercultural competence development is closely related to the context of the learning environment. Until now, studies have focused on comparing gains in intercultural competence in regular instructional contexts vs. instructional contexts abroad.

With the exception of a few studies, little attention has been given to the development of intercultural competence in a domestic instructional context. The existing literature is supported by experiential learning, that is, sending students outside of their school to work with members of the community. For example, Bloom examined the impact of the community component on linguistic and cultural learning. To this end, a group of twenty-four students were required to devote 15 hours of their time to a

public school or an after-school program. The findings showed that this experience helped participants boost intercultural competence. McBride examined the intercultural growth of a group of undergraduate students enrolled in a second language acquisition (SLA) course, which required participating in a service-learning project that involved teaching or tutoring second language learners. Participants kept journals in which they reflected on their experiences and connected them with the course content. Findings revealed that those participants whose attention remained most fixed on their tutees' SLA processes showed the greatest insights into intercultural communication. In another study, after completing 45 hours serving in the local Hispanic community for a Spanish language course, participants in Rodríguez-Sabater reported several instances of intercultural competence in their final reflection papers. Although participants demonstrated varying degrees of intercultural competence as a result of participation in a CSL project, results pointed to an overall intercultural growth.

In the context of learning an L2 in an international context, various important factors have been identified. One line of investigation confirms that a longer stay abroad has a greater impact on the development of intercultural competence (Behrnd and Porzelt; Engle and Engle; Medina-Lopez-Portillo; Vande Berg et al. "The Georgetown Consortium Project"). Other studies, however, recognize that programs of shorter length can also have significant effects on students' intercultural development (Chieffo and Griffiths; Jackson, *inter alia*). Another strand of research has observed the necessity of support from the program to encourage intercultural development (Behrnd and Porzelt; Deardorff; Vande Berg et al. *Student Learning Abroad*, among others). Additional studies include alternative forms of documented evidence such as reflection papers and essays with photos (Jackson; Williams).

Community service-learning in the Spanish for the professions classroom

An additional learning context that has experienced a rise in popularity in higher education institutions in the United States—and, particularly, in the L2 classroom—includes the experiential learning setting. As Jacoby explained, community service-learning (CSL) is “experiential education that engages

students in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities” (qtd. in Tilley-Lubbs et al. 161). The defining characteristic that sets CSL apart from other types of volunteer or internship endeavors is that students’ service experiences are tied to the academic content of an on-campus course or curriculum (Giles et al.). CSL has arisen from the tenets of experiential education and constructivist theories that promote learning through first-hand discovery (Furco). Recently, there has been an increase in the use of CSL in a wide variety of settings including the acquisition of an L2 to the degree that many post-secondary instructors in the United States have included CSL in their classes (Sánchez-López). As a pedagogical approach, this type of hands-on learning provides students the opportunity to reflect on their involvement in their service, thereby facilitating a deeper understanding of academic content as well as community awareness. Furthermore, the CSL methodology provides multiple benefits for all involved parties, which may include the following:

For students, CSL:

- Enhances learning
- Connects theory to practice
- Explores majors and careers
- Fosters civic responsibility
- Provides a sense of making a difference
- Encourages lifelong commitment to service
- Enhances employability
- Offers jobs, scholarships, self-esteem, etc.

For the institution, CSL:

- Fulfills mission
- Creates true partnerships
- Produces higher quality graduates
- Increases community support
- Fosters public relations/publicity
- Improves learning

For faculty, CSL:

- Engages more students
- Reinvigorates teaching
- Improves relationships with students
- Offers professional development

Creates research/publishing opportunities

For the community, CSL:

- Provides infusion of people power
- Meets client/agency needs
- Accesses more informed/involved citizenry
- Explores new ideas and generates energy
- Reinvigorates supervisors/staff

In the words of Brown and Thompson, “[p]ostsecondary second-language students in the United States live in a linguistically and culturally diverse country, wherein access to native speakers of *foreign* languages outside the walls of the classroom but within the community is becoming increasingly available, particularly in the case of Spanish” (73-74). Research suggests that experiential language learning is a promising addition to the domestic context and, particularly, courses on languages for specific purposes (e.g., Spanish for the professions) (Lafford). The intersection of these disciplines would provide

a clearer understanding of the interplay of individual learner characteristics and contextual features during the L2 acquisition process, the processes involved in acquiring language in naturalistic (workplace) settings, the acquisition of ICC [Intercultural Communicative Competence] in professional vs. other (real world and classroom) venues, and the pedagogical applications of insights from this type of research to LSP [Languages for Specific Purposes] and regular language classrooms in which learners are prepared for life-long learning of the target (and other) languages. (Lafford 83)

LSP is defined as “the teaching of second and foreign languages with the aim of helping learners enter or make progress in a particular area of work or field of study” (Byram and Hu 391). This interdisciplinary field, which has steadily gained popularity in higher education in the US over the past two decades, has proven to be effective in providing student-centered elements, attracting students and, based on the MLA report (3), creating “educated speakers who have deep translingual and transcultural competence” (qtd. in Long 1). Similarly, from a multidisciplinary

curricular design and research angle, LSP courses have also been vital not only to attract more students, but also to overcome the decline in enrollment and resulting budget cuts through which many language programs across the nation are navigating. In Gerndt's words, "LSP diversifies the tradition of literature-only courses and provides a practical approach to language learning" (6).

Although CSL and LSP stand out due to their uniqueness and potential to reshape a university foreign language (FL) curriculum in the United States, few studies have examined the relationship of both disciplines together. Lafford et al. have identified four core issues to account for the ways in which these two areas of study can help make substantive changes in postsecondary education FL curricula:

1. The first core issue responds to the difficulty for a language department to provide numerous specialized courses for the variety of careers students pursue. Lafford et al. propose offering an LSP course that focuses on professionalism through which students would gain practical skills that are applicable across professions, such as effective interaction with clients and cooperation with colleagues. They further suggest that by adding a CSL component, students can gain practical experience with these skills as well as develop their abilities to perform in a professional context in the TL.
2. The second core issue is the potential to integrate professional skills throughout the language curriculum beyond specific courses. The authors provide examples consisting of having students simulate taking telephone messages to practice letters and numbers in an introductory course, while major and minor students could gain professional skills through presentations and by analyzing the texts studied in a literature course through the lens of their chosen career. They also suggest that having experience incorporating professional skills in all levels of language courses makes graduate students more marketable.

3. Third is the importance of interdisciplinarity for successful CSL. Lafford et al. emphasize the necessity of collaboration not only between departments but across the divides of areas within a language department. Training and professional development must be provided for those leading CSL and projects must respond to the actual needs of the community.
4. The fourth core issue is the need for developing the LSP research base. The authors call for increased studies and publications by established researchers in various languages as well as more emphasis on LSP research and participation in CSL in graduate programs. (176-181)

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In light of the scant literature on the effect of CSL on intercultural competence growth in LSP pedagogy, the analysis for this paper was guided by two research questions (RQs), which are stated as follows:

- RQ1. To what extent is there evidence of intercultural competence growth in an LSP course throughout the semester?
- RQ2. What is the relationship between intercultural competence growth and external factors (e.g., gender, language contact exposure, and community engagement) during the intervention period?

METHODS

Participants

This study included 84 English L2 learners of Spanish, who were enrolled in a course on Spanish for Social Service Professionals. There were 50 females and 34 males, and all were undergraduate students at a large (over 30,000 students), urban, public research university in the Central-Southeastern region of the United States. Participants' prior formal study of Spanish varied, ranging from 2 to 5 years, but the majority (81%) had

fewer than 3 years of study. Their academic degree differed considerably including, for example, Spanish, international relations, linguistics, marketing, English, nursing, and social work. While 30 participants (35.7%) were Spanish majors, the vast majority (64.3%) were minoring in Spanish.

Spanish for Social Service Professionals, a third-year Spanish course, was aimed at preparing Spanish students for successful communication in the Hispanic social services field by building upon their existing knowledge and emphasizing practical, real-life use of oral and written Spanish. In addition to introducing essential social work terminology and language situations in common social service contexts, and thus reinforcing strategies for understanding, interpreting, and responding to new information, this course was also aimed at helping the student become more mindful of the importance of cultural awareness and competence in working with this diverse minority group.

Spanish for Social Service Professionals was a community-oriented course, since it required additional out-of-class work for different purposes that will be described in the following section. The participating university is located in a metropolitan area with an extensive Hispanic community. Indeed, the U.S. Hispanic population grew tremendously between 2000 and 2010 and, according to the US Census Bureau, Kentucky was among the states that experienced the largest increase in Hispanic residents during the past decade (121.6%).

Research Design

This study was comprised of two groups of Spanish for Social Service Professionals that shared a common syllabus, used the same textbook, and completed the same readings and assignments. The communal learning objectives of the class were as follows: (1) to further develop communicative competence within the field of social services, (2) to foster critical thinking skills, such as problem-identification and solving, decision-making, anticipation and planning, client understanding, and negotiation techniques, (3) to improve spoken and written Spanish skills through real-world interactions, and (4) to promote a better understanding of the Hispanic social service culture. However, this latter goal was achieved in different formats. While the experimental group (EG) was required to complete a minimum of

30 hours of community service work during the semester, the same time commitment was required for the control group (GC), but participants conducted a community-based project (CBP) instead of CSL. During on-campus class meetings, readings related to the Hispanic community were discussed, which included articles on immigration, healthcare, political and social programs, English as a Second Language (ESL), and other educational programs. Students also examined the effects of CSL on the acquisition of L2 Spanish, the linguistic features and cultural norms of the local Spanish-speaking communities, and the different registers of spoken and written Spanish. Of primary importance was the class time designated for students to share their experiences from their service projects; all of these debriefing sessions were conducted in Spanish. Participants had a choice of working with a variety of organizations, such as hospitals, ESL programs, Hispanic outreach non-profits, and wellness organizations.

Instruments

Measure of intercultural competence

Participants completed the IDI at two specific times: at the beginning (T1) and the end (T2) of the semester. This survey offers an empirical, statistically reliable and transculturally valid measure of intercultural sensitivity (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.80$ to 0.84 ; Hammer et al.; Hammer "Additional Cross-Cultural Validity").

Measure of language contact

A language contact questionnaire (LCQ) was adapted from Freed et al. in order to measure participants' reported amount of language use in different social activities. The LCQ asked participants to report the number of hours per week that they felt they effectively used Spanish in interactive and non-interactive social activities. Interactive activities are defined by the LCQ as involving face-to-face interactions such as communicating with native Spanish-speaking friends, service people and co-workers. Non-interactive activities included activities such as watching TV and reading news in Spanish.

Data collection and procedure

This is a quantitative study relying on the IDI and LCQ instruments for analyzable data. Participants completed both surveys together at the beginning and the end of the semester in which they participated in the relevant course. Both the IDI and LCQ were written in English and answered individually and online (on a tablet) in approximately 30-40 minutes and 10-15 minutes respectively. The IDI and LCQ scores were analyzed to determine their statistical reliability and normal distribution. Only the developmental orientation (DO) subscore of the IDI was used here, since this score is thought to best represent participants' actual level of intercultural sensitivity, particularly as it relates to their behavior during the intervention period (Hammer "The Intercultural Development Inventory"). Additionally, gender and LCQ scores were considered in the assessment of intercultural competence growth.

Statistical analysis

After confirming that the DO subscores of the IDO and the LCQ scores both sufficiently approximated a normal distribution, two inferential tests (i.e., t-tests and ANCOVA) were used to test evidence for the research questions. While paired t-tests were performed to analyze whether the pre-post differences in the DO were statistically significant, an ANCOVA was used to assess the effects of the aforementioned variables (both categorical and continuous) on the growth of the outcome through pre-post difference scores (i.e., posttest score – pretest score). Given that we used the pre-post difference scores, the relationship between pretest scores and the pre-post difference score was also evaluated to prevent the loss of too much information that was included in the value of the pretest scores.

RESULTS ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Valid Use of Pre-Post Difference Scores

The outcome most relevant to our research questions is *change* in intercultural sensitivity. Pre-post differences in self-

perceived intercultural sensitivity are most directly measured by pre-post differences in the participants' responses to the DO subsection of the IDI. Before progressing with the main analyses, we first tested whether using these pre-post difference scores was advisable here.

To test this, we tested correlation between DO pretest scores and DO posttest scores; if pretest scores correlated significantly with posttest scores, then using a difference score is ill-advised since doing so ignores significant information contained in the pretest scores. The correlation ($r = -.256$) was not significant ($t_{45} = 1.78$, $p = .082$), suggesting—along with the normality of both scores—that these scores could be used.

Main Analysis

In this section, we analyze and discuss the IDI results. As reported in previous studies (Engle and Engle; Jackson; Watson et al.; Watson and Wolfel, *inter alia*), gains in intercultural competence using the IDI were evident and statistically significant. To this end, quantitative results are provided for each research question.

RQ1: To what extent is there evidence of intercultural competence growth in an LSP course throughout the semester?

Figure 6 presents the pretest (T1) and posttest (T2) DO scores for those who participated in the community-based project and those who participated in the service-learning project. Although both groups began at similar levels of intercultural sensitivity, this figure strongly argues that students who participated in the service-learning project tended to have greater pre-post differences than students who participated in the community-based project.

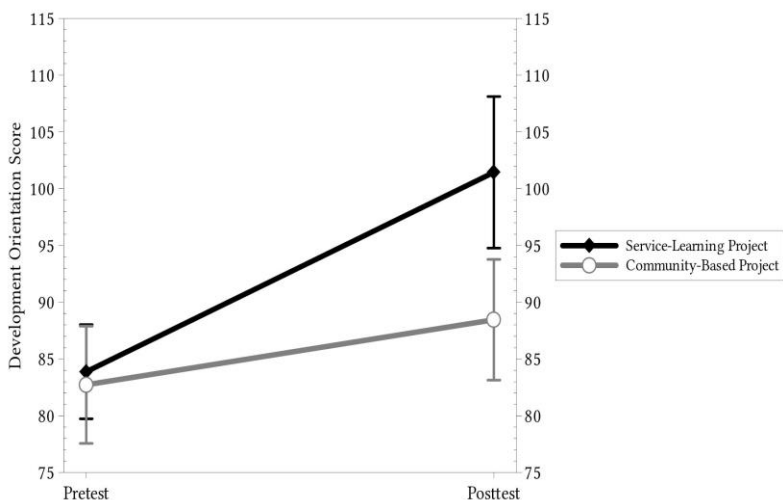


Fig. 6. Longitudinal development orientation (CSL vs. CBP)

A paired *t*-test confirmed the difference rates of intercultural competence implied by Figure 6 ($t_{24} = 4.90, p < .0001$); students who participated in the service-learning project reported significantly greater gains in intercultural competence than did their peers who participated in the community-based project during the same semester.

RQ2: What is the relationship between intercultural competence growth and external factors (e.g., group, gender, and language contact exposure) during the intervention period?

An ANCOVA analyzed which (if any) external factors (i.e., group, gender and L2 use and exposure) significantly contribute to understanding the students' intercultural competence development. The results of this ANCOVA are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Effect of group, gender, and TL use on DO difference scores

Variable	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Group	1963.90	1	1963.93	15.21	0.00035***

(SL vs. non-SL)					
Gender	2741.10	1	2741.09	21.23	<0.0001***
TL use	259.70	1	259.74	2.01	0.16
Group x TL use	51.30	1	51.34	0.39	0.53
Gender x TL use	143.50	1	143.52	1.11	0.29
Residuals	5448.8	42	129.73		

Note: *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

Next, regarding RQ2.1, Figure 7 shows the effect of gender (male vs. female) on the growth of intercultural competence in both groups across the intervention period.

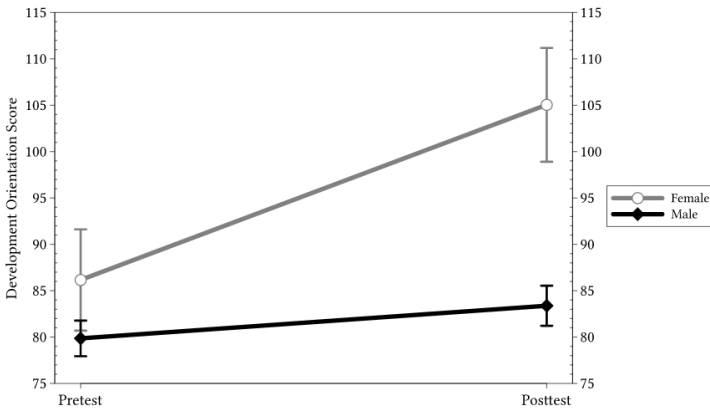


Fig. 7. Longitudinal Development Orientation (Female vs. Male)

In comparing the pre- and post-data sets, this graph suggests that females scored significantly better than males in both the pre- and the post-test time periods—reflecting the main effect of gender found in the ANCOVA. More importantly here, this gender difference in intercultural development increased over the course of the experience: A paired t -test further supported the claim that female participants experienced greater growth in their

intercultural competence throughout the intervention period than did their male counterparts ($t_{32.8} = 4.35, p = .00012$).

As to RQ2.2, we found that the growth of intercultural competence correlated with an increase in self-reported Spanish use during the intervention ($r = .454, p = .0013$). However, it must be noted that there was still considerable variance left unaccounted for by this correlation, as Figure 8 illustrates. In this figure, the relationship predicted by this correlation is presented as the diagonal line stretched across the graph; the points represent actual relationships between growth in intercultural competence and increase in Spanish use. Although the points have some tendency to cluster around the linear estimate, many—especially among those with lower levels of growth in either variable—deviate considerably from it. Changes in Spanish use did relate to growth in intercultural competence, but not profoundly.

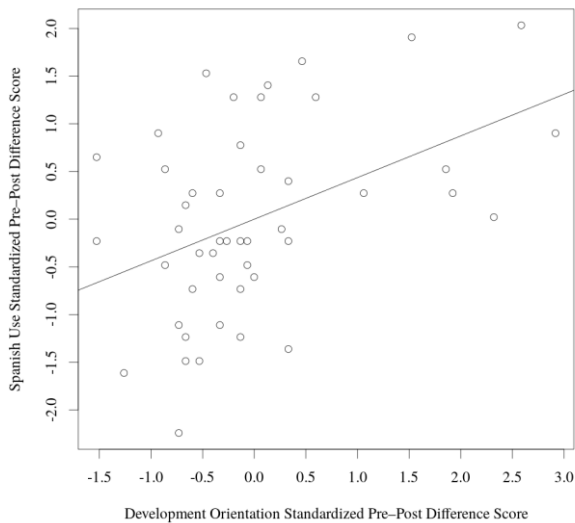


Fig. 8. Correlation between longitudinal development orientation and use of TL

The equivocal role of Spanish use is further underscored by the non-significant main effect for it in the ANCOVA, summarized in Table 1. That ANCOVA employed posttest Spanish use scores, but we obtained very similar results when Spanish use difference scores were used instead.

Lastly, RQ2.3 attempts to account for the impact of community engagement on the intercultural competence development of each group. While CG members participated in a community-based experience throughout the semester, the EG participants, conversely, were doing community-service work with different non-profit organizations with over 30 hours of community engagement. As Figure 6 showed previously, all participants tended to realize significant growth in their intercultural sensitivity. Now, Figure 9 illustrates the development of intercultural competence in the experimental and control groups from just prior to the community-based experience to four months after the semester ends. This graph indicates that the experimental group made higher gains than the control group.

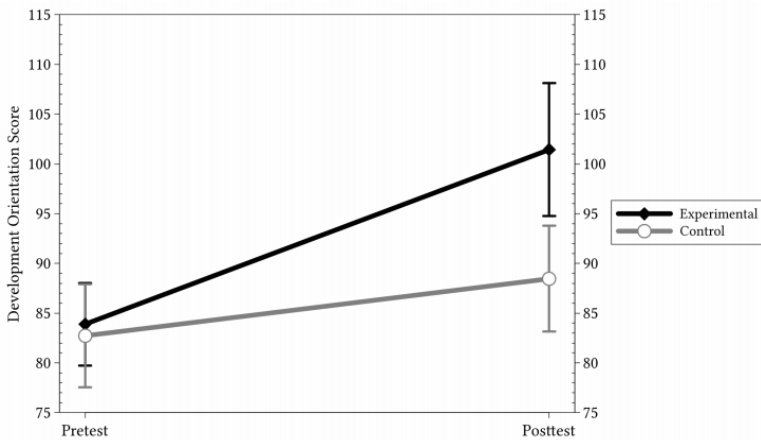


Fig. 9. Longitudinal development orientation (EG vs. CG)

To examine the degree to which the intercultural growth of the experimental or control group participants throughout the intervention period was statistically significant, as previously shown in Table 1, a significant statistical difference ($p = 0.00***$) was observed in the group selection. These results corroborated the discernment from Figure 9 and confirmed that the type of community engagement (i.e., participating in a community-based project or community service-learning work) had an effect on the intercultural growth of participants.

In sum, participating in a service-learning project and being a female participant both had significant effects on the pre-

post difference in developmental orientation scores, a widely-used, self-reported measure of intercultural competence. However, we also tested for two associations (group and TL use; gender and TL use) and changes in the DO difference scores, in order to further examine whether there was a correlation between these variables and improvement in the DO scores. The magnitude of the correlations for these associations did not reach statistical significance.

CONCLUSION

Without a doubt, the findings of this study fully support calls for more evidence-based decision-making in the area of Spanish undergraduate curriculum development. Boosting the intercultural competence of L2 learners is an incredibly complex enterprise. To better understand this multidimensional process, this study investigated some influential factors that did impact the intercultural competence of two groups of L2 Spanish learners: (1) students who were enrolled in a course that required a CSL component compared to (2) those whose class required a community-based project instead. Based on our results, we conclude that the incorporation of civic engagement in the Hispanic community into a course on Spanish for the Professions had a considerable impact on intercultural competence growth. Statistical analysis confirmed that those students who participated in the SL project had greater gains in intercultural competence than did the second group of participants who were required to conduct a community-based project during the semester.

This study also examined the relationship between the development of intercultural competence and three specific external factors (e.g., gender, language contact exposure, and community engagement) during the intervention period. First, female participants experienced greater growth in intercultural competence throughout the intervention period than did their male counterparts. Interestingly, a similar moderate correlation was observed between growth of intercultural competence and self-reported Spanish use during the intervention. Although increased Spanish use related to growth in intercultural competence, such modifications were not profound. Third, the type of community engagement (i.e., participating in a community-based project or community service-learning work) had an effect on the

intercultural growth of participants. This supports the idea that interacting with native speakers in cultural contexts plays a key role in the cultural awareness the participants gain during the semester.

Further investigation will need to examine the correlation between L2 gains and gains in intercultural competence on the IDI at various proficiency levels. Language proficiency encourages more language contact, which then leads to better cultural understanding (Churchill and DuFon). To this end, we invite fellow researchers to join the conversation about the concurrent validity and comparability of different forms of community-engagement and their impact on L2 learners' intercultural competence.

