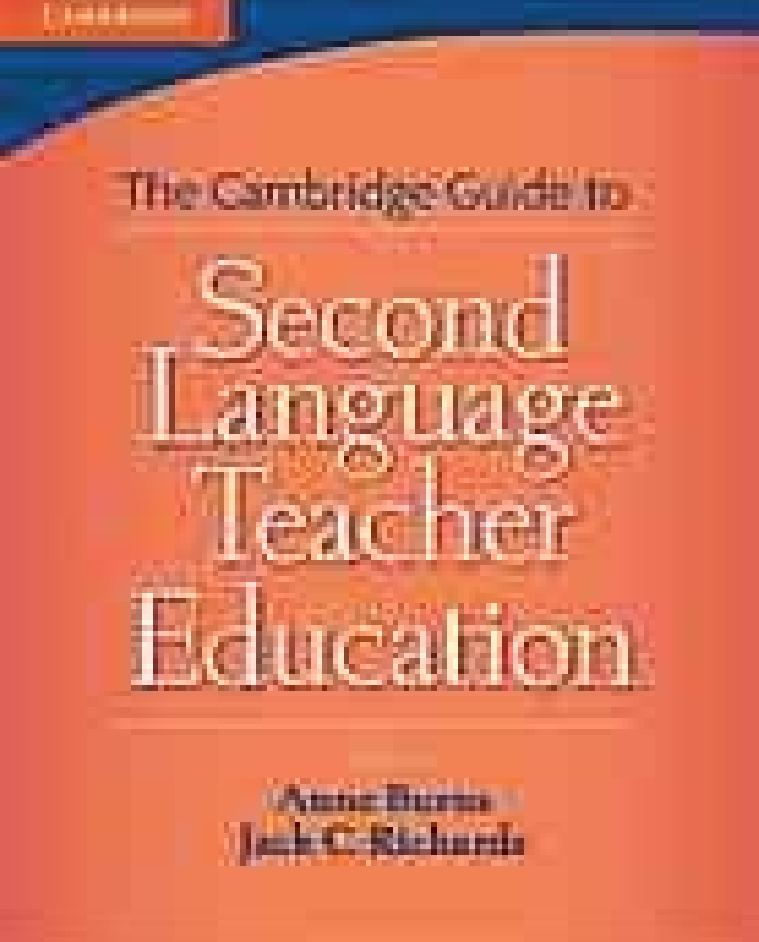

The Cambridge Guide to
Second Language Teacher Education
Anne Burns
Jack C. Richards

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Second Language Teacher Education

Edited by
Anne Burns
Jack C. Richards

CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS
Cambridge, New York, Melbourne, Madrid, Cape Town, Singapore, São Paulo, Delhi

Cambridge University Press
32 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10013-2473, USA

www.cambridge.org
Information on this title: www.cambridge.org/9780521756846

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First published 2009

Printed in the United States of America

A catalog record for this publication is available from the British Library

ISBN 978-0-521-76012-6 hardback
ISBN 978-0-521-75684-6 paperback

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PREFACE

The impetus for this book arose from a course we taught jointly in 2006 as part of a professional doctorate program in applied linguistics from Macquarie University in Sydney, Australia, to a group of Mexican doctoral students meeting at the designated teaching location in the Benemérita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla, Mexico. In organizing the course content around a selection of key readings on second language teacher education (SLTE), we realized that there were few volumes available that presented a collection offering a broad and contemporary overview of current debates in this field. It became apparent that a volume of the present kind would provide a valuable introduction for those who are both specialist readers and new practitioners interested in developments in the field of SLTE. It would build on an early collection of work in this area (Richards and Nunan 1990) in that it would provide a state-of-the-art survey of current issues, debates, and approaches in contemporary SLTE. We are grateful to our Mexican students for warmly supporting this idea when we first broached it with them, for their enthusiasm in discussing their own concerns and interests in SLTE, and for their anticipation of the publication of this collection.

The field of SLTE has now become well established within applied linguistics and TESOL. Many undergraduate degrees now offer one or more courses in SLTE, and there are also masters and other postgraduate courses with SLTE as a primary focus.