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SERVICE LEARNING IN A SPANISH FOR TEACHERS COURSE: PROVIDING CONTEXT FOR SPECIALIZED LANGUAGE AND CONTENT LEARNING

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Resumen: This study describes the implementation of an optional community service learning (CSL) component within a university Spanish for Teachers course. Data come from beginning- and end-of-semester surveys regarding students' interest in a Spanish teaching career, knowledge of language teaching methods, and self-ratings of Spanish language abilities. Responses from students who opted for the CSL option were compared to those who opted for a more traditional, non-CSL project. Additional data come from weekly reflections written by students participating in the CSL option. Results suggest few quantitative differences between the CSL and non-CSL groups. However, open-ended responses and reflections suggest that the CSL option may provide students with opportunities to more fully engage with course concepts.

Palabras clave: community service learning, Spanish for Teachers, language for specific purposes, teacher training, experiential education

Abstract: Este estudio describe la implementación de un componente opcional de aprendizaje servicio comunitario (ApSC) dentro de un curso universitario de español para el profesorado. Los datos provienen de encuestas de inicio y fin de semestre sobre el interés en la profesión de enseñanza, el conocimiento de métodos pedagógicos y la autoevaluación de habilidades lingüísticas en español. Las respuestas del alumnado que optó por la opción ApSC se compararon con las del que optó por un proyecto más tradicional sin el ApSC. Datos adicionales provienen de reflexiones semanales escritas por el alumnado de ApSC. Los resultados sugieren pocas diferencias cuantitativas entre los grupos ApSC y no-ApSC. Sin embargo, las respuestas abiertas y las reflexiones sugieren que la opción ApSC puede proporcionar al alumnado oportunidades para involucrarse más plenamente con los conceptos del curso.

Keywords: aprendizaje servicio comunitario, español para el profesorado, lenguas para fines específicos, formación docente, educación experiencial

INTRODUCTION

The rise of experiential educational opportunities at US universities, though not a new concept (see Dewey's early 20th century treatise on the role of experience in education), has been well documented across disciplines (Roberts). Broadly speaking, these educational approaches, which "emphasize first-hand participation by learners in a diverse range of activities typically occurring outside of a classroom, but usually under pedagogical supervision" (Allison and Seaman 1), seek to send students out into the world to become participants in the fields and subjects they study. Within university language departments, experiential opportunities, especially in the form of community service learning (CSL)¹, are now common components of language curricula (Lear and Abbott 312). Concurrent with the rise in CSL, language departments have witnessed increased interest in and demand for language courses dedicated to linguistic preparation for specific professional contexts (e.g., Long and Uscinski; Sánchez-López "An Analysis"). Given the contextualized, applied, and specific nature of CSL experiences and of language for specific purposes (LSP) courses (under which rubric language for the professions courses fall; Klee 187), the two curricular components have experienced, to some extent, an "organic convergence" (Abbott and Martínez 390).

This essay describes the implementation of a CSL component within a Spanish for Teachers course at a mid-sized

¹ A reviewer commented on the choice of the term *service learning* as opposed to "more inclusive term[s]" such as *engaged learning* or *community based learning*. Another reviewer suggested use of the terms *community service learning* (CSL) or *community-based language learning* (CBLL; e.g., Clifford and Reisinger). I elected to use the term *community service learning* (CSL) in this paper for several reasons. First, it reflects the terminology employed in the proposal for this special issue, which focuses on the connections between Spanish for the Professions and CSL. Second, it is a widely used and accepted term that situates the activities described as a specific type of experiential learning. Finally, I believe it better represents the learning activities described than, for example, CBLL, which specifically emphasizes (typically second) language learning (and not all of the students in the course described in this study were second language learners).

northeastern U.S. university. The course is one designed to provide specialized language instruction as well as pedagogical/methodological training to undergraduate Spanish majors and to graduate students in Spanish. The CSL component, which was offered as an option for the course's culminating project, involved volunteering on a weekly basis in a local high school Spanish classroom. In what follows, the university setting, programmatic/curricular context, and course are described, followed by details regarding the implementation of the CSL option. Next, beginning- and end-of-semester survey data are reported in which students provided information regarding their knowledge of, enthusiasm for, interest in, and experience with teaching Spanish as well as their beliefs about and confidence related to their linguistic and communicative abilities in Spanish. The responses from students who opted for the CSL option are compared to those who opted for the more traditional course project with no CSL component. Additionally, changes in survey responses from the beginning to the end of the semester are compared both within and across groups, and responses to open-ended questions are described. Finally, additional information regarding students' CSL experiences come from weekly reflections written by students participating in the CSL option. Utilizing results and responses from the survey and other data, this essay explores the impact of CSL on students' experience in this profession-oriented Spanish course.

BACKGROUND

Spanish Language Learning and CSL

The incorporation of CSL into university Spanish language courses has been documented in scholarly and pedagogical literature since the early 1990s (e.g., Beebe and DeCosta) and has been growing steadily in recent years. As Abbott and Martínez describe, the incorporation of CSL components in language education “grew out of a desire to expand opportunities for L2 learners to interact with speakers of the target language while simultaneously transforming perceptions and stereotypes about immigrant communities in the US ...” (389). Accounts of wide-ranging community-involved projects (e.g., as tutors in English as a second language and computer training for

migrant families, Elorriaga; with an after-school elementary education program, Pascual y Cabo et al.; with various community partners developing sustainable microeconomy projects centered on the arts in a Memphis, TN neighborhood, Ruggiero; among many others) can be readily accessed, and scholarly work has begun to focus on the impact of CSL at particular curricular levels (e.g., first semester: Bloom; intermediate level: Pellettieri; upper division: Plann; graduate level: Carracelas-Juncal), among particular student-learner populations (e.g., Spanish heritage learners: DuBord and Kimball; Lowther Pereira; Leeman et al.; Pascual y Cabo et al.), and within particular courses or subfields (e.g., linguistics: Llombart-Huesca and Pulido; literary studies: Schwartz).

Spanish for the Professions

To some extent concurrent with the rise in CSL in language courses has been the increased attention given to courses devoted to Spanish for Specific Purposes or Spanish for the Professions (e.g., Abbott and Martínez; Klee; Lear). These courses, such as Spanish for Healthcare Professionals or Spanish for Business, “make an explicit connection between learning the target language in the classroom and using it in professional venues” and have as their central goal “to prepare language students for the practical application of their L2 in professional environments” (Lafford 2). In 2012, Long and Uscinski reported on the results of a survey on the status of LSP that was built upon and designed to update a similar survey reported on in 1990 by Grosse and Voght. In the original report, Grosse and Voght described the broad presence of LSP courses in departments across US colleges and universities, with 51% of responding departments and 58% of responding institutions reporting LSP courses in their curriculum. More than two decades later, Long and Uscinski reported that 62% of responding departments offered LSP courses. The most common reasons cited for including LSP courses in the curriculum were in response to student demand (68%) and to attract new students (56%). A notable finding of the updated survey was the growing diversity of LSP courses offered including not just business- and medicine-focused courses but also courses focused on language for education, nursing, translation, engineering, and law, among other fields and purposes. The

present study focuses on an LSP course aimed at Spanish language instruction as well methodological training for potential future Spanish language teachers.

Combining CSL and Spanish for the Professions

Given the explicit focus of Spanish for the Professions courses on language in specific professional context(s), the combination of such profession-oriented courses and CSL has become quite common. In fact, in her 2014 analysis of Spanish for Specific Purposes programs across 37 departments in U.S. colleges and university, Sánchez-López found that 58% of these programs offered CSL or internship opportunities and, of those, over a third *required* some type of CSL. Lear writes that combining CSL and LSP offers potential benefits for the community as well as for students: “Employers and, by association, their clients in the community, obtain volunteer labor and unpaid training for future employees. Students gain immediate applications for what they are learning in class, along with some work experience and professional networking opportunities” (159). Examples of combining CSL and Spanish for Specific Purposes include Abbott and Lear’s report on the implementation of CSL in a Spanish social entrepreneurship course, and Martínez and Schwartz’s description of a CSL experience within a medical Spanish course for heritage Spanish speakers. In the former, University of Illinois students who were registered in a fifth-semester Business Spanish course called “Spanish and Entrepreneurship” partnered with local non-profit organizations that served Spanish speakers and, in so doing, “enhanced their knowledge of the three core components of the course: theories of social entrepreneurship, the Spanish language, and Latino cultures” (Abbott and Lear 234). Martínez and Schwartz described a critical approach to bridging the surrounding heritage language community with heritage language pedagogy in a Medical Spanish for Heritage Learners course. Students took part in a mini-internship with health centers in Southern Texas that included translation and revision of nutrition plans and involvement with health education courses for Spanish-speaking patients. The authors reported that students finished the semester with “a heightened commitment to Spanish language

maintenance, an expanded bilingual range, and an understanding and respect for language variation in Spanish” (175).

The present study focuses on the implementation of CSL in a particular Language for the Professions course: Spanish for Teachers. More description of this particular course and its fit within the rubric of LSP is included in the Study Context and Method section. In what follows, previous accounts of the combination of CSL and language teacher training are reviewed.

CSL and Language for Teachers Courses

Prior explorations of the value of CSL for pre-service language teachers include Hildebrandt’s description of the mutually beneficial effects of a CSL project for students enrolled in a foreign language teacher education sequence at Illinois State University. Although the academic course was not an LSP course (it was a foreign language teaching methods course housed in the College of Education and taught in English), students were required to have intermediate-high oral proficiency in their designated world language (i.e., French, German, or Spanish) prior to enrollment in the first course of the sequence. Spanish students had the opportunity to participate in a CSL project that consisted of leading Spanish language classes for children at a nearby community center. The participating students co-taught 50 minutes of beginning Spanish lessons each week and assisted with curricular design and planning for the program. Participating students reported experiencing a greater connection with the community and enhanced empathy and compassion as a result of the project in addition to gaining practical classroom management and teaching experience. Similarly, Salgado-Robles and Lamboy assessed the effects of an experiential learning component on students in a pre-service teacher program for heritage speakers of Spanish. The students included in their description were enrolled in a Spanish for Education Professionals course, a requirement of the degree leading to New York State certification for Spanish teaching in grades 7 to 12. In addition to their course work, students completed 30-35 hours of fieldwork in schools located throughout New York City. A comparison of survey responses from prior to and following the CSL component as well as of monthly fieldwork reports suggested that students found the experiential component to be a fruitful experience and that it

“provided them with a better understanding of the teaching profession” (12).

The present study describes and assesses the effect of the implementation of a CSL component within an upper-level university Spanish course aimed at current and potential future Spanish teachers. Utilizing results and responses from a beginning- and end-of-semester survey as well as from students’ reflective blog posts, this study explores the potential of a CSL component to enrich students’ experience in a Spanish for Teachers course. More specifically, this study explores why students opt (or not) for the CSL option in this course as well as the effect of the CSL experience on students’ interest in becoming Spanish teachers, on students’ perceived knowledge of and confidence in language teaching methods, and on students’ self-reported Spanish language abilities.

STUDY CONTEXT AND METHOD

University and Course Context

The study described in this essay took place within an upper-level Spanish course at a mid-sized state university in the northeast U.S. The course—Spanish for Teachers/Methodology for Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language—is designed to provide both specialized language instruction as well as pedagogical/methodological training to undergraduate Spanish majors and to graduate students of Spanish. Specifically, as outlined in the course description, the course aims to review aspects of Spanish grammar with the needs of a Spanish instructor in mind while also introducing methodological tools for teaching Spanish as a second, foreign, or additional language. It should be noted that the course is not specifically a teacher training course: The course is not a requirement for nor does it lead to teaching certification and, as will be shown in the Results section, some, but certainly not all, students who register for the course intend to pursue careers in the teaching of Spanish. Likewise, the course is a requirement of the graduate program (master and doctoral degrees) in Spanish at this university even though only some graduate students ever teach a lower-level Spanish language course as teaching assistants. Although different from more traditional LSP courses such as Spanish for Healthcare

Professionals or Business Spanish, this course aims to teach the Spanish language (as well as discipline-specific content) with the needs of learners interested in the teaching profession in mind (see Upton and Connor for a discussion of the complexity of defining LSP).

At the beginning of the semester, students were given two options for the course's final project: a more traditional, written course project or an experiential CSL project. The traditional option required students to plan and develop a complete lesson for a designated course and class session including all necessary pedagogical materials and to write an accompanying essay in which they described the choices made in the design of their lesson and how the lesson reflected and implemented the methodological and pedagogical principles studied in the course. The CSL option partnered students with a local high school Spanish class with which students volunteered on a weekly basis throughout the semester. Students who selected the CSL option also completed weekly reflections in an online blog that encouraged them to make connections between their service activities and course components, and they made a presentation regarding their service activities in relation to course content to the class at the end of the semester. Students selected their preferred final project option during the second week of class.

Participants

Of 18 students in the course, 17 consented to being a part of the current study and, of those, 13 completed all tasks, as described in a following section. The data and observations described in this manuscript, then, come from these 13 students. Of the 13 students included in the present analysis, six chose the traditional course project option and seven elected the CSL option. Table 1 summarizes relevant background information about the two groups of students, including their first languages (L1s), their curricular level (undergraduate or graduate), and whether or not they had previous and/or concurrent teaching experience.

Table 1. Summary of participant group characteristics

Group	<i>n</i>	First language	Curricular level	Previous/current teaching experience?
Traditional project	6	Spanish: <i>n</i> = 4; English: <i>n</i> = 1; Both: <i>n</i> = 1	UG: <i>n</i> = 2; G: <i>n</i> = 4	Yes: <i>n</i> = 2, No: <i>n</i> = 4
CSL project	7	Spanish: <i>n</i> = 3; English: <i>n</i> = 4	UG: <i>n</i> = 2; G: <i>n</i> = 5	Yes: <i>n</i> = 2, No: <i>n</i> = 5

Note. UG = undergraduate; G = graduate

Service Setting

All students who elected the CSL option were paired with one of two high school Spanish teachers at a local, urban public high school. Students individually arranged with these teachers a weekly schedule during which they attended and assisted with the class. All students completed a CSL contract in which they described their expectations and desires for the partnership and the semester. Partnering high school teachers also listed their expectations of the student as well as the expected activities with which the student would be involved. All students volunteered in 9th grade beginning-level Spanish classes for approximately 1 hour per week. Their duties and involvement in the course varied by student, by partnering teacher, and by week, but generally revolved around preparation of course materials, assistance with activity implementation, and one-on-one assistance of struggling students.

Study-Related Tasks

All students in the course completed a survey during the second week of the semester and again in the 13th week of the 15-week semester. The beginning-of-semester survey consisted of Likert-type and open-ended questions aimed at eliciting (1) background information, (2) student goals and plans related to language teaching, (3) students' self-reported knowledge of and confidence regarding language teaching practices, (4) students' perceptions of their Spanish language abilities, and, for those who opted or intended to opt for the CSL component, (5) information regarding students' interest in the CSL option. The end-of-the-

semester survey was largely identical to the first, except that, for (5), it elicited information regarding students' CSL experiences. The Likert-type questions are presented in Tables 2 and 3; the open-ended questions are included in the Appendix.

Students who participated in the CSL option also kept a weekly blog in which they were asked to (1) describe what they did during their service hours each week, (2) describe their reactions to what they did that week, and (3) respond to a prompt that encouraged them to reflect on a particular course-related topic or theme in relation to their service experience (based on Bringle and Hatcher's three-part reflective journals). Blog prompts included, for example, questions about lesson planning, the presence and use of interactive activities and tasks, the place of culture in the classroom, corrective feedback practices, as well as about broader themes such as the (dis)connection between the theory studied in our class and the teaching practices they observed.

Data and Analysis

The data for this study come from responses by all participating students to the two surveys described in the previous section and from blog entries written by the students who opted for the CSL component of the course. These data have been approached in an exploratory manner with the aim of assessing the impact of this CSL component on students' interest in Spanish language teaching and understanding of language teaching practices as well as on their perceived linguistic development and their overall experience in the course. The analysis focuses on two central questions:

1. Who chose to participate in the CSL option, who did not, and why?
2. Did students' perceptions of, plans for, and/or confidence in teaching change over the course of the semester? Did students' perceptions of their Spanish language abilities change over the course of the semester? Did observed changes differ for students completing the traditional project as compared to students completing the CSL project?

To answer both sets of questions, quantitative data from the Likert-scale survey responses were explored via descriptive statistical analysis. Additionally, student responses to open-ended survey questions as well as blog posts written by the students participating in CSL were analyzed qualitatively to search for common themes and reactions that can help illuminate answers to these questions.

RESULTS

A first question of interest in gauging the utility of and interest in an optional CSL component in a Spanish for Teachers course is to assess who opts to participate and why. For example, are there underlying, pre-existing characteristics that make a student more or less likely to choose to partake in a hands-on experience in a real teaching environment, and what reasons do students give for participating or choosing not to participate in CSL?

As can be observed in Table 1, in the course in question, roughly equal numbers of the students who consented to participate in this study opted for the traditional final project ($n = 6$) versus the CSL option ($n = 7$). The two groups were likewise relatively similar with regard to the distribution of students' first languages (i.e., native Spanish speakers, native English speakers, simultaneous bilinguals), students' institutional level (i.e., undergraduate vs. graduate), and students' previous or concurrent teaching experience. No clear pattern with regard to these individual characteristics emerged.

The results of the beginning-of semester survey can also provide information about the starting point of these students with regard to their desire to/interest in/plans to become a Spanish teacher, their knowledge of and confidence in language teaching, and their confidence in their own Spanish language skills. Table 2 summarizes the findings for both groups with regard to various questions related to these three overarching themes. Each item was given a rating on a scale from 1 ("Strongly disagree") to 5 ("Strongly agree").

Table 2. Beginning-of-semester averaged survey responses

Survey Question	Traditional project group	CSL project group
I am interested in becoming a Spanish teacher.	3.50 (1.61)	4.14 (1.13)
I plan to pursue teaching Spanish as a foreign language as my career.	3.83 (1.07)	3.57 (1.05)
I believe teaching languages is important.	4.67 (0.75)	5.00 (0)
I would consider becoming a Spanish teacher.	4.17 (0.90)	4.43 (0.73)
Overall interest in Spanish teaching	4.04	4.56
I am confident that I could plan an effective lesson for a Spanish class.	3.50 (0.76)	3.29 (1.03)
I am confident that I could create an effective language-learning task.	3.67 (0.75)	4.00 (0.93)
I feel comfortable providing feedback to students on their Spanish use.	3.67 (1.11)	4.29 (0.88)
I feel prepared to teach a Spanish class.	3.00 (1.16)	2.86 (1.12)
I understand how languages are learned.	3.33 (0.75)	4.00 (0.93)
I know best practices for teaching a language.	2.83 (0.37)	2.86 (0.99)
Overall teaching confidence/knowledge	3.33	3.55
I am comfortable speaking Spanish in public settings.	3.50 (0.96)	4.00 (1.20)
I am confident in my reading abilities in Spanish.	4.5 (0.76)	4.57 (0.50)
I am confident in my writing abilities in Spanish.	4.33 (0.75)	4.71 (0.45)
I am confident in my speaking abilities in Spanish.	4.17 (1.07)	4.29 (1.03)
I am confident in my listening abilities in Spanish.	4.67 (0.47)	4.29 (0.88)
Overall Spanish language abilities	4.23	4.37

As can be observed in Table 2, the two groups of students are quite similar overall in their interest in the Spanish language teaching profession, in their knowledge of and confidence with teaching methods, and in their perceptions of their Spanish language abilities. Nevertheless, the students who opted to participate in CSL had slightly higher average scores for all three broad categories: They indicated higher interest in or intention to become Spanish teachers, they expressed more knowledge of or comfort with language teaching methods and practices at the beginning of the semester, and they rated their Spanish language abilities slightly higher than did the group that opted for the traditional project with no CSL.

Students who opted for the CSL project expressed their reasons for doing so in largely similar ways in open-ended questions regarding this choice. For example, several of the students expressed the idea of using the opportunity to see what a teaching career would look like or to “try on” the job. CSL student C1 wrote², “I am interested in the service-learning option because I would love to have the experience of what it is like to teach in a Spanish classroom. I hope to become a Spanish teacher and feel that this option would help me in my career path exponentially” (Survey, Beginning of semester). In a similar vein, CSL student C3 expressed “It seems like a great opportunity to gain real world experience and maybe help me gain a better understanding if I want to teach Spanish or not” (Survey, Beginning of semester). Graduate student respondent C6 who was currently teaching wrote, “I am currently a TA and I want to learn from other teachers” and “I really want to see how Spanish is taught in High School” (Survey, Beginning of semester). However, not all students felt very strongly about trying on the teaching career.

² All quotations from learners are written as they appeared on the survey forms or in blog posts. It should be noted that many of the quotations represent second language production. Grammar, spelling, punctuation, and other errors and peculiarities have not been corrected. Due to their prevalence and the difficulty in precisely identifying and locating “errors” in L2 production, these peculiarities are also not explicitly indicated (e.g., by [sic]). Readers should be aware that all quotations have been checked for veracity and reflect students’ original written responses. When quotations are included in a non-English language, an approximate translation is provided in parentheses.

Graduate student C5 expressed choosing this project “only because I’m not very familiar with this topic” (Survey, Beginning of semester). Few students who opted for the traditional project gave reasons for not choosing the CSL option. One student (T6), however, indicated his nervousness about CSL because “You can never know what or whom to expect. Things can sometimes not be ideal” (Survey, Beginning of semester).

Arguably, the central question of this study is whether the CSL experience had an impact on students (e.g., in their desire to become a Spanish teacher, in their knowledge of and confidence in Spanish language teaching, or in their linguistic confidence). To explore this question, survey responses from the end of the semester were compared to those from the beginning of the semester to assess whether responses in any of these categories changed and by how much. Additionally, responses and changes in responses were compared for the CSL and traditional project groups. Table 3 presents average responses on the end-of-semester survey to each question for both groups and additionally presents the overall change in this response to each question for each group from the beginning-of semester survey.

Table 3. End-of-semester averaged survey responses and change since beginning of semester

Survey Question	Traditional project group	Change from beginning of semester	CSL group	Change from beginning of semester
I am interested in becoming a Spanish teacher.	3.17 (1.57)	-0.33	4.14 (0.83)	0
I plan to pursue teaching Spanish as a foreign language as my career.	3.33 (1.49)	-0.50	3.57 (1.29)	-1.10
I believe teaching languages is important.	4.83 (0.37)	0.16	5.00 (0)	0
I would consider becoming a Spanish teacher.	3.50 (1.38)	-0.67	4.29 (1.03)	-0.15

Overall interest in Spanish teaching	3.71	-0.34	4.25	-0.31
I am confident that I could plan an effective lesson for a Spanish class.	4.33 (0.75)	0.83	3.86 (1.25)	0.57
I am confident that I could create an effective language-learning task.	4.00 (1.00)	0.33	3.86 (1.36)	-0.14
I feel comfortable providing feedback to students on their Spanish use.	4.33 (0.75)	0.66	4.00 (0.93)	-0.29
I feel prepared to teach a Spanish class.	4.17 (0.90)	1.17	3.57 (1.29)	0.71
I understand how languages are learned.	4.33 (0.47)	1.00	4.14 (0.64)	0.14
I know best practices for teaching a language.	4.00 (0.82)	1.17	3.86 (0.99)	1.00
Overall teaching confidence/knowledge	4.19	0.86	3.88	0.33
I am comfortable speaking Spanish in public settings.	4.50 (0.76)	1.00	4.00 (1.31)	0
I am confident in my reading abilities in Spanish.	4.83 (0.37)	0.33	3.86 (1.25)	-0.71
I am confident in my writing abilities in Spanish.	4.67 (0.47)	0.34	4.14 (1.36)	-0.57
I am confident in my speaking abilities in Spanish.	4.83 (0.37)	0.66	4.57 (0.50)	0.28
I am confident in my listening abilities in Spanish.	4.83 (0.37)	0.16	4.00 (1.31)	-0.29
Overall Spanish language abilities	4.73	0.50	4.11	-0.26

As can be observed in Table 3, results differ between the two groups at the end of the semester and over time. For example, whereas at the beginning of the semester, the CSL group exhibited slightly higher ratings in all three broad categories, at the end of the semester, the traditional project group exhibits higher ratings

in knowledge of/comfort with teaching methods and in Spanish language abilities. Only with regard to interest in teaching Spanish does the CSL group demonstrate higher ratings than the traditional project group. Additionally, it should be noted that both groups exhibited slight decreases in ratings indicating interest in a Spanish language teaching career over the course of the semester. Looking more closely at the distribution of this decrease in ratings over the questions that comprise this section, it is interesting to note that, for the CSL group, this decrease is led by a more than 1-point drop in agreement with the statement “I plan to pursue teaching Spanish as a foreign language as my career,” whereas responses regarding general interest in teaching or belief in the importance of teaching Spanish did not show large decreases for this group. Both groups increased in their self-rated knowledge of and confidence in Spanish language teaching; only the traditional project group exhibited an increase in self-reported Spanish language abilities. The CSL group exhibited a slight decline in the rating of their Spanish language abilities between the beginning and end of the semester.

The survey’s open-ended questions as well as CSL students’ blog posts can provide additional information and can, perhaps, offer some potential explanations for the quantitative results observed in Table 3. For example, on the end-of-semester survey, students were asked whether their view of teaching Spanish changed over the course of the semester. Six out of the seven CSL students responded that it had (one student did not provide an answer), and the most common explanations of this change had to do with how students had become more aware of the complexities of language teaching. For instance, CSL student C3 wrote, “There is so much more to consider than I thought” (Survey, End of semester). And C7 expanded “Yes in the way that I am now much more aware of the work, thought, and challenges that go into teaching a class. It’s to say, theory is GREAT and exciting and makes perfect sense and then...ok, now how do we actually use it.” Four of the six traditional project students also responded that their views of teaching Spanish changed (two students did not respond to the question). Only three students offered further description of this change, but the responses received also indicated a greater appreciation for the work involved in language teaching. For example, T3 wrote, “There is so much to take in consideration than just teaching words and how

to use them” (Survey, End of semester) and T2 wrote “There is so many details that teachers have to take into consideration. It’s more complicated than what it seems” (Survey, End of semester).

Students were also asked whether their interest in teaching Spanish as a foreign language changed over the course of the semester. Again, six out of seven CSL students responded that it had (one student did not respond). Their open-ended responses to this question might help explain some of the results seen in the top section of Table 3. For a few students, the experience reinforced or even increased their interest in the profession. For example, C5 wrote, “Pienso que ahora estoy más interesada en la educación del español y como nativa hablante siento una responsabilidad de educar a otras no tan solo que se interesen por el español si no que también lo han por otras lenguas” (“I think that now I am more interested in Spanish education and as a native speaker I feel a responsibility to educate others not only those interested in Spanish but also for other languages”; Survey, End of semester). In contrast, C3 indicated that the experience convinced her that teaching Spanish was not for her. She wrote: “It was something I was unsure about pursuing, but I think the level of planning/thought that goes into teaching and the types of students I can have based on my service learning experience changed my interest for the worse” (Survey, End of semester). Finally, a third student indicated that the experience had a dual effect on her interest in language teaching: “In some ways it decreased it (realizing the challenging aspects) but in others it increased it--like, I feel there is more of a need for it rather than just something I could be good at” (C7; Survey, End of semester). Only four traditional project students responded to this question. Two reported that their interest in teaching Spanish had not changed at all over the course of the semester; both indicated they were still interested in the profession. Two students reported that their interest in teaching Spanish had changed: For one student (T5), she now viewed teaching as a potential “back-up” to her primary career plan to become a physician’s assistant. For the other student, the class gave them some pause about teaching. She wrote:

Excerpt 1: Before, I thought it would be easy to teach a class, especially being a native speaker, I didn't think it could be hard. Creating tasks and planning out lessons

made me realize the small details that we as students overlook. Before, I would consider becoming a TA, but now I feel like I would have to think about it and consider it a lot before committing. Definitely, this class changed my perspective of teaching. (T2; Survey, End of semester)

Finally, CSL students were asked what they learned from their CSL experience. Responses varied greatly, but shed some light on students' CSL experiences and their reactions to those experiences. Responses included:

Excerpt 2: That I probably do not want to teach Spanish to high-school kids. (C3)

Excerpt 3: That I want to be a teacher to challenge the often incomplete relationship between teacher and student. (C1)

Excerpt 4: My first reaction was that I learned I don't want to teach at HS level, but second reaction being the realization that what I experienced is exactly the reason why it's needed. (C7)

Excerpt 5: I learned the importance of a lesson plan and the ability for students to learn when there is a structured environment. (C4)

Excerpt 6: Aprendí que para ser maestra o profesora no se trata del simple hecho de saber una lengua si no de muchos factores externos e internos con los cuales vas a tener que lidiar en muchas ocasiones sin tener ningún tipo de experiencia o preparación. (I learned that to be a teacher or professor does not only have to do with the simple fact of knowing a language but with many external and internal factors that you will have to deal with on many occasions without having any experience or preparation.) (C5)

These responses suggest that students found the experience to be eye opening and challenging. In some cases, the CSL experience

solidified aspects of the academic course content (e.g., the importance of class structure and lesson planning) and, in others, students' learning included more personal and/or practical aspects of the teaching profession (e.g., realizations regarding the role of student-teacher relationships or of the numerous factors that can influence a classroom).

Blog responses from CSL students provide additional insight into the CSL experience and its impact on these students. Two overarching themes emerged across students and posts. First, students regularly communicated surprise about their experience and expressed that various aspects of their experiences did not always match their expectations or their own educational experiences. Toward the beginning of the semester, for example, students were initially surprised by the high school students' conduct in the class and by how little of class time appeared to be spent on teaching or learning. For instance, after her first visit to the classroom, one student wrote:

Excerpt 7: Mi primera semana en el aula fue bastante distinta de lo que me esperaba. [] High School es un instituto grande, con muchos profesores y muchos alumnos, y todo parece un poco caótico—quizás se debe a que sea el principio del semestre. Los alumnos parecían no tener interés (ni respeto) por la clase que estaban tomando, haciendo uso de cualquier cosa menos de lo que la profesora les daba. Pensaba que ir a un instituto de otro país, conocer otros métodos de enseñanza y otros niveles educativos iba a ser más fácil, pero tengo que admitir que, cuando salí de ahí, tuve una sensación agrídulce. (My first week in the classroom was quite different from what I expected. [] High School is a big high school with many teachers and students, and everything seems a bit chaotic—perhaps this is due to it being the beginning of the semester. The students did not seem to be interested in (nor have respect for) the class that they were taking, making use of anything except what the professor gave them. I thought that going to a high school in another country, getting to know other teaching methods and other levels of education would be easier, but I have to admit that, when I left there, I had a bittersweet feeling.) (C6, Blog post 2)

As this entry expresses, students were initially surprised by the dynamic at the high school and within the particular classes in which they worked. Adjusting to and getting fully involved in the CSL environment was more challenging than many students had anticipated.

As the semester progressed, students commented on their surprise regarding a lack of communicative focus in the class and a lack of real connection between what they observed and experienced in their high school classrooms and the theoretical aspects of our course. For example, student C1 wrote:

Excerpt 8: En términos generales, los temas de nuestra clase tienen una conexión con mi experiencia en [] High. Con los materiales en nuestra aula, y las situaciones en la aula de [] High, hay una conexión entre la importancia de tareas significativas y la realidad de su práctica. Pero, creo que hay una falta de conexión entre los dos aulas y cómo se enseña una lengua porque en la aula de [] High, no tengo la oportunidad de experimentar una lección en práctica. Esta experiencia ha cambiado mi perspectiva en la enseñanza de una segunda lengua porque antes, no sabía nada de las teorías o prácticas que son necesarias para enseñar eficazmente. Ahora, tengo una mente abierta con las situaciones que ocurren en un aula y con la/el maestra/o. (In general terms, the topics from our class connect with my experience in [] High. With the materials in our class, and the situations in the [] High classroom, there is a connection between the importance of meaningful tasks and the reality of their practice. But, I believe there is a lack of connection between the two classrooms and how a language is taught because in the [] High classroom, I do not have the opportunity to experience a lesson in action. This experience has changed my perspective on the teaching of a second language because, before, I did not know anything about the theories or practices that are necessary to teach effectively. Now, I have an open mind about the situations that occur in the classroom and with the teacher.) (Blog post 6)

This student communicates a feeling of disconnection between the academic course and her CSL experience even though, in a general sense, the two are related. She expresses surprise at the lack of opportunity to really experience a lesson in practice despite volunteering in a real Spanish class. Nevertheless, she also communicates that the experience has given her a greater awareness about the range of teaching contexts that exist and situations that can arise in a classroom.

A second common pattern and theme was observed in CSL participants' blog posts: their own greater confidence and comfort in the classroom. As the weeks progressed, not only did students explicitly comment on their growing confidence in their more professional, teacher-oriented role within the high school classroom, but their posts also increasingly included details about aspects of particular lessons or classroom moments that they, as teachers, might have chosen to implement differently. Around Week 5 of the experience, C1 wrote: "Hay momentos cuando no estoy seguro que estoy ayudando los estudiantes o el aula, aunque son breve. Pero, creo que mi confianza está creciendo" ("There are moments when I am not sure that I am helping the students or the classroom, even though they are brief. But I believe my confidence is increasing" Blog post 5). Likewise, in describing the fact that students spent the class period in which she volunteered one week watching a movie about the Day of the Dead, one student reflected and challenged what she observed by writing,

Excerpt 9: Creo que no se debió mostrar solo la película por 40 minutos y no desafiar el nuevo conocimiento cultural que los estudiantes iban adquirir durante la miraban la película. Esta fue una oportunidad perdida, porque no vi explicar el motivo, meta, ni la razón por que los estudiantes verían la película. (I believe that one should not just show a movie for 40 minutes and not challenge the new cultural knowledge that students acquired while watching the movie. This was a missed opportunity, because I did not see the motive, goal, nor the reason for which students were watching the movie explained.) (C2, Blog post 7)

Such detail and critical reflection demonstrate students' increasing ability to connect course concepts with their CSL

experiences even if not always through direct, positive observation. These patterns suggest increasing comfort with theoretical as well as practical aspects of teaching and indicate that students were using the CSL experience to really step into a teacher role.

DISCUSSION

This essay described the implementation of an optional CSL component in a Spanish for Teachers course for university undergraduate and graduate students. This study explored potential differences between students who elected or not to participate in CSL as well as their expressed reasons for (not) participating. It also explored similarities and differences in the relative change over the course of the semester regarding (1) interest in teaching Spanish, (2) knowledge of and confidence in teaching Spanish, and (3) (confidence in) their linguistic abilities in Spanish. Finally, it analyzed open-ended survey questions as well as blog post responses to gain a fuller picture of the impact of CSL on students' experiences in this LSP course.

Few differences were observed in the demographic characteristics between students who chose or not the CSL option. For example, similar rates of native versus non-native Spanish speakers, of undergraduate and graduate students, and of students with versus without teaching experience opted for the two different options. In terms of students' survey responses, those who opted for the CSL option expressed more interest overall in a career in Spanish teaching at the beginning of the semester indicated slightly greater knowledge of or comfort with Spanish teaching methods, and slightly more confidence in their Spanish language abilities than those who opted for the traditional project. Still, no obvious or overarching a priori differences were observed between students who elected and students who did not elect to participate in CSL.

When exploring the effect of CSL (by comparing end-of-semester survey responses between the CSL and traditional project groups), both groups exhibited a slight decline in overall interest in teaching Spanish, although it should be noted that the average interest level for the CSL group was still 4.25 (out of 5). Additionally, the drop can rather clearly be attributed to the CSL experience's role in helping some students decide that language

teaching is not their preferred career path—an outcome that was made clear in some students' open-ended responses and blog posts. The traditional project group experienced an increase in confidence in language skills, whereas the CSL group reported a slight overall decline. Perhaps somewhat surprisingly, whereas the traditional project group observed a nearly 1-point jump in their knowledge of and confidence in Spanish teaching methods, the CSL group actually showed a slight decline. This decline can perhaps be explained through the open-ended responses that indicated that one of the central lessons learned from the CSL experience was that of just how involved and complex language teaching can be. The experience was sobering for many of the students involved—many expressed a newfound recognition of the challenges and complexities of language teaching. While, for some, this decreased their interest in and desire to pursue a teaching career, for some, this strengthened their pull to the field.

Even though the quantitative survey results point to relatively few differences between the traditional and CSL groups and no clear trends regarding differentiating effects of the CSL experience, the open-ended survey responses and blog posts point to some potential important albeit subtle contributions of this experience to students' overall course experience and learning. First, the CSL experience provided crucial context for the professional focus of this LSP course. As shown in Table 1, only four students who participated in the present study had any prior or current teaching experience. For the other nine students, their knowledge of the professional context likely came mostly from their own experiences as students in Spanish language courses. For the five inexperienced CSL students, the CSL experience provided a valuable context for the specialized language as well as the pedagogical/methodological content being learned in class. Anecdotally, many undergraduate (and even graduate) students may enroll in an LSP course (e.g., due to personal interest, curricular requirements, scheduling issues, etc.) without necessarily having extensive experience in or knowledge of the field of the course. Thus, a CSL experience such as that described in the present study can provide the necessary, concrete context for the specialized language being learned in the classroom.

It was surprising that the current study's CSL students rated their Spanish linguistic abilities lower at the end of the semester than at the beginning. Nevertheless, it should be noted,

first, that no measures of actual linguistic development were taken here, and, second, that a drop in rating could be due not necessarily to the perception that one's linguistic abilities worsened, but rather to a greater awareness of the limitations of one's linguistic abilities given greater real-world experience using the language. Additionally, I would argue that the value of CSL can be in addition to or even other than that of additional language learning opportunities. It can provide students with professional and personal experiences to try on the professional identity that would require the language skills they seek in class and to explore whether they see such a career as a good fit for them. It can also provide important information about the realities of said profession and/or of differences in the realities of this profession in different contexts.

Finally, the responses described in this essay point to one additional important aspect of the experiential CSL component: that of emphasizing learning as a process (as opposed to focusing on a particular outcome), a key aspect of experiential learning more generally (Kolb). CSL students' responses indicated that, rather than necessarily clarifying or concretizing specific aspects of the academic portion of our course, the CSL experience, instead, opened their eyes to the ways in and reasons for which schools, teachers, students, contexts, days, classes, and lessons vary. The students expressed a greater understanding of the intricacies of the teaching profession and a greater awareness of the fact that, despite a desire to observe and/or implement the methodological tools discussed in our academic course, practical and immediate concerns also have to be considered and can change even the best laid plans. As one student wrote, "Esta experiencia definitivamente me permite 'humanizar' el papel del maestro" ("This experience definitely allowed me to "humanize" the role of the teacher" C7; Blog post 7). Students came away with a greater understanding of the challenges of teaching and of the ways in which the theories and language studied in an academic course can and do but might not *always* fit into a real-world experience.

CONCLUSION

By exploring the effect of an optional CSL component within this Spanish for Teachers course and comparing responses

of students who opted to participate in CSL to responses of students who opted to partake in a more traditional project, this article provides a rather unique analysis of the contribution of CSL to LSP courses. The study and analysis are not, of course, without limitations. The small sample size and a priori differences between the CSL and traditional groups reflect the realities of classroom-based research but also impede the instructiveness and generalizability of the results. Additionally, the ability to compare groups and the richness of the data could be enhanced by including, for example, firsthand observations of students during their CSL experiences, blog entries by the traditional project group (in addition to the CSL group), and/or objective measures of linguistic development. The characteristics of this particular CSL experience also present a limitation of this study that can prompt recommendations for educators planning to incorporate CSL into their Spanish for Teachers or other LSP courses in the future. This was the inaugural realization of the CSL partnership described in this study. As such (and as is likely true for all community-engaged projects), logistical and administrative details of the partnership were constantly being negotiated and adjusted. Based on the experience described herein, in future years, additional pre-service planning and coordination will be attempted to clarify the role and specify the duties of student volunteers within the high school classrooms. Additionally, as has been recommended by Lear and Abbott, taking various steps prior to and during the service period, such as communicating expectations and goals in numerous ways and at various moments during the course, can help ensure that student and community partner expectations and experiences align (see additional recommendations by Sánchez-López “Service-Learning Course Design”). For example, Pascual y Cabo et al. describe implementing an orientation at their service site involving the community partner and interested CSL students. A similar, proactive approach to preparing students and guiding their expectations by creating opportunities to observe the service environment and interact with some potential teacher and students partners prior to initiating service could arguably help to reduce some of the surprise that was communicated by CSL-participating students in their initial blog posts and to improve the chances of the experience meeting the expectations and goals of all parties involved.

The CSL option described in the present essay provided students with a hands-on experience in an urban public high school. Despite few differences observed in quantitative measures of student interest in and knowledge of/confidence in teaching Spanish or in students' self-reported language abilities between students who participated in the CSL experience versus those who did not, qualitative analyses permitted the observation of positive contributions of the CSL experience to students' learning. Students' comments regarding their learning, linguistic growth, and professional realizations during the experience point to its impact on their overall experience in the LSP course. Overall, the CSL experience appeared to challenge students personally, linguistically, and professionally and to provide an illuminating context for language skills and course material to be utilized, observed, and applied (both successfully and unsuccessfully). Students gained firsthand awareness of the complexity of the profession they were "trying on" and, through this experience, dove deeper into the process of learning the linguistic as well as technical aspects of a career in teaching Spanish.

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APPENDIX

Surveys

The Likert-type statements to which participants responded were the same on the beginning- and end-of-semester versions of the survey. These are listed in Tables 2 and 3. In what follows, the open-ended questions of the beginning- and end-of-semester surveys are provided.

Beginning-of-semester survey, open-ended questions

1. I am interested in the service-learning option because... (please describe any and all reasons that this option appeals to you).
2. I am excited about the service-learning option because...
3. I am nervous (or hesitant, or unsure) about the service-learning option because...

End-of-semester survey, open-ended questions (Questions 1-5 were presented to CSL students only)

1. What did you find valuable about your service-learning experience?
2. What did you find frustrating about your service-learning experience?
3. Were any aspects of the experience particularly challenging? Please explain.
4. What did you learn from your service-learning experience?
5. Would you recommend the service-learning option to future ASPN 403/509 students? Why/why not?
6. Did your view of teaching Spanish change over the course of the semester? Please explain.
7. Did your interest in teaching Spanish change over the course of the semester? Please explain.

A WIN-WIN: THE INTENTIONAL CULTIVATION OF RECIPROCAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LSP AND COMMUNITY PARTNERS

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Resumen: Este artículo identifica una necesidad y presenta un modelo sostenible para incorporar la integración a la comunidad en los cursos de español para fines específicos (EFE). Para combatir el descenso en la matrícula, los programas han aumentado su oferta de EFE—cursos que proporcionan relevancia y valor, igual a la integración de componentes de aprendizaje experiencial. Estos componentes contextualizan el aprendizaje experiencial y abarcan desde entrevistas informativas hasta pasantías estructuradas. El acoplamiento de estas prácticas de alto impacto requiere superar obstáculos: desembolso de recursos o establecimiento de expectativas razonables. Este modelo detalla integraciones de varias intensidades para hacer accesible la práctica a educadores independientemente de su experiencia previa y para asegurar beneficios tanto para los estudiantes como para las comunidades: una relación recíproca.

Palabras clave: español para fines específicos, modelo de aprendizaje experiencial, enseñanza en justicia criminal, competencias profesionales, diseño curricular

Abstract: This article identifies a need and presents a sustainable model for incorporating community engagement into Spanish for Specific Purposes (SSP) courses. To respond to enrollment stresses, language programs have increased offerings of SSPs which have been recognized as a pathway toward relevance and value, as has the incorporation of community engagement components. Integrating engagement opportunities into an SSP course contextualizes learning outside of the classroom and can range from informational interviews to structured internships. Marrying these high-impact practices requires overcoming obstacles, such as the outlay of resources or setting reasonable expectations. This model outlines varying intensities of integration making it accessible to educators regardless of their community engagement experience and assuring benefits for both students and community partners: a reciprocal relationship.

Keywords: Spanish for Specific Purposes, experiential learning model, Criminal Justice education, professional competencies, curricular design

THE CRISIS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN THE 21ST CENTURY

In 2007, a Modern Language Association (MLA) report emerged recommending that language programs move beyond the traditional two-tiered lower-level language study and upper-level literature programs, to reconfigure higher education language study to address the needs of the 21st century student living in a globalized society. The needs enumerated included the incorporation of translanguing and transcultural competencies at every stage of the curriculum as well as a concerted effort to promote the study of languages for students majoring in professional studies such as law, medicine and business. Translanguing and transcultural competencies prepare students not only for communicating with educated speakers in another language, but also for recognizing their own positionality related to speakers of that other language (Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages 237). Simultaneously, in an effort to attract students studying in areas outside of the dwindling liberal arts, departments have increased their beginning and intermediate Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) course offerings (Long 1). However, the essential pedagogy and effort to augment student language acquisition has yet to respond to the MLA recommendations. Sánchez-López notes in 2014, a full seven years after the MLA report, that only 39% of language departments answering a survey had made a conscious effort to incorporate any of the MLA suggestions. Yet changes must be made as enrollment in language classes continues to decline. Although there was a 6.2% increase in overall language enrollment between 2006–2009, a sharp decline in enrollment was seen between 2009–2013 (-6.7%) and between 2013–2016, enrollment in language classes in the United States declined by 9.2% (Looney and Lusin 130). These language enrollments mimic the general trend in higher education towards professional education which Delucchi noted as early as 1997 “Our review of relevant literature has revealed a historical trend toward more professional education and less study of traditional liberal arts fields throughout American higher education...the curricular trend in higher education since about 1970 has been toward studies related to work.” These findings were then reiterated by Brint et. al.'s study in 2005. The market crash and subsequent Great Recession at the end of the 21st century's first

decade accelerated and cemented the vocational nature of higher education. A concurrent demand for institutional accountability (ROI) and the rise of assessment and standardization has also fed the employability expectations of students and their family members regarding what should be achieved from a college education. In order to reinstate and to communicate the role language education plays in an undergraduate's education and development, language departments need to consciously and explicitly incorporate the high impact practices which meet the competency demands of employers, ultimately providing undergraduates with the tools they need in a global marketplace.