We anticipate that the readership for the volume will be those with a broad interest in SLTE issues – preservice and in-service teachers, including those completing undergraduate and postgraduate programs, teacher trainers and educators, professional development coordinators and administrators, and researchers and academics interested in knowing more about current approaches, theories, and practices.

In putting together the volume, we envisaged it as a companion to the *Cambridge Guide to TESOL* (Nunan and Carter 2001), which similarly offers a survey of current debates. The *Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education* comprises 30 original chapters by key writers working and researching in the field of SLTE. The chapters are grouped into seven thematic sections. As we deliberated on the structure, we also found that this field is complex with overlapping trends, issues, and perspectives, such that readers will find echoes of other chapters in many of the contributions. Nevertheless, the compilation of the contributions into the various sections offers readers a way of focusing from discussion of the broader scope and trends in SLTE to the more specific areas that constitute the different dimensions of theory, research, and practice. Each section is prefaced by an overview that summarizes the key issues raised by the chapter authors. In order to provide a synthesis of themes currently occupying the SLTE field, our introductory chapter draws out the trends noted across the whole volume and points to the specific chapter contributions that take the initial discussion points further.

We hope that this volume will be seen as a valuable contribution to the applied linguistics and English language teaching field, synthesizing current practices, theoretical

insights, and future directions for research endeavors in the developing field of second language teacher education and professionalism in general.

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February 2009

INTRODUCTION

Second Language Teacher Education

Anne Burns and Jack C. Richards

One of the simple facts of life in the present time is that the English language skills of a good proportion of its citizenry are seen as vital if a country is to participate actively in the global economy and to have access to the information and knowledge that provide the basis for both social and economic development. Central to this enterprise are English teaching and English language teachers. There is consequently increasing demand worldwide for competent English teachers and for more effective approaches to their preparation and professional development.

This book brings together key issues and debates in teacher education for language teachers. To provide an orientation to and overview of the book in this section, we will examine the major trends in second language teacher education today and identify some of the key issues that are shaping the way second language teacher education (SLTE) is currently conceptualized and realized.

The field of SLTE has been shaped in its development by its response to two issues. One might be called internally initiated change, that is, the teaching profession gradually evolving a changed understanding of its own essential knowledge base and associated instructional practices through the efforts of applied linguists and specialists in the field of second language teaching and teacher education. Much of the debate and discussion featured in the professional literature in recent years and in this volume, for example, is an entirely internal debate, unlikely to interest those outside the walls of academic institutions. The emergence of such issues as reflective practice (Chapter 30, Burton), critical pedagogy (Chapter 3, Hawkins and Norton), knowledge about language (Chapter 12, Bartels) and teacher identity (Chapter 17, Miller), for example, arose from within the profession largely as a result of self-imposed initiatives.

At the same time, the development of SLTE has also been impacted by external pressures, for example, by globalization and the need for English as a language of international trade and communication, which has brought with it the demand by national educational authorities for new language teaching policies, for greater central control over teaching and teacher education, and for standards and other forms of accountability (see Sections 1 and 2).

The Common European Framework is an example of the profession attempting to respond to external pressures of this kind.

The Growth of SLTE

The field of TESOL is relatively new and, in the form that we know it today, dates from the 1960s. The origins of specific approaches to teacher training began with short training programs and certificates dating from this period, designed to give prospective teachers the practical classroom skills needed to teach new methods such as Audiolingualism and Situational Language Teaching. The discipline of applied linguistics dates from the same period, and with it came a body of specialized academic knowledge and theory that provided the foundation of the new discipline. This knowledge was represented in the curricula of Masters programs, which began to be offered from this time that typically contained courses in language analysis, learning theory, methodology, and sometimes a teaching practicum.

The relationship between practical teaching skills and academic knowledge and their representation in SLTE programs has generated a debate ever since (Chapter 2, Johnson). In the 1990s the practice versus theory distinction was sometimes resolved by distinguishing teacher training from teacher development, the former being identified with entry-level teaching skills linked to a specific teaching context, and the latter to the longer-term development of the individual teacher over time. Good teaching was seen as the mastery of a set of skills or competencies. Teacher-training qualifications such as the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) were typically offered by teacher training colleges or by organizations such as the British Council. Teacher development, on the other hand, meant mastering the discipline of applied linguistics. Qualifications in teacher development, typically the Masters degree, were offered by universities, where the practical skills of language teaching were often undervalued.