Language departments have faced this evolving reality in a variety of ways, reflecting stances ranging from denial to risk-taking innovation. Denial of these developing trends is demonstrated in the continued preeminence of the traditional fields of literature and linguistics in foreign language departments. While historically these disciplines have functioned as the core medium through which foreign languages are studied and acquired, their relevance does not resonate with student and parent concerns for employability. Alternatively, other departments seek to boost enrollment through forging new paths. The expansion of online education, the proliferation of short-term study abroad programs, and even the inclusion of courses taught in English are all strategies departments have utilized in an attempt to fight the ebbing tide of students in their courses. While these initiatives may provide attractive options to students, they fall short both in directly addressing the challenge of reconciling foreign language study with professional prospects, and in highlighting the natural intersection of the two domains.

This article purports to present a model for addressing the obstacles inherent in integrating the high-impact practice of community engagement into LSP courses. After identifying the acute need for innovative practices in foreign language education stemming from the mandate to attract and prepare students for the global stage, this paper will address the challenges facing faculty, as well as the benefits for the primary stakeholders: the community, students, faculty and the institution. In order to mitigate these challenges, this paper first outlines oft-overlooked preliminary steps that create the infrastructure to address unforeseen obstacles, and to ensure a successful semester regardless of surprises. Moving forward, this article presents a

model that allows faculty, whether new to or experienced with community engagement, to integrate this high-impact practice meaningfully to a degree that aligns with their capacity, yet meets their learning outcomes. This model uniquely places primacy on the community's needs, with a series of steps which stem from an initial dialogue, assuring that the community has a voice in identifying these needs, then assessing the efficacy of the relationship, and finally debriefing the semester; thus, even new faculty members deepen their ties with the community and develop their ability to incorporate community engagement. Three diverse courses illustrate the varying degrees of integration of community engagement: (1) Spanish for Criminal Justice and Social Services, (2) a module for Immigration and Education, and (3) Spanish Internship and Service Learning. Lastly, a discussion on the feasibility of this model, regardless of institutional support, reinforces the degree to which faculty agency can establish and maintain long-term reciprocal relationships with community partners, furthering student outcomes and meeting community needs.

TWO CURRICULAR STRATEGIES TO COMBAT THE CRISIS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDIES

As a direct response to the economic realities of low enrollment and the changing landscape of higher education, tactical approaches have emerged that both reposition foreign language proficiency as the key to a competitive advantage in a globalized workforce and intertwine language study with professional-specific content knowledge and skills: (1) the development and expansion of courses in LSPs, and (2) the inclusion of community engagement. LSP is an interdisciplinary field of foreign language education that marries specialized, professional content and language acquisition. Hallmarks of LSP programs frequently include courses for professions such as medicine, business and legal studies. Despite a presence of LSPs in the language curriculum, data indicate that in the years following the economic crisis of 2008, the field had not yet responded by an increase in departments offering LSP courses, with over a third of language departments not offering these courses (Long and Uzcinski 182). This does not suggest, however, that the field has remained static. The findings of Long and

Uzcinski's survey do indicate a diversification of offerings in LSPs since 1990, suggesting that departments are finally addressing the varying needs and demands of both students and the professional markets they are preparing to enter.

The inclusion of community engagement or service learning elements is another strategy some departments have turned to in order to react to student needs and demands. However, due to the complex nature of community engagement, the capacity to include such an element continues to be dependent upon highly motivated faculty in any given department. Still, the courses not only proffer myriad personal, academic and career benefits to the students, but also strengthen the relevance of the course and its home department within the domains of the university, the immediate community and the global network. The importance of community engagement cannot be overstated. Community engagement or service learning embedded into a Spanish course invites and demands that students access, meaningfully, all of the skills that their language courses have been preparing them for, from communicating clearly with supervisors and community members, to listening carefully and decoding meaning. In this real-life setting, the most fundamental of language acquisition strategies—circumlocution and interpretation—become highly desirable competencies. Thus, explicitly combining the rigorous and content-driven LSP course with the dynamic, tangible and cerebral demands of community engagement results in a student equipped to take on any challenge in the workforce, locally or globally. In today's world in which societal and parental pressures urge students to select courses that contribute to a certificate, program or degree, creating a presentable employable package, the LSP community engagement course bestows both the external rewards easily noted on a CV or *résumé* as well as the invaluable, internal benefits which result in future success.

THE HIGH-IMPACT ROLE OF COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT IN LSP COURSES

In 2014 Sánchez-López recognized and assessed the natural pairing of LSP and service learning, and calculated that either an internship or service learning component appears in 58% of Spanish for specific purpose (SSP) programs. The required completion of a service learning component is significantly lower,

at 32%. This information indicates a clear presence of service learning in LSP courses, specifically SSP; however, it also suggests significant opportunities both for expansion and enhanced integration of service learning into SSP curricula. Sánchez-López points out that these percentages also indicate that a significant portion of programs either do not include service learning or provide it as an option for students.

Given the innumerable studies on the benefits of community engagement in higher education which explore the personal, social, academic and cognitive development of students and the indisputable success of LSPs in the language curriculum, the lack of more widespread intentional development of LSP community engagement courses may seem surprising (Butin; Eyster and Giles; Donahue and Plaxton-Moore; Felten and Clayton). However, the challenges associated with any community engagement course must be addressed and overcome, not only by a single faculty member, but by a department in order to establish a frequently offered, high quality LSP community engagement course. There are three frequently stated challenges in realizing this. The first is that institutions may be reluctant to commit to the community; this commitment could take the form of fiscal or human resources, or an assurance of a sustainable relationship, but without the backing of an institution, the sole weight of the relationship depends upon faculty. This imbalance between the stated goals of the institution (student learning and success) and what the involved parties need; the community partner (long-term fulfillment of their mission) and the faculty (incorporation of high-impact practices and a manageable workload) may lead to an interested faculty member abandoning the practice and returning to the known and predictable on-campus curriculum. The capacity to cope with unpredictability represents the second major challenge to the LSP community engagement model. Grant funded or government funded community partners are often stretched to their limit in their infrastructure and an additional responsibility, even one which could facilitate the work, may not be a feasible addition. Alternatively, an established relation with a community organization may vanish when the contact individual leaves the position, the grant money ceases to come in, the organization restructures or the burden of the students' presence outweighs the benefits. Confronted by the need to establish new connections or to rely on a new, unknown partner,

it is not uncommon for faculty to determine that the demands are too great, and the practice is scrapped. The final stakeholder in the course, the students, represents the third challenge. The range of students enrolled in language classes can both delight and terrify faculty and community partners in a community engagement environment. Unlike the highly structured classroom in which all partners understand the implicit rules of comportment and roles, service-learning places students in unfamiliar contexts performing non-scripted or unrecognizable tasks. Students may enter this new environment with fears, anxieties, prejudices and expectations that impact their ability to learn and function, and they may encounter situations which provoke stress or flight. The community organization must be willing to work with all the students of a class, not just selected and vetted students, and this expansiveness requires profound trust and clear communication from all involved parties. In spite of the above-stated challenges, the value of the students' personal, linguistic and academic growth necessitates an increase in the number of LSP community engagement courses available to students and an inquiry into viable, long-term strategies to overcome the inherent challenges.

THE PLANNING OF AN LSP ENGAGEMENT COURSE: INITIAL CONSIDERATIONS

In the preliminary stage, to develop a meaningful LSP engagement course, community partners must be identified and brought on board, and truly reciprocal relationships must be established so that the engagement is integrated into the curriculum design through learning outcomes, assessments and reflections. A reciprocal relationship must, perforce, benefit all stakeholders, moving the relationship from a personal connection into an institutional necessity (norm). The higher education institution must gain: positive recognition, student growth, room for faculty scholarship and consistent collaboration. The community organization's primary criterion for a healthy relationship must be that the resource investment in the collaboration provide benefits that outweighs costs. The benefits may include: increased knowledge *of* the community by outsiders, increased knowledge *about* the community through research efforts, increased capacity to support the community through labor hours and ultimately, the forging of continual and

progressively deeper relationships allowing for the development of more complex projects to meet community needs.

The initial impetus for developing a reciprocal relationship must come from aligning the LSP course goals that can be fomented through community engagement with the concrete needs of community organizations. Once the course's learning outcomes are determined, the innumerable iterations of community engagement can serve to open a dialogue with several community organizations in order to empower the organizations. This dialogue paves the way for a creative negotiation, resulting in benefits for both parties and solidifying how students will interact with the organization. Once the "what - what students will do" is determined, the "how" will follow. The initial implementation of the engagement is often messy, chaotic and unpredictable, but through appropriate student preparation and communication with the organization, many of the solutions to challenges can be addressed beforehand, again strengthening the relationship and the commitment to everyone's success. Although every institution's context will differ, a quick summary of the experience at a large public institution will illuminate areas of which to be aware. The following table enumerates these areas as determined by a qualitative analysis of community engagement successes and failures in multiple LSPs.

Table 1. Potential challenges to successful community engagement implementation

	Challenges for students	Challenges for instructors / institutions	Challenges for organizations
1. Student apathy at site		X	X
2. Student attendance		X	X
3. Lack of supervision at site	X		
4. Lack of support at site	X	X	
5. Lack of structure at site	X	X	
6. Interpersonal Problems	X	X	X
7. Student costs (transportation, clearances, time)	X		

Through pinpointing and ultimately predicting potential complications for all parties involved, faculty can take preventative measures to both avoid these challenges and then intervene if in fact these challenges do arise. The lists below present a series of strategies organized as either preventative steps or direct interventions. A clear grasp of these options, their functions and their context are key in ensuring that the community engagement experience is optimally executed for students, instructors and organizations. The notion of reciprocal relationships, beneficial for both students and organizations, hinges on the minimization and management of complications.

Preventions:

- A student contract co-created with instructor, students and community organization
- Regular student reflections integrated into coursework, shared with the site
- A pre-determined description for the role and position of the student in the organization
- Pre-engagement trainings
- Enumeration of student costs in course description and syllabus
- Mid-semester follow-up with site supervisor
- End of semester debriefing and pre-planning for following semester

Interventions:

- An email between supervisor and professor with student copied
- A one-on-one meeting with the supervisor
- A one-on-one meeting with the professor
- A meeting with both supervisor and professor
- The implementation of a probationary period

The common thread uniting both the preventions and interventions is the active, frequent and targeted communication between the site personnel and the faculty contact. The co-construction of the student engagement and the parameters guiding it, as well as the explicit and articulated partnership between the organization and the university not only ensures

greater success for all stakeholders, but moves the arrangement from service to engagement as defined by Frabutt et al., "engagement is characterized by reciprocity, bi-directional relationships and mutual respect between institutions of higher learning and the communities" (105). A reciprocal, bi-directional relationship is one that is more likely to continue.

Nevertheless, both university settings and their policies and community organizations are dynamic institutions, subject to capricious change, and what may seem to be the most stable of collaborations can evaporate, frustrating and threatening a well-established LSP community engagement course. Thus, using a replicable model in the initial design of the course and treating the maintenance of the course as analogous to the time dedicated to following trends in any given field, allows the course to constantly evolve, yet can counterpose both predictable and unforeseeable changes.

PRESENTATION OF THE MODEL

A replicable LSP community engagement course model is one in which a language department can offer the course consistently, preserving the engagement component, with multiple instructors and various community organizations, adapting to changing circumstances, while retaining both the integration of the high-impact practice and the reciprocal relationship with the community partner. The model offered below for establishing, maintaining and optimizing reciprocal relationships between LSP community engagement courses and community organizations recognizes the demands and time pressures on students, faculty and community organizations, the limits imposed by policies and circumstances and further upends the notion that the students' learning exists in function to the service they perform. In the following model, student learning, personal and academic growth, linguistic development and career preparation, progress even when ideal conditions (variability in target language use or responsibilities not directly related to the LSP) lag.

The model presented in this article incorporates community engagement into LSP courses in a variety of modalities recognizing the needs and potential benefits to all stakeholders: students, faculty, organizations and institutions. The

model is divided into two components in order to address both the theoretical and practical concerns inherent in a higher-ed community partnership. The first component initiates the planning phase, providing the structure to define and concretize how community engagement would add value to the course. This component includes: (1) identifying linguistic and professional outcomes (2) purposefully integrating multiple interdisciplinary methodologies (3) incorporating meaningful experiential components (4) and devising relevant reflection components for students. The practical thrust of the second component allows for the realization of the goals identified in the first component. The model evolved from initial efforts to improve outcomes for all stakeholders. Once established the model was shared with other colleagues to expand capacity, better meeting students' and community partners' needs.

To illustrate the model's versatility, it will be mapped onto three SSP courses with distinct levels and manifestations of community engagement: Spanish for Criminal Justice and Social Services, a module for Spanish for Education in an intensive language semester and a Spanish Internship course. These case studies will demonstrate that this model is a powerful tool not only for its role in establishing impactful relationships, but also for the flexibility required for different learning contexts. For example, this model recognizes the need for multiple stages of student engagement, ranging from community ethnographies to student-led development and teaching of ESL courses. Each stage can offer different kinds of knowledge and contribute to the forging of deeper understandings. As Hoyt notes, the stages are continuums that ultimately lead to “[a]n epistemology of reciprocal knowledge, realized through a two-way network of human relationships, [allowing] faculty, students, civic leaders and residents to experiment” (86). Because reciprocal knowledge and different levels of engagement are intrinsic to the model, a second result of this flexibility, and in part a consequence of the possibility of multiple stages of engagement, is that the model increases the feasibility of teaching an LSP course for diverse faculty interested in taking on community engagement, ranging from an educator experienced in engagement to a faculty member nascent to experiential learning.

By and large, both scholarship and practice pertaining to service learning intimate that there is an inherent assumption that

students in a "service learning" context are making a positive contribution to the organization or community with which they are involved. The label itself suggests this. Institutions, instructors and even students, often with the most altruistic of motives, are quick to identify the variety of ways they provide a "service". Whether students are teaching English to seniors or interpreting in a medical clinic, it is too frequently assumed that the net result is a positive contribution. What is not taken into consideration is the cost borne by the organizations and communities due to the intermittent frequency or potentially superficial contact with which students and faculty work in LSP community service learning contexts. The model presented here is unique in that it takes into consideration not only the needs of the course and students, but also the needs, limitations and demands of the community partners. All parties make an investment and receive a return. This is essential in a context in which non-profits are already working with limited and strained resources. For example, non-profits constantly shape decisions based on limitations for funds, space, personnel, time and even supplies. These factors, though alluded to, are seldom incorporated into earlier models for community service learning (Sánchez-López "Service-Learning Course Design"). The framework offered here begins to rectify this issue and creates the groundwork for a paradigm of partnership that not only recognizes this position for non-profits, but rather aims to ensure that participating students reduce this strain and ultimately support the organization in achieving its goals.

The model for establishing reciprocal relationships is first and foremost a practical guide to initiating and ensuring sufficient bi-directional benefits from the experience. The model has two parts. Part one consists of a summary of the steps needed to integrate best practices into language and community engagement classes and then synthesizes the steps to depict what realistic outcomes would look like in an LSP community engagement course. Part two is a series of concrete steps, applicable to any location, institution, language-level and level of instructor experience with community engagement.

PART ONE: CONSIDERATIONS FOR CONCEPTUALIZATION

Identify Linguistic and Professional Outcomes

As foreign-language instructors, a primary learning outcome must inevitably be the development of student skills in the target language. This development has been understood, reasonably so, to require maximum input and output in the target language in a variety of settings, from the classroom to the community to study abroad. Faculty and student expectations when making arrangements for students to engage with community partners is that the target language will be the language of communication of all parties and that the students, *de facto*, will be immersed in the target language. However, community organizations working with non-English dominant populations adapt to their community's fluid language use. In addition to the use of English, community members often speak highly non-standard varieties, and regularly code-switch, contrasting greatly to language input students receive in the classroom. In this context, a valid and necessary outcome for students is to describe, without evaluative judgment or prejudice, the linguistic reality of the population with which they are working. Beyond this, to be effective communicators, this situation necessitates that students utilize a range of communicative skill sets including the target language, their native language, culturally informed pragmatics and a degree of intercultural competence. LSP courses, by definition, seek to prepare students for employment in specific fields. Being aware of what language use looks like in any given professional environment is critical to student understanding and eventually competent, effective communication. American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages' (ACTFL) guiding principles in their mission statement explicitly indicate the broad-mindedness that must come to bear on understanding linguistic outcomes: ("Opening Statement"):

- Participate in face-to-face interactions via technology, internships and volunteer opportunities in the community.
- Apply their competence in a new language to their career and personal goals, broadening their thinking beyond self-serving goals.

- Become more adept in understanding diverse cultural perspectives and their own identity.

Thus, a primary step in identifying linguistic outcomes for an LSP course is recognizing what can be achieved in the classroom and on site, and maximizing the student progress in both.

A review of the 2015 AACU literature on employers' needs also indicates the primacy of liberal arts outcomes and "soft skills". A rigorous curriculum which demands that students be observant of all input and careful in their output, and one in which every interaction enriches students' epistemology and synthesizes previous learning and present experience, hones the knowledge and proficiencies the 21st century marketplace needs. The following outcomes and skills, mentioned by more than 70% of surveyed employers include: problem solving; understanding of democratic institutions; civic knowledge, skills and judgment; intercultural skills and knowledge of societies outside the United States; the ability to communicate orally; work in teams; write effectively; analyze and above all; to apply both knowledge and skills to the real world.

By recognizing at the outset that less than ideal conditions reflect the workplace, these realities can be incorporated into every lesson, assessment and reflection in the course. For example, helping students draw explicit connections between the skills they have acquired in the process of their language acquisition (such as circumlocution, clear writing and close listening) to the demands of the new context, deepens not only language skills but also a student's awareness of the transferability of those skills.

Integrate Purposefully Multiple Interdisciplinary Methodologies

By definition, LSP courses approach course design from an interdisciplinary lens. By interweaving theory and practice from fields of language acquisition and other disciplines such as business, health care, criminal justice etc., there is an effectively automatic interdisciplinarity, which has even been lauded as a valuable characteristic of the LSP field. Although any degree of drawing together different fields is impactful and reflective of the varied nature of the world outside of academia, the reality is that

the inherent interdisciplinary nature of LSPs is superficial, and does not optimally promote learners to cultivate the diverse tools and skill sets they need to truly marry language study and their diverse professional pathways. For example, in an SSP for health care, learners enhance their control of specific structures while learning vocabulary and even general content pertaining to different topics in health care. While it is impossible to deny the inclusion of these two fields, they too often serve as tools to cursorily view and see the other, resulting in a lack of depth into either domain. In order to maximize the LSP community engagement experience, this model moves beyond a casual overlap and proposes a conscious and purposeful integration of multiple interdisciplinary methodologies. The term *purposeful* is key in this description, and contrasts with the *automatic* inclusion of different areas by building on relationships with specialists in relevant fields and constructing course designs and components around their input, resources and perspectives. Going beyond frequent LSP practices, which simply tie together language and relevant, yet basic professional content, this model truly integrates distinct disciplines as tools for realizing course outcomes and preparing students to consciously and effectively use multiple discipline-specific frameworks in an effective way, impacting all of their coursework, including the community engagement components. This approach champions a literal and academic dialogue with units in the higher education institution, often with professionals in fields that may not appear at first to be logical collaborators. Although additional case studies will be explored below, the SSP, Spanish for Health Professions exemplifies the multidisciplinary framework in the course design. Despite the focused content of the course, the reality is that health care is a field approached by a variety of professions and backgrounds ranging from health care providers to advertising agents. During the planning stages of the course, faculty from a range of departments were consulted and included to shape a holistic and diverse multidisciplinary component of the course, reflective of the diversity of the student experience and interests. Naturally, this included conversations with the university's College of Public Health, but also resulted in surprising, yet valuable interactions with the School of Communications and even distinct departments within the College of Liberal Arts. This course looked to logical, but non-traditional directions for enriching the degree of

multiperspectivism in the course and found valuable methodologies from the fields of anthropology, urban studies, sociology and psychology. In the context of Spanish for Health Professions, anthropology provided a solid theoretical foundation for student ethnographies of the communities with which they were engaging. The lens of urban studies utilized data mining techniques from mapping to calculate the location and density of clinics and hospitals, assessing access to health care for individuals in this community. Statistical and survey-driven strategies that inform sociology also shed light on the health care experience of the community. Finally, cognitive psychology provided insights into varying issues that intersect with health care ranging from factors that impact patient learning and understanding of information to how the immigrant experience can affect patient and health care provider relationships. All of these components shape student course work and experiences with and in the community.

Although the inclusion of these elements for all students would theoretically be ideal, in practice it represents the overextension of course objectives and student time and energy when placed into the context of other assignments, course materials and community engagement. As a response, the model takes the purposeful inclusion of interdisciplinary methodologies and utilizes them to allow a degree of personalization in the course. This strategy not only recognizes the diversity of interests that students bring with them to a course, but ultimately affords them agency in applying different lenses to the health care context. For example, a final research paper requires students to explore an aspect relevant to their community engagement experience utilizing three distinct methodologies.

There are numerous benefits to allowing students to personalize their learning experience. In part, it expands student exposure to a diversity of ideas. Not only are learners potentially examining various topics, but the ability to select different perspectives injects the project with variation, ensuring that no two projects are the same. This variation creates the perfect information gap for a final, professional presentation. Since not only topics, but frameworks are different in each presentation, every student is positioned to interact with new information in new ways, ultimately enhancing the project's value for everyone, not just the individual student. Additionally, this component

highlights connections to coursework for students who have experience in other disciplines. Often, students in Spanish courses are enrolled in programs in different departments, frequently pairing their Spanish courses with other majors or minors. Providing these structured opportunities for the incorporation of interdisciplinary methodologies simultaneously demonstrates the relevance of Spanish to other contexts and the relevance of both Spanish and other disciplines to contexts outside of academia, specifically in relation to their interactions with communities and community organizations. Since this model allows students to utilize and build on previously existing knowledge and skills, they can engage in the course with greater depth and expertise.

Incorporate Meaningful Experiential Components

Once the outcomes and the multidisciplinary methodologies are established, the penultimate step is to incorporate experiential components into the course. To reiterate the scholarship previously mentioned on community engagement learning, every phase and level of engagement can transform student and community experiences; thus, a range of opportunities to engage allows faculty, students and organizations at varying stages to meaningfully interact. At its core “... experiential learning means learning from experience or learning by doing. Experiential education first immerses learners in an experience and then encourages reflection about the experience to develop new skills, new attitudes, or new ways of thinking” (Lewis and Williams 5). This rather obvious definition belies the infinite ways in which students in an LSP community engagement course can experience and engage with the world around them. Drawing from the characteristics that Chapman et al. enumerate for a course component to be considered experiential, a selection of LSP course activities has been designed to provide students with the opportunity to apply their classroom learning outside the university setting and to contemplate and evaluate what they have learned. Salient features when incorporated in an LSP course would allow it to be designated community engagement. These include: the explicit connection between course content and the experience, intentional discussion and writing prompts to help students to understand the experience in a larger framework, and the fostering of meaningful relationships. These features augment

the learning that takes place when a student is outside of familiar contexts (Chapman et al. 243). These components can take the form of several smaller incursions into the community, each one adding to the body of student knowledge, or a semester-long project, be it research or direct service. Even when a course does not permit a semester-long project or an organization does not have the service capacity for a large number of students, the following experiential learning pedagogy may be introduced and completed in two to three weeks. These examples incorporate the previously mentioned salient features and meaningfully engage the entire class. The connection between course content and the experience can be highlighted through focused student research about a local community using news and data sources. Intentional discussion would dissect previous student conceptions and compare them to researched findings. Developing a meaningful relationship could take place by assigning students ethnographies, allowing them to interact with community members in a respectful, open-minded and objective way. In another iteration, students could engage the community through interviews in which the question topics are co-created by the class, based on their subject and the community.

Thus, during this module, the course content is comprised of the community engagement experience through the explicit connections, intentional pre and post interview discussion, and the interview itself. A third, yet not final variation results in a tangible product for the community. Students are assigned to investigate resources relevant to the community within the course topic framework (health, criminal justice, urban studies, education, etc.). For this component, students investigate the availability of resources, the community's knowledge of resources, and resource accessibility (location, language, childcare). Working with community partners, students identify the most optimal approach to increasing accessibility and compile this information in the target language and English and then share the tangible product, resource guide, with community organizations. Each one of these components encapsulates the relevance of the students' language and academic skills and what that might look like in a professional setting. The artifact or the product from endeavors such as these also opens the door to more extensive connections such as those found in more traditional service learning approaches. Historically, service learning has been understood to involve a

lengthier relationship between the university and the community, and ample literature has been devoted to how to assure the success of that experience. Sánchez-López correctly points out that experiential learning, as defined by David Kolb, and service learning share many of the same methodologies and outcomes (385). An application of Kolb's experiential learning theory criteria to a sample LSP service course demonstrates how this theory can simplify and deepen the steps needed to maximize student realization of outcomes. The table below suggests one way in which Kolb's four-stage process can map onto an LSP service course.

Table 2. Kolb's four-stage process mapped onto LSP service course

Kolb	LSP service course example
Concrete Experience:	Tutoring writing literacy to children whose first language may be Spanish, English or both.
Reflective Observations:	Reflecting on how language is used and decided. What language do the children use with the tutor, to discuss school, to speak to their parents.
Abstract conceptualization: Modification of previous concepts or new idea	Considerations on language and power or prestige, educational systems, context, language competencies.
Active experimentation: Testing of hypothesis	Active observation of "new" conceptualization. Students focus on their own use of language, thus, advancing in self-awareness, pragmatics and language choice.

Data from a 2014 Gallup poll highlight that college graduates are two-times more likely to be engaged in the workplace if they had had a job or an experience that allowed them to apply what they were learning in the classroom (Gallup). The key to this outcome lies in student articulation of the connection between theory and practice and the students' recognition of their learning gains.

Devise Relevant Reflection Tasks for Students

Often considered the culminating activity in any experience, reflection is indisputably the glue which binds experience to learning. In the present model's conceptualization of LSP community engagement, however, reflection partners with experience from the commencement of the course. Before even beginning an experiential component, a service or an engagement, having students articulate, in writing, their current perspectives and emotions, serves to create the baseline for transformative learning. Mezirow clarifies that reflection must take into account presuppositions and assumptions (2). By having students state and examine both presuppositions and assumptions, alongside the experience or service, the complexities of language, language use, interpersonal dynamics, the workplace and the myriad other competing elements of an experience come into focus. Thus, students can deepen their reflection and analysis with each subsequent writing, inviting students to consider Butin's critical questions on the nature of service learning and pedagogy and the role they play in the community-university relationship. "How is knowledge created and by whom? What is the 'usefulness,' if any, of disciplinary knowledge? What is the role of higher education in a liberal democracy? What is the role, moreover, of students, faculty and institutions in their local and global communities" (Butin 8)?

PART 2: CONCRETE STEPS TO IMPLEMENTATION

Absent from much of the discussion is the recent scholarship on community engagement which questions the academy's focus on student learning as the preponderant outcome from the collaboration. Nicole Nicotera cites O'Meara and Rice to underscore both the need for a shift in focus to "...genuine collaboration [in order] that the learning and teaching be multidirectional and the expertise shared" (28) and to emphasize the dangers of a simplistic understanding of service learning in order to move "beyond the expert model that often gets in the way of constructive university-community collaboration ... to move beyond outreach ... to go beyond 'service' with its overtones of noblesse oblige" (28). Embedded within the following six concrete steps is a collaborative core which aspires to cement the

bi-directionality of the relationship, regardless of the instructional faculty, the student body or the community organization's contact.

Preliminary Steps Before Reaching Out to Organizations

In order to have a more focused, productive meeting within the time constraints of the community organization, faculty must thoroughly prepare the following steps.

1) Revisit potential linguistic and professional outcomes indicated in pre-planning stage from this list. Establish and identify multiple learning outcomes which could be met through community engagement within any given organization.

2) Identify student preparation for the course: language level, academic year, previous contact with the targeted community, practical issues such as class size, transportation, student availability—are they working students, etc.

3) Brainstorm concrete tasks for students ranging from observation (ethnographies, data searches) and service (labor fulfilling stated organizational need) to research for and with the community (needs assessments, focus groups, etc.). Consider how these tasks could be assessed.

4) Research organizations: their mission, hours, location, staff, capacity.

5) Reach out to multiple organizations and set-up face-to-face meetings on site, with two supervisors if possible.

6) Attend the face-to-face meeting prepared to listen and compromise:

6.1) Ask the community organization about their needs, their mission, what they would like the students to learn from the community. Inquire about their capacity, both in numbers and staff, to work with you.

6.2) Inquire about past collaborations with the university or students to have a complete understanding of their prior experience and their present expectations.

6.3) Negotiate with the community organization about what the students can do that both meets stated course learning outcomes and organizational goals.

- 6.4) Determine from the outset time commitments and specifications.
- 6.5) Establish with the organization a timeline for the engagement, from pre to post-semester:
 - i. When will students be informed about organizations and time involved? When will the organization know how many students to expect?
 - ii. Estimated start date with organization bearing in mind: mandatory trainings, clearances, etc.
 - iii. Plan check-in dates with the site, factoring in the ebb and flow of the organization's time and responsibility.
 - iv. Choose a date for completion of student responsibilities both in terms of time and duties.
- 6.6) Summarize, in writing, the meeting. Include the plan with as many known details as possible (estimated number of students, available time-slots at organization, etc.). Share the document with the organization to assure that both parties are in agreement.

Repeat with an additional organization bearing in mind that the learning outcomes, tasks and particulars may differ. Following these steps creates opportunities for LSP students to participate in community engagement, while at the same time offers agency to the organization in ensuring the interaction is supportable, sustainable and reciprocal.

The implementation of the above model, both the conceptualization segment and the concrete steps, are illustrated through three case studies in the following tables. Each case study highlights a unique course or portion of one in which the manifest goals, those most apparent to students, are nuanced language acquisition outcomes developed in a non-classroom environment.

Table 3. The planning phase through case studies

	Spanish for the Professionals in Criminal Justice	Program Module:	Internship
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	and Social Services	Immigration and Education	
Identify linguistic and professional outcomes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use and retain vocabulary related to policing, lawyering and social services • Practice Spanish and cultural sensitivity in a variety of real-world situations • Translate a variety of documents used in law and social service settings • Practice interpretation in law and social service intake settings • Communicate effectively with the Spanish-speaking population • Learn and use strategies that facilitate communication in any language • Investigate, assess and present research on language and access within the criminal justice or social services systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use and retain vocabulary related to immigration, law, asylum and educational services • Practice Spanish and cultural sensitivity in a variety of real-world situations • Identify challenges and resources for accessing educational resources • Practice strategies that make education effective • Recognize the impact of socioeconomic factors in the educational experience of immigrant communities • Support organization educational initiatives • Communicate effectively with the Spanish-speaking population • Learn and use strategies that facilitate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Articulate the history that factored into the presence of differing, local Spanish-speaking populations • Practice Spanish and cultural sensitivity in a variety of real-world situations • Work with internship site to identify gaps in resources • Translate or create relevant documents • Explain diverse Hispanic/ Latinx perspectives and cultural contexts of the site population • Communicate effectively • Learn and use strategies that facilitate communication in any language • Strengthen academic Spanish reading and writing and

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognize violations of Title VI and formulate solutions • Summarize research around the effects of being a non-native speaker in different situations 	<p>communication in any language</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investigate, assess and present research on language and access for immigrants within the education system • Summarize research around the effects of being a non-native speaker in different situations 	<p>professional oral skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sight-translate high frequency documents • Recognize one's interpretation limits • Determine when a qualified interpreter is required • Access research relevant to the site, analyze it relative to the experience and community perspectives
Integrate purposefully multiple interdisciplinary methodologies.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Latin American & Latinx Studies • Linguistics • Sociology • Anthropology • Business 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • History • Political Science • Gender Studies • Literature in Spanish • Education and Literacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public Health • Public Policy • Latinx Literary Studies • Sociolinguistics • Latin American Studies
Incorporate meaningful experiential components.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ethnography • Site visits to immigration-focused organizations • Translation for local law clinics • Interpretation at local law clinics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ethnography • Interpretation for parent-teacher conferences • Tutoring in after school education programs • Program planning and design for after school and 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research on neighborhoods using local Spanish language periodicals • Intensive time commitment to site • Collaboration with the site to fulfill needs

		summer programs	for incoming interns <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Final report on the role of students in the community site
Reflections	Reflections which spiral, beginning with student assumptions and presuppositions, progressing according to student epistemology and concluding with the nature of university service learning and community	Reflections which spiral, beginning with student assumptions and presuppositions, progressing according to student epistemology and concluding with the nature of university service learning and community	Reflections which spiral, beginning with student assumptions and presuppositions, progressing according to student epistemology and concluding with the nature of university service learning and community

Table 4. The practical steps in case studies

	Spanish for the Professionals in Criminal Justice and Social Services	LASS Module: Immigration and Education	Internship
Establish which course learning outcomes could potentially be met by community engagement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use and retain vocabulary related to policing, lawyering and social services Practice Spanish and cultural sensitivity in a variety of real-world situations Translate a variety of documents used 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use and retain vocabulary related to immigration, law, asylum and educational services Practice Spanish and cultural sensitivity in a variety of real-world situations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Practice Spanish and cultural sensitivity in a variety of real-world situations Work with internship site to identify gaps in resources Translate or create

	<p>in law and social service settings</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Practice interpretation in law and social service intake settings • Communicate effectively with the Spanish-speaking population • Learn and use strategies that facilitate communication in any language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Practice strategies that make education effective • Work with community organization to support educational initiatives • Communicate effectively with the Spanish-speaking population • Learn and use strategies that facilitate communication in any language 	<p>relevant documents</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain diverse Hispanic/Latinx perspectives and cultural contexts of the site population • Communicate effectively • Learn and use strategies that facilitate communication in any language • Recognize one's interpretation limits and determine when a qualified interpreter is required
<p>Identify student preparation for the course: language level, academic year, previous contact with the targeted community, practical issues such as class size, transportation, student availability (are they</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Junior • Intermediate mid to native speakers • Basic contact with the community • 20 students maximum • Moderately accessible through public transportation • Large percentage of students work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Freshman to senior • Novice high to advanced low • None to significant contact with the community • 30 - 45 students • Some sites easily accessible; other sites require a time investment and transfers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Juniors and seniors • Advanced-low to native speakers • None to significant contact with the community • 10 - 15 students • Some sites easily accessible through walking or

<p>working students, etc.).</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fixed 17-credit class schedule • Large percentage of students work 	<p>public transportation; other sites require a time investment and transfers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student commitment to 10 hrs./week
<p>Brainstorm concrete tasks for students ranging from observation and service to research for and with the community.</p> <p>Consider how these tasks could be assessed for student learning.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ethnography • Site visits to immigration-focused organizations • Translation for local law clinics • Interpretation at local law clinics • Prison tutoring • Volunteer work at victim service agencies • Police ride-alongs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ethnography • Interpretation for parent-teacher conferences • Tutoring in after school education programs • Program planning and design for after school and summer programs • Community-based participatory research • Community information sessions • Evening parental tutoring • ESL classes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research on neighborhoods using local Spanish language periodicals • Intensive time commitment to site • Collaboration with the site to fulfill needs for incoming interns • Final report on the role of students in the community site • Entrepreneurial collaborations • Research for law firms • Community-based participatory research • Implementation of student project ideas
<p>Research organizations:</p>	<p>Representative organizations:</p>	<p>Representative organizations:</p>	<p>Representative organizations:</p>

their mission, hours, location, staff, capacity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Immigrant legal clinics • Penal system 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Latinx social services non-profits • Non-profit after school educational services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Latinx social services non-profits • Hospitals • Immigrant legal and medical outreach clinics
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DISCUSSION

The three courses mentioned have used this model to successfully incorporate community engagement in multiple semesters, bringing together various faculty members and community partners. In addition, the model has been shared and utilized in courses not included in this article such as: Spanish for Medical Professionals (online), Basic Spanish I and II, and General Education courses such as Eating Cultures. Despite the ease with which faculty unfamiliar with community engagement have been able to integrate it into their course, this model merits further study in diverse institutions and locations tested by non-associated faculty. Next steps include qualitative studies to more systematically measure the impact on the parties involved.

Ultimately, the model presented above intends to cement community engagement as an intrinsic component in LSP courses, as fundamental for student learning as a textbook once was. Thus, it is incumbent upon the field to offer validated models of incorporation for LSP faculty, whether full-time or contingent, so that best practices are not goals, but rather realities. Through accessible, manageable steps, clear parameters and contingency plans, community engagement does not have to be daunting or peripheral, but transparently valuable to students.

In a constantly evolving higher education landscape in which a single change in administration can radically impact faculty and student resources and thus instruction, evidence-based pedagogy which does not require insurmountable institutional support is a must. AACU's mission statement to "advance the vitality and public standing of liberal education by making quality and equity the foundations for excellence in undergraduate education in service to democracy" is a call to arms to the

humanities and liberal arts, bidding faculty to intentionally embed quality and equity in the curriculum for all disciplines. How better to promote quality, equity and serve democracy than by forging, nurturing and constantly fine-tuning equal, democratic, multilingual partnerships between the local community and the university? The skills development, knowledge exchange and heightened sense of community that occur in a well-designed LSP community engagement course may imprint each student uniquely and sometimes unexpectedly, but with appropriate structure and guidance that imprint will result in excellence in undergraduate education. It is up to the faculty, the curators of course content, to choose how students in our language courses learn to interact with and understand target language speakers, language use and their own competencies. By engaging students in the community, knowledge is constructed by students, not given to students. The cognitive models of Piaget, Perry and Kurfiss underscore how crucial this construction is to learning about one's self, one's subject and the connection of both to the world. Knowing these connections and committing to them requires purposeful course design, but not ideal conditions, unlimited resources, sustained institutional support or a single personal contact. The commitment to designing, implementing and sustaining an LSP engagement course depends upon an appreciation of its transformative effect and a willingness to embrace, appreciate and learn from a sometimes unpredictable and unexpected relationship. In the words of a longstanding community partner, "All this is to keep saying THANK YOU. We're off to the start of a phenomenal semester, and we would not be in this position without students from your class."

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A NEEDS-BASED APPROACH TO DEVELOPING CULTURAL COMPETENCY IN SPANISH FOR ANIMAL HEALTH AND CARE PROFESSIONALS

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Resumen: El artículo describe el enfoque adoptado en el diseño del componente cultural de un programa de certificación a nivel de grado universitario en el área de Español para el Cuidado y la Salud Animal. Es el último de una serie de cuatro cursos de división superior; se centra en la competencia cultural específica a las áreas profesionales de la ganadería y la veterinaria rural. Los contenidos reflejan el análisis realizado sobre las necesidades de competencia lingüística y cultural en estos lugares de trabajo. Se detalla la metodología empleada en el análisis de necesidades y las categorías culturales detectadas. Se describe la organización de contenidos del curso y la articulación de este con las metas de competencia lingüística del certificado. Esta hoja de ruta para el desarrollo de la competencia cultural en un lugar de trabajo puede resultar útil para quienes asuman el compromiso de desarrollar este tipo de programas para poblaciones demográficas similares.

Palabras clave: español para fines específicos, comunicación intercultural, análisis de necesidades, competencia cultural, enseñanza de lenguas basada en capacidades profesionales

Abstract: This article describes the approach followed to develop a cultural component in an undergraduate certificate program in Spanish for Animal Health and Care. This multi-cultural component is the last in a series of four upper-division courses and addresses the specific cultural competency necessary for professionals within livestock and rural veterinary professions. It was based on the program's needs analysis, which investigated the populations' workplace linguistic and cultural needs. The article discusses the methodology followed in the needs analysis and the cultural categories that emerged. It describes the organization of course contents, and the articulation of the cultural component with the certificate's linguistic proficiency goals. This roadmap towards developing workplace cultural competency may be useful to those engaged in designing Language for Specific Purposes programs for similar populations.

Key words: Spanish for specific purposes, intercultural communication, needs analysis, cultural competency, task-based language instruction

INTRODUCTION

Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) programs and classes grapple with how to approach the inclusion of relevant cultural training in their curricula. Diverting from traditional conceptions of culture dominated by a “high C” view of culture, constitutes, in and of itself, a formidable challenge in languages departments; but deciding on relevant cultural categories to include in LSP classes and programs, or the social groups to which these categories apply, is even more of a significant road-block. Traditionally, the incorporation of culture in general language and LSP curricula is based on predetermined categories, and these are assumed to emanate from geopolitical entities aligned with territorial units corresponding to the modern conception of the nation-state (Brody 40; Jones 237; Zotzmann 176). This represents a structuralist view of culture, which tends to conceptualize it as a composite of discrete nation-based categories. While this may be a somewhat helpful approach for future graduates who expect to travel abroad to engage in professional transactions, it is of little relevance to the many occupations that employ predominantly Spanish-speaking monolingual workers within U.S. borders, such as construction, landscaping, janitorial workforce, and crop and livestock agriculture labor. This population is not nationally or ethnically homogenous and faces displacement issues that affect its general cultural profile, as well as that of the workplace settings, in unique and interesting ways. The linguistic and cultural interface between these workers and their predominantly English-speaking counterparts has been largely invisible to academia in general, and to the language teaching profession in particular.

The idea of culture itself, as well as those pertaining to the development of cultural competencies, have evolved significantly beyond structuralist nation-based categories in the language teaching field (Brody; Zotzmann; Kramersch; Sercu). Post-structuralist views emphasize the fluid and hybrid nature of culture as an emergent reality that depends on dialogical discourses that take place in highly specific contexts. In this view, culture is neither in the event itself nor in the speaker’s perception of that event. Instead, it is an intermediate space that results from the interaction between interlocutors (Kramersch 31-32). It is debatable whether or not the resulting intercultural competency

can be directly measured or assessed (Zotzmann). Nevertheless, the need for intercultural competency is unquestioned. Students need to be self-aware of their cultural identity in order to successfully engage with difference, relate to others' perspectives and empathize with experiences that they have never encountered or lived before.

This article describes the approach that was adopted for developing the cultural component of an LSP undergraduate certificate program in Spanish for Animal Health and Care offered to all interested students, most of which are majoring in Animal Sciences and Pre-veterinary medicine. At this point, students are able to combine the certificate courses with a Spanish minor, or elect to complete only the certificate. For entry into the program, students must have taken the equivalent of 2 years of basic Spanish training, and they must take the courses in sequential order to achieve the targeted proficiency level of Intermediate-high/Advanced-low. The program consists of four upper-division courses, two of which concentrate on developing the linguistic skills necessary for successful task completion on livestock farms, while a third course focuses on terminology development while continuing to build on the linguistic proficiency targeted by the first two courses. The fourth course in the series continues to build on language proficiency, while thematically centering around the specific cultural competency considered necessary for future professionals within livestock and rural veterinary professions. Table 1 below outlines the thematic contents and targeted linguistic functions of the courses that comprise the certificate.

Table 1. Certificate in Spanish for Animal Health and Care Curriculum Content Plan

340 Spanish for Animal Health & Care Fields (3 cr.)	342 Spanish for Animal Health & Care Fields II (3 cr.)
<i>Tasks as Language Objectives:</i> Physical and behavioral descriptions Physical and behavioral comparisons Question formation Basic sequencing of routines Directions and instructions <i>(Present Time Frame)</i>	<i>Tasks as Language Objectives:</i> Descriptions of signs of illness Explaining changes in behavior & physical conditions Recommendations for proper care Preventative Care <i>(Present and Basic Past Time Frames)</i>

343 Spanish Terminology: Animal Health / Agriculture (3 cr.)	444 The Intercultural workplace: Animal Health / Agriculture (3 cr.)
Identifying Word classes Relationships among words: (lexical/semantic) Field-specific synonyms and antonyms Part-whole relations Taxonomic relations among words Suffixation, prefixation & compounding patterns <i>(Building lexical cohesion, transitioning into paragraph-level discourse)</i>	The Nature of Cultural Displacement: Causes, Social & Economic Effects Perceived Cross-Cultural Differences (roles, rights, and obligations; workplace processes; handling of products and equipment) Personal Distance and Power (ethnic, gender & age relations; the role of the interpreter) <i>(Narrativizing cultural experiences, continued transition into paragraph-level discourse)</i>

Rather than using predetermined nation-based cultural categories commonly included in language teaching, the culture course ties its contents to the program's needs analysis, which investigated both linguistic and cultural needs in the workplace. This article discusses the methodology followed when designing the needs analysis and the relevant cultural categories that emerged. It then describes the organization of the course contents, and the articulation of the cultural component with the linguistic proficiency goals of the certificate.

In language classrooms, proficiency development is treated as the primary goal, while the development of cultural competency is perceived as an add-on or a goal of lesser importance. According to Ryan and Sercu (39), this does not indicate that language teachers do not see the value of integrating cultural competency into the language curriculum, rather a multiplicity of factors impede an explicit and comprehensive focus on culture. Some of these include, the difficulty of assessing cultural competency, the preeminence of grammar and vocabulary development in traditional language curricula, and the instructors' self-perceived lack of cultural knowledge associated with the language they teach. The training of future language teachers rarely includes well-defined approaches to developing cultural competencies in hand with language proficiency development.

The present project endeavors to seamlessly thread cultural literacy into the building of linguistic competency. In essence, the aim is to delineate a roadmap towards developing workplace cultural competency that may be useful to those engaged in designing LSP programs for underserved populations similar to those employed in large animal livestock facilities in the United States.

As language professionals, the designers of this program were driven by an interest in developing and enhancing communicative competency for those students who plan to work in multi-cultural contexts, where different languages and different perspectives interface on a regular basis. Inherent to this communicative competence are cultural and linguistic proficiencies. The importance of culture in L2 curricula is normally assumed among SLA professionals, but in practice, culture is often approached in “a fairly unconsidered, constrained, and taken-for-granted fashion” (Brody 37). One way in which this is apparent is in the common practice of treating target cultures as applying to homogenous, undifferentiated groups of people. Such an approach simplifies a complex reality that, in generalizing, erases the specificities and nuances of cultural manifestations. The usefulness of this approach is questionable even for students in general language classes, and more so for students enrolled in programs such as the one described here, that seek to develop the intercultural competency that is required to function in a satisfactory manner in a specific work-setting.

At the root of these obstacles to a nuanced cultural understanding is the lack of a consistent characterization of culture and cultural competency used across the profession. All practitioners seem to have different operational concepts of culture alongside different learning objectives. As a result, lower-level textbooks often approach culture as a disconnected and fragmentary selection of themes, such as celebrations, foods, music, dances, etc., relegated to culture “boxes” alongside targeted grammar and vocabulary. At higher levels, instructors’ bias inherently skews this aspect in the classroom and in the development of curricula. Culture contents tend to be by and large restricted to the history and analysis of the fine arts: visual arts, literature, cinema, etc., in other words “high C” culture. Thus, the instruction of culture begins as an aggregation of stereotyped tokens of national cultural themes and ends as a set of reductionist

analyses applying only to a partial and elitist selection of cultural products and manifestations.

Undoubtedly, arriving at a unified concept of culture is a difficult proposition. Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (13-15) refer to a 1952 critical review of concepts and definitions of culture by Alfred Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn, two American anthropologists who compiled 164 different definitions of the concept. Spencer-Oatey and Franklin observe that, despite the years of inquiry into the nature of culture that ensued since the 1950's, there is, to date, no agreement as to its exact nature. Nevertheless, they point to some areas of general agreement regarding its key characteristics: i) it is manifested through explicit and implicit regularities; ii) it is associated with social groups although different members of any given group may manifest different characteristics of such regularities; iii) it affects people's behaviors and their perceptions and interpretations of the behavior of others; iv) it is acquired and constructed through interactions with others. It is this generally agreed-upon set of characterizing traits, rather than a precise and conclusive definition, that guided the designers' interpretation of the cultural aspects that emerged from the needs analysis.

In the absence of a conclusive definition of culture, and using the above characterization as a guide, the program designers decided to adopt a working definition that would help provide a measure of consistency and direction to the research and subsequent curriculum development. The understanding of culture applied to the program design process is wide in breadth and scope and focuses on the different elements that constitute the complex phenomena of a shared reality. Put in the simplest of terms, it encompasses the things people do, what people know, and the things that they use (Spradley 20), a concept that, in its openness, is consistent with the characterization of culture adopted in the Standards for Language Learning, which encompasses processes, products and perspectives (Cutshall 32-35). Thus, the relevant question became, what constitutes the cultural knowledge, behaviors and artifacts that are intrinsic to the functioning of large animal livestock farms, and which depend on Spanish-speaking immigrant labor.

As observed before, the interface between Spanish-speaking immigrant labor and English-speaking owners, operators and workers, is an area that has not been traditionally addressed

by the SLA community. The programs in Spanish for Specific Purposes that have been developed to address the Spanish-English language gaps in the United States are limited to a few work settings. Such programs are predominantly found in the human healthcare and business settings, and even these, lack an explicit attention to the cultural aspects of the intersection between the different linguistic communities that come into contact in such work settings. In an overview of existing US Medical Spanish programs and courses, Hardin reports that most of the curricula offered is not evidence-based, dialogue among programs is scarce and initial and targeted linguistic proficiency is only rarely specified. In regard to the place of culture in these programs, Hardin notes that it is included as part of the reading and writing activities at the undergraduate level. At the graduate and residency levels, it is approached separately from language (i.e., not integrated into language proficiency building) and with little to no discussion about which cultural contents and categories were included, nor how they were determined or assessed (648). It was not surprising, then, to find practically nothing in the area of culture for addressing the needs of livestock agricultural workers in the United States.

The program designers were already in the process of completing a language needs analysis, when it became clear to them that key parts of what the cross-cultural workers grappled with, had to do with the unshared nature of the understanding of the world and the workplace. This article addresses the particular approach utilized to unveil cultural standards and categories that, due to their unshared nature, caused dispersion of efforts, misunderstandings and frustrations at livestock establishments with a diverse workforce.

The goal of the certificate program became two-fold, on one hand, it aimed to facilitate communication in Spanish around the most basic to the most complex tasks that take place on livestock farms and that rely on communication. The second goal became to create the conditions for the construction of a shared intercultural reality that would foster human and animal wellbeing, as well as workplace cohesion. Multi-cultural work-settings are unique in that their success hinges upon shared understandings of the tools they use to perform their tasks, the protocols and procedures they implement, and the products they provide. Such a shared reality relies on dialogue (Brantmeir 70) in

order to create working meanings that are uniquely situated in the spaces between the distinct cultures that come into contact. Given this level of specificity, one must rely on a thorough search for that which generates confusion, frustration and miscommunication in the ‘here and now’ of livestock establishments.

CULTURAL NEEDS ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

A language needs analysis consisting of semi-structured interviews, observations at multiple livestock facilities, literature reviews and news media (see Table 2) was conducted to identify the language gaps existing on large animal livestock farms where a plurality of Spanish-speaking workers were employed. This needs analysis was task-based in nature and aimed to uncover the communication surrounding the successful completion of the most common to most complex tasks done on livestock farms (Huhta et al.; Long). Many of the tasks in these settings involve human-animal interactions, and do not require linguistic communication. Examples of these types of tasks are feeding, watering, herding, vaccinating, ear tagging, milking, hoof clipping, birthing, among many more. However, for owners, operators, and rural veterinarians, explaining the industry standards, best practices and expected protocols for the completion of these tasks - and animal handling in general—is vitally important. Therefore, the program designers adopted Van den Branden’s understanding of task as “an activity in which a person engages to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language” (4), as the unit of analysis for their project.

Once the relevant tasks were identified, they were then grouped according to their corresponding language functions, such as, providing descriptions, requesting and giving information, giving instructions, and narrating and sequencing. Using the ACTFL language proficiency guidelines, these task-language function pairings were then scaffolded for linguistic and cognitive complexity. This was, in essence, the process that informed the choice of entry- and targeted language proficiency-level for the certificate, as well as the scope and sequencing of the curricular design, a complex undertaking in and of itself, which is fully detailed in Zeller and Velázquez-Castillo.

In addition, the authors researched relevant cultural coverage in the news media, as well as investigative reports and story-based programs, such as *This American Life* and *Radio Ambulante*, which featured immigrants' lived experiences within the livestock farm profession. A particularly rich source of cultural information was a series of interviews and personal narratives featured in the webpage of an organization named, *Leche con Dignidad – Milk with Dignity* (www.facebook.com/milkwithdignity/), which endeavors to promote worker rights in Vermont dairy establishments that provide milk to the Ben and Jerry's ice-cream franchise. Other sources included rallies held by Donald Trump during his campaign for presidency in 2016, in which he espoused harmful stereotypes about immigrants in the United States, publications from a collaborative project between the Workers' Center of Central New York and the Worker Justice Center of New York, which investigated dairy workers' wellbeing and working conditions (Fox et al.), community presentations hosted by dairy owners in Colorado on the importance of immigrant labor to the livestock industry, and a report on a meeting by English-speaking US livestock producers that explored their views on the unique aspects to working with a largely immigrant Spanish-speaking workforce (Stup and Maloney).

Table 2 below summarizes the data sources used in the cultural needs analysis for the certificate. Although the interviews conducted by the authors were all set in the state of Colorado, the information was triangulated with that which was obtained from the media sources mentioned above. Therefore, it is safe to assume that the issues faced by Spanish-speaking undocumented workers interviewed in the needs analyses is reflective of the workers' experience at the national level.

Table 2. Summary of data types collected for the cultural needs analysis

Data Collection	Description
Literature	Literature on the effects of the language gap on livestock farms Literature immigrant dairy worker wellbeing and work conditions Literature on the importance of immigrant labor to the Agriculture industry in Colorado
17 one-hour non-structured, face-to-face interviews	3 interviews with a bilingual (Spanish/English) Extension Dairy Specialist 1 interview with a monolingual (English) beef scientist and former beef farm manager 1 in-depth (1hr) interview with a monolingual (English) regulatory rural veterinarian 2 interviews with a monolingual (Spanish) dairy foreman 1 interview with a bilingual (Spanish/English) manager at an equine reproduction facility 2 interviews with monolingual (English) dairy owners and operators 1 interview with a monolingual (English) ovine feedlot owner 3 interviews with a monolingual (English) Beef Quality Assurance Coordinator 1 interview conducted with 5 monolingual (Spanish) dairy workers 2 interviews with a monolingual (English) beef farm feedlot cowboy
4 observations of livestock work routines and rural veterinary practice	3 one-hour observations of rural veterinary practice on dairy facilities 1 one-hour observation of work routines on an equine reproduction facility
2 observations of work routines in rural livestock facilities in Mexico	1 two-hour observation of work routines on a bovine and ovine production facility 1 one-hour observation of work routines on a dairy
Informal discussions	6 one-hour informal discussions with a bilingual (Spanish/English) veterinarian with 10 years of experience working with Spanish-speaking populations

3 one-hour informal discussions with a bilingual (Spanish/English) Dairy Extension Specialist
1 3-hr informal discussion with a bilingual beef farm manager

Media Ongoing attention to Donald Trump's treatment and communication about immigrants in the United States
Ongoing attention to interviews and videos posted by Leche con Dignidad / Milk with Dignity

Triangulation, a process of comparing and contrasting all information gathered, was used to validate and increase the reliability of data gleaned from the needs analysis (Long). What this process revealed were misunderstandings, discomforts, and generalizations of the 'other', when faced with particular aspects of their interaction with workplace players of a different cultural background that impeded empathy-building across communities. A critical number of these incidents was taken to suggest the presence of different cultural standards at play (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin 33). It became clear that there was a partial or non-existent shared reality between cultural groups in these work settings. Here, circling back to Spradley's open definition of culture as what people do, what they know, and what they use, was extremely relevant because it became apparent that, while participants in this needs analysis used a defined set of tools to complete tasks in a protocol-driven manner, what they knew was not shared. Instead, cultural assumptions of the 'other' served as place-holders in knowledge's stead, and these assumptions appeared to widen the cultural gap between communities.

The Nature of Cultural Displacement

For agricultural producers, the presence of Spanish-speaking migrant workers in their facilities represented a solution to a "labor problem" (Stup and Maloney 12). It was not until the emergence of communication gaps and misunderstandings that producers became aware of the unique set of needs, beliefs, values and personal histories that connected these workers to a displaced and different cultural reality. And even then, the notions of cultural aspects they glimpsed in their Hispanic workers were

rigid, generalizing and mostly limited to outward manifestations. For example, there were many mentions of how family and celebrations were important to Hispanic workers from the English-speaking stakeholders in the semi-structured interviews conducted. In one case, a beef ranch manager mentioned that knowing what a *quinceañera* was (traditional 15th birthday coming-of-age celebration for girls), would “now get him a long way” with his Spanish-speaking workforce (personal communication, December 17, 2015). When asked when he learned what the celebration was, the manager said that one of his best workers had abruptly quit when he did not give him the day off to celebrate his daughter’s 15th birthday. When asked what the daughter’s name was, he did not know. The migrant workers interviewed for the needs analysis, often noted a general lack of interest in them as individuals connected to a place, a family, and a larger community, all of which, of course, inform in complex ways who they are as human beings.

As noted in Stup and Maloney (4-5), common areas of agreement among producers about their Hispanic employees had to do with the specificity of their basic needs as displaced workers: housing, transportation, food recognizable as familiar, and clothing for a different climate. Spanish-speaking workers were, again, believed to have strong family ties and values, which translated to the producers into a strong desire to wire money home to family members, and homesickness when they lived apart from their families. Adapting to these needs has been challenging for owners and operators. In some cases, they have established regular rides to Hispanic markets and restaurants and found properties, primarily trailers, for laborers to live in. Unfortunately, many of these housing facilities are sub-par. 58% of workers interviewed by the Workers’ Center of Central New York and the Worker Justice Center of New York complained of bugs or insects in their housing, half reported not having locks on the doors, and a third of those interviewed complained about the lack of potable water (Fox et al.).

Isolation was prominently mentioned by immigrant laborers as a factor that negatively influenced their lives on livestock farms. Many of these establishments are located in rural, scarcely populated areas where the majority of people rely on vehicular transportation to engage with the community. Given the undocumented status of many workers, that mobility is not readily

available, or is risky at best. Additionally, many farm-hands work 12-hour shifts 6 to 7 days a week, which precludes their ability to enjoy free time with others outside of the work-setting (Fox et al.; personal communication, February 15, 2017). In response to this, one dairy owner holds social events one to two times a year at his dairy (personal communication, October 3, 2017).

A cultural difference that contributed to the sense of isolation experienced by migrant laborers and which was recurrently identified by them, had to do with behavior associated with basic acknowledgement of the Spanish-speaking worker as a person. The needs analysis included several mentions of the absence of expected behaviors such as daily greetings, whose main function is to acknowledge the presence of a fellow human being. Spanish-speaking workers noted that their English-speaking co-workers and managers commonly interacted with them about workplace tasks without saying hello or good morning.

English-speaking livestock owners and managers appeared to lack a robust understanding of the full dimension of what it means to be culturally displaced and the vulnerability caused by this displacement, by the very fact that their own cultural experience was never subjected to the discontinuities experienced by the migrant workers. They never lacked ready access to such basic aspects of daily life as transportation, adequate living facilities, and easy access to social connections. Merely knowing what a *quinceañera* is, is far from appreciating the need to participate in one's own culture and engage in the ritual celebration of socially significant occasions. Empathy-building necessitates an ability to put oneself in the place of the 'other' to envisage the full extent of their experiences. In order to do so, they need to be exposed to a deeper, experientially informed narrative than the ones they build for themselves without such dialogical experience with the other. Clearly, the cultural displacement aspects of the immigrant's experience needed to be a key component of the intercultural learning process.

Perceived Cross Cultural Differences

Another difference in cultural standards worth noting was the unequal treatment of immigrant laborers when compared to their English-speaking counterparts. In many cases, workers

complained of not understanding their rights in the workplace (Fox et al.). There were differences in compensation between populations and instances of pay being withheld as punishment, (*Leche con Dignidad*), and personal narratives revealed a high incidence of workplace injury (Fox et al.). One participant, a Beef Quality Assurance Coordinator, spoke of an instance where she was told to train English-speaking staff in an air-conditioned office and Spanish-speaking staff inside a barn alongside livestock (personal communication, September 12, 2016). In another non-structured interview, a feedlot cowboy related how immigrant workers were generally perceived to be “too hard on animals”. Therefore, they were commonly given sanitation duties on the feedlot, tasks that were generally perceived to be the worst type of work at the facility (personal communication, November 14, 2017).

Speaking to differences in procedures, a bilingual beef farm manager discussed at length the differences in ranch procedures in his home state of Chihuahua, Mexico versus the United States. Ranchers in Mexico used ropes, rather than chute systems to handle and restrain cattle. US livestock agriculture relies on metal, chute systems for animal restraint, which is not common to many countries in Latin America. The interviewee pointed out that many English-speaking owners and operators believe that the workers cannot handle animals correctly and are ignorant about best practices for herding, separating and restraining, when this is actually a difference in cultural procedures rather than ignorance (personal communication, October 29, 2017). An alternative assumption, equally generalizing, also came up in the interviews: a Spanish-speaking dairy foreman complained that the owners of the dairy where he was employed would often take for granted that anyone who applied for a job would come from a livestock background, when that was not necessarily the case. He stressed that handling large animals can be dangerous and proper training in Spanish was vital for both, worker and animal wellbeing (personal communication, April 15, 2016).

Differences in treatment regarding equal compensation, workplace training, and full communication of worker rights unveiled the need for a nuanced understanding of the ‘other’ as a human being with a different cultural background. Assumptions about ability and motivation respond to cultural standards and

generalizations based on preconceived ideas about the ‘other’. Perceived cross cultural differences in regard to roles, rights, and obligations, work processes, and products were recurrent in the needs analysis, and varied across the cultural communities, revealing the importance of shedding light on the different perspectives involved. Clearly, perceived cross-cultural differences needed to be centrally addressed in the intercultural workplace course.

Personal Distance and Power

Power relations and personal distance were essential aspects that arose out of the needs analysis as well. Hispanic workers were seen by livestock producers as being generally fearful of making mistakes, eager to please their employers, lacking initiative and self-confidence, and reluctant to take promotions and supervisory responsibilities (Stup and Maloney 4-5). One dairy owner blamed this on the “communist mentality” of Latin America (personal communication, February 15, 2017). In interviews conducted by the Worker Justice Center of New York, immigrant workers stated that the lack of proper working and living conditions, low pay, and long hours were factors that affected their desire to move up the ladder. In other words, loyalty to a single establishment seemed a dim possibility due to mistreatment.

When asked about the lack of communication regarding complex issues such as these in semi-structured interviews, livestock producers consistently said that communication was not a problem. In two cases, the program designers were told that the owners had traveled to Mexico and South America for a two to four-week immersion Spanish program, and that they had “learned Spanish” on these trips (personal communication, February 15, 2017; personal communication, November 12, 2017). Such programs are incapable of bringing novice speakers to advanced proficiency in such a short time. When prodded about this, these producers admitted that they rely on Spanish-English interpreters for complex communication situations. The role of the interpreter appeared straightforward from the producer standpoint, but emerged as an extremely complicated and loaded issue from the Spanish-speaking perspective.

In interviews with a bilingual, Puerto Rican veterinarian who regularly visits dairies for training purposes, the program designers discovered that the interpreter is commonly chosen because they are the “most bilingual” person on the ranch (personal communication, May 22, 2016). However, this does not mean that the interpreter is proficient enough to accurately conduct their translations. For example, this veterinarian witnessed a near complete walk-out of an entire labor force on a dairy, due to misinterpretations about worker rights and days off. Nor does it mean that bilingual workers necessarily desire the responsibility of translating for everyone. A Spanish-speaking dairy manager told the program designers that it is very hard to say no when one wants to keep their job (personal communication, April 15, 2016). Yet, perhaps of more concern is the fact that the interpreter wields great power on all sides of the multicultural workforce. For example, in semi-structured interviews with the Puerto Rican veterinarian, the program designers learned of cases where interpreters were asking for money to translate for monolingual Spanish-speaking workers (personal communication, January 14, 2016).

The interpreter’s role in the livestock workplace exemplifies a type of power relation that can operate horizontally among workers of the same culture. Other such power dynamics are age-related and gender-related asymmetries, which sometimes are manifested horizontally or can bridge workplace hierarchies. For example, a young English-speaking farm owner complained that the interpreter at his facility would not tell the workers what he wanted them to do because of his age and a disrespect for his ideas (personal communication, August 10, 2017). A female rural veterinarian stated that she had to make an explicit effort to assert herself as a professional when communicating with male, Spanish-speaking animal caretakers (personal communication, July 7, 2017).

These cultural standards that are not understood across communities: seeing the humanity in the ‘other’; understanding cultural displacement and isolation; communicating and respecting workers’ rights, roles, and obligations; being open and aware of processes and procedures other than one’s own; and understanding a complex web of power relations in the workplace, are fundamental to worker wellbeing, animal health, and workplace cohesion. The process of understanding the personal

experience of the immigrant worker is a gradual and long one. It is also essential, as it allows for the possibility of a shift from viewing and treating these workers as a mere solution to a “labor problem”, to acknowledging their humanity in its full complexity. Only this sort of understanding can give rise to an empathetic view of the other, rooted in the ability to imagine oneself in their place. Empathy and solidarity foster the type of mutual engagement and co-operation that is necessary for the construction of a shared reality where all players see themselves as fully invested, and valued as human beings.

Part of the process involves an awareness that every individual is a unique manifestation of a larger group culture; and part of that uniqueness has to do with the fact that every individual must constantly update their culturally constructed patterns of behavior and beliefs in order to adjust them to the changing social contexts where they find themselves. The evolving nature of cultural adjustment is especially true in the case of Spanish-speaking immigrant workers in the United States, who find themselves displaced from their cultural reality at the end of a long physical journey that immersed them in a culture that is mostly unknown to them. Nevertheless, it is also a journey—in a metaphorical sense—for the English-speakers who find themselves immersed in a setting that is shared with human beings who come from a reality different than their own. As the nation relies heavily on immigrant labor for its most basic needs, it is incumbent upon the language teaching profession to bridge both, the language and cultural gaps between these populations that has thus far gone unaddressed. The needs analysis completed for this project, helped guide the program designers towards the creation of a curriculum that can address the most salient cultural aspects that were uncovered.

THE INTERCULTURAL WORKPLACE CURRICULUM

Once the cultural elements more likely to affect mutual engagement and the sense of shared reality among the different players of this work setting were revealed, the next step was to design a roadmap that would guide students in the process of “unpacking” these cultural aspects. The students needed to develop a conscious awareness of the presence of different cultures in the work setting, which implied an awareness of their

own culture. Therefore, the preliminary activities in each thematic unit are concerned with having the students identify cultural aspects that define them (i.e., elaborate their own personal narrative). Then, the students are introduced to narratives that are based entirely on information gathered from the needs analysis. These narratives are presented as lived experiences from a collection of characters that are consistent throughout the course. The students are asked to create a complex and nuanced narrative of an immigrant worker at a livestock establishment in the United States throughout the course in order to see reality through the ‘other’s’ eyes.

The first unit of the intercultural workplace course focuses on the journey of migration and the reasons behind it. Then, the resulting displacement of the Spanish-speaking immigrant worker is discussed along with the social and economic effects of cultural and physical isolation. Students grapple with the idea of living as an undocumented worker in a country that is not their own. The second unit deals with perceived cross-cultural differences in regard to work processes, roles, rights, and obligations in the agricultural field, as well as the manipulation and handling of products and equipment in the workplace. Students engage with narratives that speak about unequal pay, worker rights, and differences in processes and products across cultures. Lastly, students explore power relations in the multicultural workplace and the role of ethnicity, gender, and age in such relations. The complex role of the interpreter on large animal livestock farms in the United States is also addressed in this unit. Table 3 below outlines the units and course contents, followed by a detailed description of the first unit, to illustrate the nature of student engagement with these course contents.

Table 3. The intercultural workplace curriculum

Unit	Course contents
Unit 1: The Nature of Cultural Displacement	Causes of migration Social effects of migration Economic effects of migration
Unit 2: Perceived Cross-cultural Differences	Roles, rights and obligations Work processes in the agricultural field

Manipulation and handling of products and equipment in the workplace
Stereotypes. Are they real? Are they harmful?

Unit 3: Analyzing Cross-cultural Differences in Personal Distance and Power
Personal distance and power relative to ethnic relations
Personal distance and power relative to gender
Personal distance and power relative to age
The role of the interpreter

A REPRESENTATIVE EXAMPLE OF A NEEDS-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL UNIT ON CULTURE

The first unit deals with key aspects of the cultural displacement experienced by the immigrant worker, starting with their journey to the United States, followed by the social and economic impacts on their lives and their workplace. The unit is organized into three thematic modules, where the student is asked to analyze and interpret images; listen, read and react to personal narratives, interviews and informational texts. All materials were compiled in the project needs analysis and represent the web of perspectives that make up the social context of the workplace.

The first module centers around two narratives that represent two perspectives of the undocumented migrants' journey to the United States: i) a silent video produced by 84 Lumber, which portrays a visual narrative of a migrant mother and her young daughter leaving their home in Central America, going through Mexico with the help of a "Coyote", and arriving at the US border, only to find an imposing wall blocking their entry; ii) a recorded narrative taken from the program *Radio Ambulante* by a "coyote", explaining who he is, how he came to do the work he does, and what is involved in guiding undocumented immigrants through their journey to the United States. The module ends with a short video about "la bestia", a cargo train that many undocumented migrants jump on to travel through the Mexican territory on their way to the U.S. border.

The second module starts with a first-person narrative by Víctor, a fictional undocumented immigrant who works in a dairy farm in the U.S. The narrative was composed by the course designers, compiling elements of different narratives elicited during the needs analysis in semi-structured interviews of livestock workers. The narrative is meant to be representative of the experiential universe of Spanish-speaking migrant workers in the livestock industry. Víctor's account speaks of the reasons for immigrating to the U.S., his experience of social isolation, his long work hours, the continued affective and economic connection with his family at home, his capture by immigration agents, deportation and return to the United States, and finally, the economic motivation for continuing with his life as a dairy farm worker in the U.S. Students engage in guided reactions and exchanges about Víctor's account, followed by a personal reflection and comparison to their own life experiences.

Víctor's narrative and related activities and interactions are followed by an Agricultural Advisory Board report on the role of immigration in the agricultural sector in the state of Colorado. The report details the economic impact for the county, the state and the nation, addressing the ways in which immigration policies impact the livestock industry, and the lives of immigrant workers. Students are asked to react to the information presented in the report, identify unanswered questions, search for additional articles in English or Spanish on the internet, summarize and reflect on key informational aspects and elaborate an opinion, all in Spanish.

The third module features a summary of a study on the life of dairy workers in the state of New York. The text is in English, so that the students can obtain the information in its full complexity. They then engage with the contents of the summary, compare the life of the dairy workers to their own experience, and compose a personal reaction, all in Spanish. A second text in this module is an adapted Spanish version of an interview with a producer that was done as part of the needs analysis. The producer offers his perspective on the impact, challenges, training requirement, and worker retention issues associated with hiring a Hispanic labor force. Students are asked to prepare a summary of the main issues and elaborate a personal reaction on the fairness of the treatment described by the producer. The students are also

asked to identify the greatest challenges associated with a non-English speaking workforce and to offer potential solutions.

As can be seen, each module explores an aspect of the intercultural workplace. All three modules start with a prompt that encourages students to situate themselves in their own cultural space by reflecting on relevant aspects of their personal experiences. They are then presented with visual images and narratives that portray the experience of the immigrant worker, or the perspective of a different stakeholder. There follows a scaffolded linguistic expansion that prepares the student to acquire the lexicon and key grammatical constructions necessary to reflect and react in Spanish to the presented situations. The student is then asked to participate in exchanges with their classmates, using Spanish to summarize, discuss and reflect on the situations featured in the module. Each module ends with a diary entry where the student records their personal reflections on the module themes.

The unit ends with a three-part assessment that integrates all the themes explored during the unit. In Part 1, the student is asked to visit the *Leche con Dignidad* (Milk with Dignity) webpage. The purpose is to listen to the voices of immigrant dairy workers who relate their personal histories and describe their experiences in the workplace and in the larger community where they currently live. Based on common aspects in the life of these workers, the student creates a fictional dairy worker, with a name, a place, and a history. The student is given aspects of the worker's profile they must address: a general description, place of origin and current residence; a personal history, including their journey to the US, and their current connection to their families.

In Part 2 of the assessment, the student describes the social and economic impacts in their fictional workers' life: how integrated they feel among their co-workers and in the larger community, their work schedule, the type of work they do, their hourly wages, and their financial responsibilities to their families. This profile is completed in Part 3, where the student needs to discuss their workers' integration in the workplace, the difficulties they face in an environment where their supervisors and co-workers do not share the same language or belong to the same culture; their relationship with their boss and manager, the type of training they receive at work, workplace injuries and medical attention. All three parts are presented in writing and paragraph-

length texts. The student ends their evaluation with an extended self-recorded video that comments on a worker profile presented by a classmate.

As described above, this course requires students to use *paragraph-level discourse* in the target language to *describe*, orally and in writing, the multiple perspectives involved in cultural displacement, perceived cross-cultural differences, and the power dynamics in age/gender/ethnic relations, and their implications for a diverse workplace. They are expected to use their evolving linguistic competency to *compare and contrast* their beliefs, values and behavior patterns to those of workers from different cultural backgrounds. They *narrate* specific instances of cultural displacement, *discuss* their impact in the lives of the individuals involved and on workplace cohesion, and reflect on their ability to relate to this experience.

The language functions referenced above fall under the advanced proficiency level, as described in the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 7). However, considering the entry-level required for the certificate, the program designers do not expect the students to necessarily sustain these functions 100% of the time. As described in Zeller and Velázquez-Castillo (309-311), the intercultural workplace course continues the development of Spanish competency from the Novice-mid/high level towards the intermediate-high level, by applying language use to the exploration and analysis of cultural awareness issues in the livestock workplace environment.

As discussed previously in the introduction (Table 1), the course *The Intercultural Workplace* is part of the sequencing for proficiency building, scaffolding towards intermediate-high through extended narrative, description, and expressing one's point of view. Starting with the second course (342), some of the tasks identified require past time framed narration and description, as well as scaffolded linguistic elaboration beyond simple sentences to communicate about common and complex tasks completed on livestock farms. Since processes and products are inherently cultural under the definition adopted for this project, these tasks are themselves considered aspects of cultural manifestations. Thus, the process of cultural competency development is integrated in the certificate from the outset, though not explicitly analyzed as such. Communication about livestock

processes is protocol-driven and, as such, can be accomplished with sentence-level discourse.

At this point in the program, the student still receives grammatical instruction and some directions in English. However, by the third course, all instructional materials are in the target language, and more emphasis is placed on connected and extended discourse. The fourth course, *The Intercultural Workplace*, centers around extended explanations and content materials, all presented in the target language with minimal adaptation; the student is expected to interact with course contents, though in an un-sustained manner, performing advanced-level tasks in connected discourse of paragraph length, such as narration and description in all major time frames.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This article discussed the course designers' attempt to depart from key aspects of the traditional approach to culture in language programs. The decision to include a course specifically centered around the multicultural aspect of livestock farms emerged from a needs analysis that sought to address the specific needs of stakeholders involved in this professional domain. A characterization of culture as an emergent system created by human interactions in particular places and contexts informed the articulation of the contents included in the curriculum. Such an approach is a marked departure from the status quo of assigning a peripheral role to the development of cultural competency, or limiting its scope to pre-determined, fixed categories. The needs-analysis process allows for an expanded conception of culture that includes aspects of daily life (processes and products), as well as the complexity inherent to the inclusion and interaction of multiple perspectives.

This project also suggests a path for articulating the development of cultural competency as an inherent aspect of language proficiency development. Therefore, one is not divorced from the other, and can be deliberately and systematically integrated into a single process. The certificate program in Spanish for Animal Health and Care incorporates cultural aspects from the outset by addressing the language that is necessary for communicating about basic workplace tasks, and scaffolds from sentence-length discourse to extended, paragraph-length

discourse. While this is a preliminary effort to address the cultural competency needed for future stakeholders in agricultural fields, it is also a significantly new approach that not only contributes to the understanding of underserved areas in the LSP field, but also opens the door to an expanded conception of cultural competency development in general.

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ENTREVISTA



(Photo courtesy of Lourdes Sánchez-López)

CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN SPANISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN THE UNITED STATES BY LOURDES SÁNCHEZ-LOPEZ

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Laura Marqués-Pascual (L.M.P.) – What is understood by the teaching of languages for specific purposes?

Lourdes Sánchez-López (L.S.L.): Languages for specific purposes (LSP) is an area of study within applied linguistics that focuses on the teaching and learning of a language for either a professional or an academic purpose. The teaching of LSP originated in the 1960s in the United Kingdom and was

established as English for specific purposes (ESP). A landmark publication, *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching* (Halliday, Strevens and McIntosh), called for linguists to conduct research based on samples of language in specific contexts to develop appropriate pedagogical materials. The focus of LSP had as its primary goal the fulfillment of the communicative needs of a specific group of people (Hutchinson and Waters). Since the 1960s, global attention has been given to LSP in both research and the development of pedagogical materials for the classroom for the professions, such as business, law, medicine, sciences, social work, translation, and interpretation, among others. Furthermore, due to the recent proliferation of international exchange agreements among universities around the globe as well as the increased popularity of well-established reciprocal programs, international mobility of university students is at its all-time highest. Often, these students are required to master and demonstrate a minimum level of L2 language proficiency in order to study at an L2 university. Therefore, language for academic purposes courses and programs have multiplied in the last two decades to help prepare students linguistically to study content areas in a foreign language (Hyland).

L.M.P. – How do you differentiate Spanish for specific purposes, Spanish for professional purposes, and Spanish for academic purposes?

L.S.L. – It is important to point out that this area of study that we generally call Spanish for specific purposes (SSP), actually receives a variety of nomenclatures, although not necessarily interchangeable, such as Spanish in or for the professions, Spanish for specific purposes or contexts, Spanish for professions and other specific contexts, or for some, simply Spanish studies for business, medicine, law, tourism, etc. For some scholars, the use of multiple nomenclatures may be an indication that the field has not yet reached its point of maturity (Doyle 2012, 2013), unlike other disciplines that enjoy a longer and denser history. But for me, Spanish for specific purposes encompasses both Spanish for the professions and Spanish for academic purposes. Students may be interested in learning Spanish for a myriad of purposes. Some students' goal may be to become medical or court interpreters, conduct international business, manage a non-profit organization,

become a Spanish or English as a second language teacher, work as an international tour guide, work for the FBI, do mission work internationally, or serve in the Peace Corps. All of these are examples of Spanish for professional purposes. On the other hand, some students may be interested in learning Spanish to study content courses for a semester or a year at a Spanish-speaking university. This is an example of Spanish for academic purposes. I have recently published a paper on this topic in the *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching* where I discuss different terminology more in depth (Sánchez-López 2018).

L.M.P. – Since you organized and directed the *First International Symposium on Languages for Specific Purposes (ISLSP at the University of Alabama at Birmingham in 2012)*, three more have been held, in which your work has continued to excel. What are the main differences you have observed between the first conference and the last one (at the University of Florida, 2018)? What do you think remains to be materialized and what would you like to find in the next one (to be celebrated at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte in 2020)?

L.S.L. – From the first symposium in 2012 to the last symposium in 2018, I have witnessed great evolution. First of all, each symposium has grown substantially in number of participants. The first symposium was especially difficult to organize for two reasons: because we did not have an established SSP network in the United States at the time, and because Higher Education was still suffering the dire consequences of the 2008 economic crisis (this situation made it more challenging for the organizing committee to secure financial support, and also for colleagues from around the globe who wanted to participate to be able to do so). Nevertheless, due to the success of the first symposium, CIBER (Centers of International Business Education and Research) asked to partner with us for the second symposium held at the University of Colorado in Boulder. This partnership worked so well that year that the ISLSP-CIBER conference partnership has continued since then. In addition, the themes of each conference have been evolving to reflect specific research and pedagogical scopes. The theme of the first ISLSP was “Scholarship and Teaching on Learning for Specific Purposes

(LSP)”, which was purposefully broad to be able to establish a much-needed initial network. Since then, the themes have been: “LSP Studies: Theory, Methodology, and Content Development” (II ISLSP/CIBER 2014, University of Colorado, Boulder), “LSP studies: Developing Skills to Serve Domestic and International Communities” (III ISLSP/CIBER 2016, Arizona State University), and “LSP Vectors: Strengthening Interdisciplinary Connections” (IV ISLSP/CIBER 2018, University of Florida). The 10th anniversary will be held at the V ISLSP/CIBER, which will take place at the University of North Carolina, Charlotte. As UNCC offers one of the nation’s strongest graduate programs in Translation Studies, the theme of the conference will explore the robust connections and ties that exist between LSP and Translation and Interpretation Studies. I believe that this is a perfect theme for the 10th year anniversary celebration. We have had amazingly enriching conferences so far, and I am excited about what the future has to offer.

L.M.P. – What are some theoretical foundations of the teaching of languages for specific purposes?

L.S.L. – Contrary to what many believe, the specificity of SSP courses or programs is not necessarily determined by the specific professional context. Rather, the specificity of SSP depends on the needs of the students themselves, that is, the courses vary depending on the students who take them. Therefore, a needs analysis process is imperative before the course or program is developed. Program developers, teachers and administrators should ask questions such as: “Who are my students?” “What are their career interests?” “What do my current students need?” “What might be the needs of potential students 3-5 years down the road?” “What does the local community currently need the language for?” “Are these the same needs as five years ago?” In addition, the specificity is determined by the social needs of the moment. For example, the growth of Spanish as a communication language in different regions and professions will determine the need to learn Spanish for the professions. For all these reasons, SSP courses and programs are aimed at adult students, preferably with a general base of the language (what we know as Spanish for general purposes), since basic-level Spanish is necessary to be able to develop more advanced communicative skills in specific

professional contexts. In this aspect, SSP courses and programs are usually developed according to the level of communicative competence of the students, the greater or lesser urgency of using the language in a professional context, the specific characteristics of that context, and the design of a program that promotes the learning process (Hutchinson and Waters). For all these reasons, Spanish for specific purposes represents the teaching of Spanish according to the characteristics of the students, and teaching is largely determined by taking these elements into account. Although SSP is fortunately slowly starting to be integrated at the high school education level in some places in the U.S., it is mainly associated with higher education or adults. This is because, as mentioned before, learners must have a general base of language proficiency from which to expand and develop more advanced specific skills. A second reason is that, for the most part, the higher education system allows greater flexibility to experiment with course offerings than K-12 education.

L.M.P. – You are the director of the Spanish for Specific Purposes Certificate Program at the University of Alabama at Birmingham. Can you briefly comment on the characteristics of your program and its objectives?

L.S.L. – The Spanish for Specific Purposes Certificate (SSPC) program at the University of Alabama at Birmingham was established in 2007. The SSPC caters to the professional needs of both traditional, degree-seeking students and non-traditional, local professionals. The main goal of the SSPC is to fulfill the needs of its dynamic, millennial students and of the increasingly diversified community. The UAB Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures was established in the late 1960s, and like most language departments at the time, the focus was on language, literature and culture. With an eye toward the long-term needs of the department, I was hired in 2001 as the first applied linguist for a dual purpose: to develop linguistics courses and to develop Spanish for Specific Purposes courses such as medical, business, and professional Spanish, as well as translation and interpretation courses. All of these courses (linguistics and SSP) were never intended to replace the existing literature and culture courses, but to expand the repertoire of offerings to cater to a larger pool of students and professional interests. The SSP courses were

received well very quickly, and therefore were offered on demand with regularity. Due to the success of these SSP courses and based on a carefully-designed needs assessment, the department decided that a certificate program was an optimal option for UAB and for the Birmingham community. The result is the Spanish for Specific Purposes Certificate, which is a Type A certificate program. The program requires the completion of a minimum of six classes (18 credits) in SSP, of which at least 12 credits must be at the advanced level. Students may choose classes within their professional track of interest (health care, business, or translation and interpreting), and they are required to take a Spanish phonetics and phonology course as well as a Spanish service-learning course for the completion of the SSPC requirements. The service-learning course must be taken towards the end of the program to ensure that students have the desired occupational language skills to function well while working with a community partner. Students must receive an A or B grade in all courses and maintain a minimum of 2.8 GPA in Spanish to maintain a “good standing” status. They can retake courses for a higher grade if necessary. The final program requirement is to pass ACTFL’s Oral Proficiency Interview by Computer (OPic) at the level of intermediate-mid or above. The vast majority of the students graduating from this program achieves this level.

L.M.P. – What are the emerging trends in teaching and research of Spanish for specific purposes?

L.S.L. – In my recent article “Spanish for the Professions” (Sánchez-Lopez 2019), I describe the SSP methodological trends that have recently arisen as a natural consequence of the evolution and advancement of the field. The first one, which is more traditional and more widely spread, advocates the offering of courses for specific professions (Spanish for business, health, law, social work, tourism, translation, interpretation professionals, etc.) as part of general Spanish programs or independent SSP programs (certificates, concentrations, degrees or postgraduate programs) to meet social and community needs (Doyle; King de Ramírez and Lafford; Lear). Based on a needs-analysis process, these courses and programs are developed to meet the specific needs of students, the community, and the global society at a specific moment. The second, more recent methodological trend

advocates the normalized and continued integration of professional language and cultural elements from beginning to end in the curricular design of general Spanish. The proponents of this curricular design advocate emic integration (i.e., from within) versus the separation of curricular designs (Abbot and Lear; Lafford, Abbot and Lear). In addition, within this trend, the search for points in common is advocated instead of the points of divergence between the objectives of learning Spanish for specific purposes and Spanish for general purposes (SGP) in order to design hybrid programs that respond to learner needs of the moment (Spaine Long) within a humanistic context. The third and most recent curricular trend, recognizes that there must be room for the positive coexistence of the two approaches previously discussed (separation and integration) throughout the curricular designs selected. As I propose in the aforementioned article, an ideal, proactive and adaptive Spanish curriculum is one that finds commonalities between SSP and SGP, and seamlessly integrates those elements throughout the entire curriculum design from beginning to end of the learning process, starting in secondary education (Spaine Long). This ideal Spanish curriculum also integrates communicative and intercultural SSP elements at all levels to provide students with leadership skills in order to strengthen their professional future, independently of profession or rank (Spaine Long; Uribe et al.). Separate SSP courses are integrated into the curriculum later in the program, once the communicative competence of the student is at the upper intermediate level and the student's professional interests are further defined.

L.M.P – Given your teaching and research trajectory, do you think that those who aspire to teach Spanish for specific purposes should have previous experience? What would be some recommendations that you would give to them?

L.S.L. – Many Spanish educators mistakenly believe that they are not qualified to teach a Spanish for specific purposes course because they are not specialists in the domain. They must realize that no one is expecting them to be content specialists, but rather language specialists who have an interest in the content. We must move away from the erroneous “Super Instructor” belief (Sabater; Sánchez-López) and realize that what we are doing is teaching the

language that we need to work in a professional context, not the content itself. As a starting point, I would direct the Spanish educators who aspire to teach Spanish for specific purposes to educate themselves in the field by reading some of the latest SSP publications. During the last three decades, the status, evolution, and development of Spanish for specific purposes have been documented. Of relevant importance are the recent monographs and monographic sections that have appeared on both sides of the Atlantic dedicated to the field. In the United States for example, the special issue "Curricular Changes for Spanish and Portuguese in a New Era" in *Hispania* (Spaine Long) explores how certain universities and programs face curricular changes based on those proposed by the Modern Language Association (MLA 2007) at the beginning of the 21st century. Notable is the special edition of the *Modern Language Journal* "Languages for Specific Purposes in a Global Context" (Lafford) where the evolution of the field is analyzed since the 1991 publication of the well-known Grosse and Voght's study. The digital volume *Scholarship and Teaching on Languages for Specific Purposes* (Sánchez-López 2013) develops important theoretical and practical concepts presented at the I ISLSP (University of Alabama at Birmingham 2012), such as the state of jobs in LSP in tertiary education in the United States. The special monographic issue of *Cuadernos de ALDEEU* "Spanish for the Professions and Other Specific Purposes" (Doyle and Gala) presents theoretical and curricular studies of a variety of topics related to SSP, such as, for example, the development of cultural intelligence in SSP, or the role of social networks in SSP. Another important publication is *Language for Specific Purposes: Trends in Curriculum Development* (Long). Developed from concepts presented in the II ISLSP (University of Colorado, Boulder, 2014), Long's work is, in my opinion, a great theoretical and methodological contribution to the field. The latest LSP volume published in the United States is *Transferable Skills for the 21st Century: Preparing Students for the Workplace through Languages for Specific Purposes* (King de Ramírez and Lafford), a must-read for language educators, administrators, and graduate students, as it provides readers with concrete resources and instructional examples adaptable to a myriad of educational contexts. At the same time, in Europe there are two handbooks of particular relevance: *Enseñanza y Aprendizaje de Español con Fines Específicos* (Aguirre Beltrán), and *Theory and Practice of*

Teaching-Learning Spanish for Specific Purposes (Robles Ávila and Sánchez Lobato). The first volume presents a general overview of SSP teaching and learning, from the foundations of SSP (general characteristics, particularities, lexical and terminological resources), to a theoretical-practical framework based on the organization of the teaching-learning process of Spanish academic and professional fields. The second describes and analyzes the specific purposes most requested by the students currently in Spain, such as Spanish for media, business, advertising, tourism, and the legal world. Finally, I would like to highlight *The Routledge Handbook of Hispanic Applied Linguistics* (Lacorte), which dedicates a wide variety of articles related to Spanish for and in the professions, such as service-learning, content-based programs, translation, interpretation, computational linguistics or medical forensic Spanish. All of these publications mentioned in both sides of the Atlantic represent an important collective effort to document the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which serves as an anchor and strengthens the field in the academic world. Any of the works mentioned could be an excellent point of departure for educators interested in teaching a course on Spanish for specific purposes.

L.M.P. – What are some of the barriers faced by the teaching and research of Spanish for specific purposes in the United States in the last 15 years?

L.S.L. – Similar to any academic discipline in development, Spanish for specific purposes also faces a series of documented challenges that affect to a greater or lesser extent the evolution of the field and, therefore, its teaching and learning. Some of these challenges are related to the need to yet finalize a theoretical framework; to expand the research agenda; to strengthen professional development; to establish graduate programs in the United States; to improve field recognition; to establish more interdisciplinary ties; and to integrate practical experience and service-learning as a fundamental and normalized part of the SSP curriculum (Doyle; Lafford; Lafford, Abbot and Lear; Ruggiero; Sánchez-López; Sánchez-López, Long and Lafford). However, with these challenges also come the benefits of the new disciplines for learners, instructors, universities, and communities. Some of these important benefits are:

- the enrichment of traditional Spanish programs with new students seeking the practical and applied use of language learning with a humanistic approach (Lafford, Abbot and Lear);
- the establishment of a rich and varied research agenda (pedagogical, theoretical and applied linguistics, and cultural studies) that will serve as an engine not only to develop and inform the pedagogy of the field, but also to develop internal and external interdisciplinary ties (Doyle; Lafford; Sánchez-López, Long and Lafford);
- the contribution of pedagogical flexibility to the instructor and curricular flexibility and creativity to the Spanish program (Sabater; Sánchez-López); and
- the establishment of valuable collaborations with members (companies and agencies) of the community through internships and service-learning, collaborations that can help promote the humanities, bring economic income to the department and the university, and offer mutual benefits to all participants (student, teacher and community partner) (Lear; Lafford, Abbot and Lear).

L.M.P. – You have been working in the field of languages for specific purposes for many years with pioneering publications that have helped to profile and project the discipline. From your point of view, how do you imagine the position of teaching and research of Spanish for specific purposes in the United States by 2035?

L.S.L. – As the presence of Spanish and the interest in the Spanish-speaking cultures continue to grow and expand worldwide, I believe that the future of Spanish teaching and learning is both exciting and invigorating. Grounded on the pillars of a critically important humanities and liberal arts setting, I believe that the future of Spanish is a balanced symbiosis between the concrete skill set of Spanish for specific purposes, the complex framework of intercultural (trans)competence, and the successful integration of professional experiential learning. These key elements must work in harmony to collectively achieve the specific purpose of the learner. However, as the demand for SSP programs continues to increase globally, there must be a parallel growth in SSP research to support informed best practice

instruction. SSP studies must engage in and develop comprehensive and rigorous scholarship necessary for the growth of the field. Thus, the SSP field will not achieve its meritorious level of recognition until both appropriate funding and research agendas increase, strengthen and solidify. SSP studies must become a post-graduate field of study within both liberal arts and teacher education programs to educate the next generation of scholars and teachers adequately and to move away from the self-training model. SSP pedagogical materials should be developed around specific tasks (not only texts) and authentic means of communication to resemble real-life situations. SSP course design must be flexible and adaptable to the needs of the learners and the frequent changes in the professional world. Finally, the number and the quality of scholarship-sharing venues (symposia, conference sessions, workshops and publications) in SSP studies must increase to ensure a prosperous future. Each and every one of these elements plays a vital role in the successful prospect of SSP. Practice and theory are not exclusive of one another, but rather they are complementary and mutually beneficial.

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BOOK REVIEWS



SPANISH FOR THE PROFESSIONS

FIRST EDITION

Marta Boris Tarré and Lori Celaya



Marta Boris Tarré and Lori Celaya. *Spanish for the Professions*. San Diego: Cognella Academic, 2016. Pp. 438. ISBN 978-1-51650-407-7.

During the last decade, instructors and coordinators of Spanish as a foreign language have witnessed a growing demand of Spanish for Specific Purposes (SSP) courses. Since the 2007 MLA's report, significant efforts have been made in designing new curricular materials as well as integrating service-learning activities to supplement the curricular needs of students of SSP, such as the mastery of jargon specific to various professions or the ability to communicate effectively in common situations at the workplace. Therefore, the use of pragmatic skills in SSP courses is oftentimes more important than grammatical knowledge, so as to avoid miscommunication and misunderstanding. Boris Tarré and Celaya's *Spanish for the Professions* has been strategically designed around this "focus on communication" principle, building on specific tasks that resemble real-life situations as much as possible. This textbook has been written for students who plan to pursue careers in a professional, Spanish-speaking setting within the United States or abroad.

The book consists of an introductory section, seven chapters centered around professions in which Spanish is most demanded, and two bilingual glossaries. The first portion of the book introduces the reader to the structure of each lesson and offers a selection of web links to the major newspapers of Spain and Latin America, allowing both instructors and students to search for specific pieces of information containing vocabulary learnt in each lesson. Additionally, two informative portions are included: "What can I do with a Spanish degree?" and "Potential employers", which briefly summarize the professional contexts where students can put this knowledge into use. Chapters 1 through 7 each address a specific job market area. The first chapter is dedicated to the legal system, the second to public health—further subdivided into three interrelated subsections: social services, the dentist's and the doctor's—, the third to banking and finances, the fourth to the community and law enforcement, the fifth to housing and real estate, the sixth to computing and technology, and the seventh to human resources.

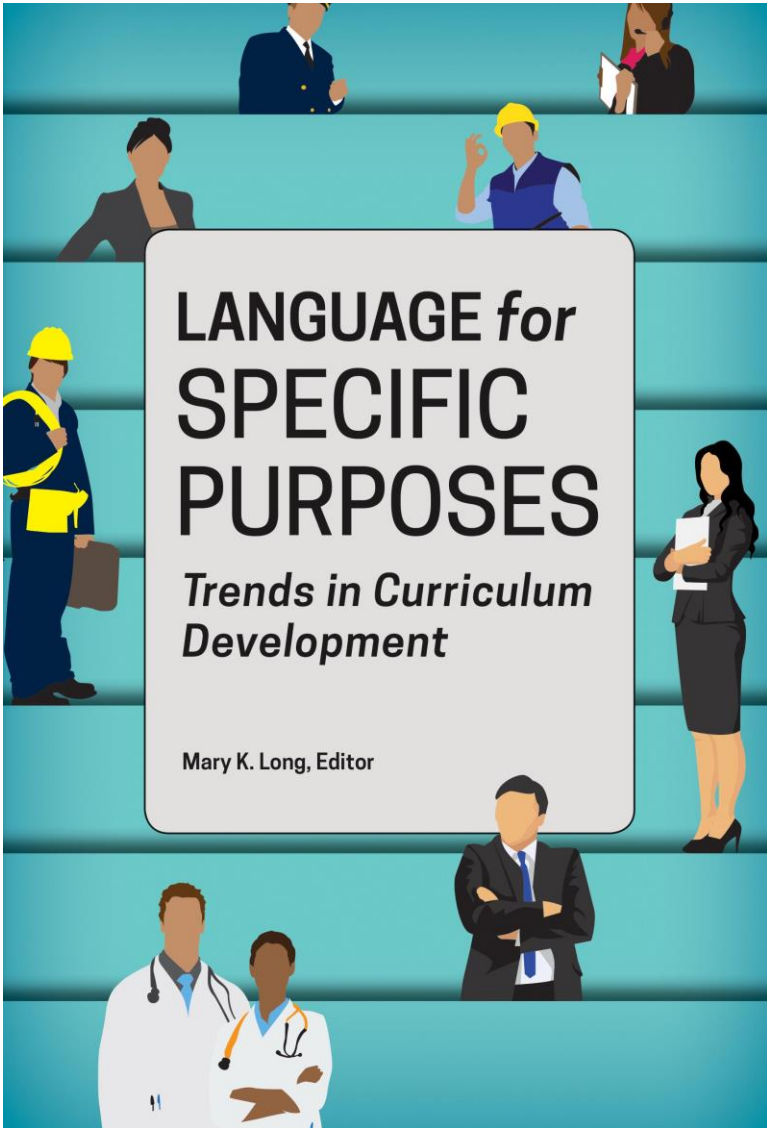
Each chapter is comprised of various types of assignments centered around each topic, allowing instructors to select those

that are most appropriate to the assessment needs. The common layout in each chapter is as follows: *Lecturas culturales* are short readings that include various sociocultural aspects of the Hispanic world in relation to the professions. These readings include a series of comprehension and discussion questions, which are expected to be completed in pairs. Accompanying these readings there are *Vocabulario* sections further arranged by subtopics, and translations of the more technical terms are found in the margins of these readings. Although the vocabulary is presented in isolation these lists are supported by communicative exercises to help students retain the terms while increasing proficiency. *Informes matutinos* are brief 3-5-minute-long reports in which a student presents a summarized news report and has to answer questions by her/his peers. Each chapter includes a grammar section, or *Gramática*, where specific topics (e.g., preterit vs. imperfect tense) are integrated and contextualized within the theme of the chapter. The *Relatividad Cultural* readings integrate specific topics of Spanish speaking culture with the focus of a given chapter, helping students understand the subtleties of Hispanic culture. The grammar, vocabulary and cultural nuances can be put to practice in *Diálogos profesionales*, an exercise in which students engage in communicative situations between two or more people. Another good practice is *¡A actuar!*, where students simulate roles in fictional situations. Other exercises concentrate on specific professional situations: in *¡A traducir!* exercises students translate portions of documents or situations related to the theme of the chapter, and *Conexión profesional* exercises contain interviews or articles followed by activities focusing on a professional in the field. Each chapter finishes with *¡A escribir!* writing exercises that follow the ACTFL guidelines: reading, prewriting and planning, drafting, sharing with peers and instructors, and revising.

Overall, the skills presented in *Spanish for the Professions* enable learners to effectively communicate with Spanish-speaking professionals. The authors do great efforts integrating various cultural topics and situations, granting learners pragmatic knowledge to successfully communicate in the majority of Spanish-speaking countries. This book is appropriate for immersion courses at the intermediate and advanced levels. The authors highlight the importance of creating a process for projects such as Mock Trials, Group Presentations, and Papers. To do so,

they suggest various step-by-step approaches to plan, organize and implement group projects. These guidelines help students to exert a more direct control and responsibility over their own learning process and facilitate—although it was not originally the intention of the authors—the creation of portfolios, which are useful to showcase the applicant’s language skills to potential employers. The material is rooted in sound research and concrete practices that meet learning objectives in the classroom and the real world. The Spanish presented is that used in everyday situations and the authors took care to treat predominantly practical topics within each chapter, so that students will not be wasting their time learning things that they will not use in real life. Any instructor or administrator interested in designing an SSP Program will find a wealth of useful information in this wide-ranging textbook.

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Mary K. Long, ed. *Language for Specific Purposes: Trends in Curriculum Development*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press, 2017. Pp. 199. ISBN 978-1-62616-419-2.

Language departments are offering an increasing number of languages for specific purposes (LSP) courses to fulfill student demand, but these do not come without challenges as evidenced by what little research is available on LSP. Addressing this gap, this volume, edited by Mary K. Long, is a collection of 10 essays by 19 authors chosen from research presented at the Second International Symposium on Languages for Specific Purposes held at The University of Colorado at Boulder in 2014. The first part of the book consists of six chapters that address the research needs of the field and proposes several possibilities for LSP courses including utilizing a service-learning component and the teaching of culture. The second part of the book switches its focus from students to the role of the instructor and provides valuable insight for teachers and professionals. The book culminates with two chapters on workplace realities addressing the usefulness of LSP in professional settings. This collection of articles will be of interest to professionals that work in bilingual or monolingual Spanish environments in the USA or abroad.

In Chapter 1, “New Directions in LSP Research in US Higher Education,” Lourdes Sánchez-López, Mary K. Long, and Barbara A. Lafford situate LSP as a research field in higher education in the United States and discuss the results of a survey aimed at collecting information about the research needs of this field. Both current and future LSP researchers agree that business and culture are the top two domains of LSP research. Sánchez-López, Long, and Lafford highlight that the majority of the survey respondents did not feel adequately prepared to carry out LSP research, something that future graduate programs could address particularly due to the need for LSP instructors. Those involved in curricular development will particularly benefit from this chapter.

The first part of the book, titled “New Direction in LSP Curriculum Development,” begins with Chapter 2, “Developing and Implementing LSP Curricula at the K-12 Level,” where Mary Risner, Melissa Swarr, Cristin Bleess, and Janet Graham highlight three new LSP courses offered at the high school level—Spanish for leadership, Spanish for healthcare, world language and business leadership. The article ends with suggestions for teachers

who wish to incorporate LSP into the curriculum. In Chapter 3, “Preparing Students for the Workplace: Heritage Learners’ Experiences in Professional Community Internships” by Carmen King de Ramírez, discusses the implementation of LSP with a service-learning component for heritage language learners (HLLs). The self-reported data reveals improvement in written skills, professional vocabulary and cultural competence. More research is needed to confirm these results with an increased number of participants in a variety of LSP contexts. In Chapter 4, “Developing Intercultural Competence and Leadership through LSP Curricula,” LeAnn derby, Jean W. LeLoup, James Rasmussen, and Ismênia Sales de Souza describe a teaching and learning experiment involving several participants across four languages involving the use of cultural scenarios to improve intercultural competence and leadership for cadets at the Airforce Academy. The authors concluded that these scenarios helped students learn more about leadership in different cultures. These scenarios and other materials from their study can be downloaded on the book’s website, which could be of great use to other teachers. In Chapter 5, “Developing a More Efficient Conversation Paradigm for Learning Foreign Languages: Lessons on Asking and Answering Questions in an LSP Context,” Robert A. Quinn pushes for a new verb paradigm that highlights the verbs used to ask and answer a question instead of listing the more traditional verb conjugation list. The ability to form questions and answers is an essential skill for any profession and therefore essential to LSP courses. The first part of the book concludes with Chapter 6, “Integrating Project-Based Learning into English for Specific-Purposes Classrooms: A Case Study of Engineering,” in which Tatiana Nekrasova-Beker and Anthony Becker describe project-based learning for an introductory engineering course for students learning English. This chapter is useful for those wanting to introduce such learning in their classrooms and can transfer to courses in other languages and subjects. The process involves student-centered learning, focusing on areas where students need improvement. Most of this first part of the book focuses on Spanish, with a few other languages explored in Chapter 4, “Developing Intercultural Competence and Leadership through LSP Curricula”, and Chapter 6, “Integrating Project-Based Learning into English for Specific-Purposes Classrooms: A Case Study of Engineering.”

The second part of the book, titled “Rethinking Instructor Roles,” commences with Chapter 7, “The Instructor's and Learner's Roles in Learning Arabic for Specific Purposes,” in which El-Hussein Aly addresses the role of students and instructors in Arabic for Specific Purposes courses. Despite the fact that there was no control group and few participants, the author noted the many roles played by the instructor and the active role the students played as learners. In Chapter 8, “LSP Educators as Informal Career Counselors,” Annie Abbott provides opportunities to mitigate the work of LSP educators as informal career counsellors by collecting existing content pertaining to career advice and putting it in one easy to access online space. Other solutions were to involve students in the creation of online blogs and to use screencasts in a flipped classroom to deliver content to students.

The final part of the book, titled “Exploring Workplace Realities,” addresses workplace settings. This section begins with Chapter 9, “Court Interpretation of an Indigenous Language: The Experiences of an Unexpected LSP Participant,” which is based on Mary Jill Brody’s personal experiences as an interpreter of a Latin American indigenous language. Brody describes the realities of interpreting and concludes with practical suggestions for making the interpreting process easier. Much of the advice offered could be applied to more commonly spoken languages too. This chapter will be of interest to interpreters and translators. In Chapter 10, “Señor Google and Spanish Workplace Information Practices: Information Literacy in a Multilingual World,” Alison Hicks a librarian, interviewed 12 participants in Colorado, Argentina, and Chile to make comparisons about information literacy in the workplace. These interviews were later used in the classroom to show students how professionals gather information utilizing personal contacts and textual sources. The students then compared their own learning networks to those of the professionals interviewed. Hicks found that the students relied on textual sources for academic work and concluded that they may need further instruction on how to make and use personal connections.

While LSP has often been neglected from the mainstream language and literature courses (or majors/minors) in world languages in higher education, the chapters in this book position LSP in a more traditional humanities curriculum. The editor, Mary

K. Long, explains that courses that involve LSP typically utilize discourse analysis to discuss issues in specific fields and offer unique cultural perspectives while meeting the students' specific professional needs. Long notes that future work on LSP should address how to bridge the gap between university and workplace in terms of the knowledge and skills needed to enter the workplace after academic coursework is completed.

This book has various positive aspects. First, the breadth of topics discussed within LSP demonstrates the vast possibilities available within this field to research. The empirical articles found in five chapters (1, 3, 4, 7, 10) will be of interest to researchers. Second, each article is clearly written and will be understood by a variety of audiences not limited to academics. More specifically, five chapters (2, 3, 4, 5, 10) will be of interest to Spanish teachers for use in their classrooms. Third, not only is the history of LSP in the USA and UK discussed, but future research is articulated, which will no doubt advance the field even more. Finally, connections are made between the classroom and real-world contexts. This book leaves many possibilities for avenues for future investigations within LSP to improve both teaching and research within this field.

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Community-based Language Learning

A Framework for Educators

JOAN CLIFFORD and DEBORAH S. REISINGER

Joan Clifford and Deborah S. Reisinger. *Community-Based Language Learning*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press, 2019. Pp. 207. ISBN 978-1-62616-636-3.

The multi-faceted process of acquiring language proficiency and intercultural communicative competence is one of the most urgent and valuable steps students can take to become responsive world citizens and successful professionals. *Community-based Language Learning: A Framework for Educators* by Joan Clifford and Deborah S. Reisinger provides a compelling philosophy and outstanding tools for developing programs in which students simultaneously acquire language proficiency, intercultural communicative competence, and social justice consciousness through engagement with local communities using languages other than English. Original and timely, the volume maps out a path for meeting 21st Century educational and civic needs. The volume is divided into six chapters with an appendix of substantive supporting materials and extensive bibliography and thus provides language educators with a historically and theoretically-grounded overview of the field as well as pragmatic steps for developing their own community-based language learning (CBLL) courses and programs.

The first chapter, “A Theoretical Framework for CBLL” provides a thorough presentation of a variety of community-based (CBL) learning models, such as service learning, international service learning, and global service learning and situates CBLL within this framework, clearly delineating the ways CBLL overlaps with and differs from CBL models carried out in English. The authors also provide a concise and illuminating explanation of the ways in which learning theories and models by Bloom, Kolb, Dewy, and Freire inform CBLL while also defining the role of critical pedagogy in CBLL. They provide convincing views on the importance of transformational learning processes and refreshing awareness of the need to view community work as a collaboration between equal partners. Further insights (for example the fact that cultural nuances extend not only to language and national origin, but also to concepts about volunteer work and the role of volunteers in community structures) give the reader crucial awareness of the preparation work that must be carried out before taking students into the community. The last section of this chapter articulates clearly the potential of CBLL to lead students

to reflect on the tensions between a dominant neo-liberal model of citizenship based on competition and consumer identities and “earlier definitions of citizenry that valorize social equity” (23).

Chapters 2 and 3 provide readers with detailed steps for creating CBLL programs through a consideration of student learning outcomes and assessment design. The authors advocate for an “intentional” and “backward” design approach that first articulates desired student outcomes and subsequently determines “acceptable evidence” of those outcomes and from there moves on to planning “learning experiences and instruction” (33). In Chapter 2, the authors again emphasize the key role of community partners in the design process and cautions educators about the need to be aware that volunteers can be “both an asset and a burden to community organizations” (37). Subsequently the chapter provides historical and theoretical considerations of two of the key desired student outcomes, namely Intercultural Communicative Competence and language proficiency, and delineates the unique potential of CBLL to facilitate success in these areas. The last part of the chapter situates CBLL within the context of the communication modes of ACTFLs “Five Cs.” Chapter 3 expands on chapter 2 through a multifaceted discussion of assessment design taking into account: the roles of multiple stakeholders, the integration of “critical reflections” into the continuum of assessment, examples of incorporation of the three modes of communication, and considerations of appropriate assessment designs for students, teachers, communities, and programs. The chapter closes by situating this discussion within insights about the importance assessment plays in higher education for solidifying awareness of the success and value of CBLL programs that will “justify the resources that they require” (97).

The second half of the book moves deeper into the richness of the transformative educational opportunities available through CBLL. Chapter 4, “Identity, Language, and Power” enables readers to “explore student’s personal assumptions about identity, problematize categorizations of language communities, summarize the historical and political significance of language for US identity, explain how different students perceive power relationships and include discussions of power and privilege in the CBLL curriculum” (99). Chapter 5, “Dissonance, Resistance, and Transformative Learning,” first explains Mezirow’s and Keiley’s

theories of transformative learning and then explores in detail the benefits and challenges of “dissonance that leads to transformation” (124). Readers learn to identify common triggers of resistance and dissonance for both students and teachers and are made aware of dangers for students from “unhealthy dissonance” (124). Chapter 6 lays the ground work for the creation of “Authentic and Ethical Partnerships” through discussion of best practices of authentic community relationships that take into consideration transactional and transformational partnerships, reciprocity, solidarity, and general ethical behavior including compassion and humility. These chapters provide material for deep considerations and reflections on the part of instructors about their own roles in the creation of a society that values justice and equality.

Throughout the book, theoretical themes and pedagogical frameworks are complemented by pertinent real-life stories from the authors’ extensive experience with CBLL courses. The inclusion of such richly illustrative examples, combined with pre-chapter lists of learning goals and insets with suggested reflections for instructors and activities for students provide the necessary “how-to” guidance for readers interested in creating their own CBLL course or program. The materials in the appendix provide further support for implementation of the valuable educational mission presented in this volume.

In conclusion, *Community-Based Language Learning: A Framework for Educators* is both timely and timeless. It responds with compelling convictions to current societal and educational dialogues around valuing and understanding multi-cultural, multi-lingual societies. In an era where educational institutions seek to create greater student retention and success through high-impact teaching, the methods and theories presented here are an invaluable archive of past practices and a bridge to future work. This volume will prove to be a significant resource to both new and seasoned instructors for years to come.

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