Recently, the contrast between training and development has been replaced by a reconsideration of the nature of teacher learning, which is viewed as a form of socialization into the professional thinking and practices of a community of practice (Chapter 19, Tsui; Chapter 20, Singh and Richards). SLTE is now also influenced by perspectives drawn from sociocultural theory (Lantolf 2000) and the field of teacher cognition (Chapter 16, Borg). The knowledge base of teaching has also been reexamined with a questioning of the traditional positioning of the language-based disciplines as the major foundation for SLTE (Chapter 1, Freeman; Chapter 2, Johnson). At the same time, it has also been affected by external factors – by the need to respond to the status of English as an international language and the demand worldwide for a practical command of English language skills.

The Professionalization of Language Teaching

A common observation is that there is a much higher level of professionalism in ELT today than existed previously. The meaning here is threefold: ELT is seen as a career in a field of educational specialization; it requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience; and it is a field of work where membership is based on entry requirements and standards (Chapter 6, Barduhn and Johnson; Chapter 7, Katz and Snow). The professionalism of English teaching (Chapter 5, Leung) is seen in the growth industry devoted to providing language teachers with professional training and qualifications, in continuous attempts to develop standards for English language teaching and for English language teachers, to the proliferation of professional journals and teacher

magazines, conferences, and professional organizations; to attempts in many places to require nonnative speaker English teachers to demonstrate their level of proficiency in English as a component of certification (Chapter 9, Kamhi-Stein); to the demand for professional qualifications for native-speaker teachers; and to the greater level of sophisticated knowledge of language teaching (Chapter 14, Hedgcock) and language acquisition (Chapter 13, Ellis) required of English teachers. Becoming an English language teacher means becoming part of a worldwide community of professionals with shared goals, values, discourse, and practices but one with a self-critical view of its own practices and a commitment to a transformative approach to its own role.

The focus on professionalism may mean different things in different places. In some it may mean acquiring qualifications recognized by local educational authorities or by international professional organizations and attaining standards mandated by such bodies. It may also mean behaving in accordance with the rules and norms that prevail in their context of work, even if the teacher does not fully support such norms, such as when a teacher is told to "teach to the test" rather than create his or her own learning pathway. However, recent years have seen a wide variety of procedures through which teachers can engage in critical and reflective review of their own practices, for example, through developing personal practical knowledge (Chapter 15, Golombek), peer- and self-monitoring (Chapter 27, Bailey), mentoring (Chapter 26, Malderez), teacher collaboration and support groups (Chapter 24, Johnston), and action research (Chapter 29, Burns).

The Knowledge Base of SLTE

As noted previously, there have traditionally been two strands within the field of SLTE – one focusing on classroom teaching skills and pedagogic issues, and the other focusing on academic underpinnings of classroom skills, namely knowledge about language and language learning. The relationship between the two has often been problematic. This issue has sometimes been clarified by contrasting two differing kinds of knowledge – *knowledge about* and *knowledge how*. Knowledge about, or *content knowledge*, provides what is the established core curriculum of SLTE programs, particularly at graduate level, where course work on topics such as language analysis, discourse analysis, phonology, curriculum development, and methodology is standard. Language-based courses provided the academic content, and methodology courses showed teachers how to teach it. An unquestioned assumption was that such knowledge informs teachers' classroom practices. Recent research, however (e.g., Bartels 2005), shows that teachers in fact often fail to apply such knowledge in practice.

The distinction between explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge throws some light on the concepts of knowledge about and knowledge how. Implicit knowledge covers a wide range of terms (e.g., *principles*, *practitioner knowledge*, *personal theories*, *maxims*) that have been used in the literature to refer to the beliefs, theories, and knowledge that underlie teachers' practical actions (Richards 1996; Chapter 16, Borg). Central to *knowledge how* are concepts such as pedagogical content knowledge (the capacity to transform content into accessible and learnable forms) and practical knowledge, both of which refer to the knowledge and thinking that teachers make use of in facilitating learning in their classrooms and that belong to a third strand that has often been missing from formulations of the core content of SLTE – namely, the nature of teaching itself. Rather than the Masters course being a survey of issues in applied linguistics drawing from the traditional disciplinary sources, course work in areas such as reflective teaching, classroom research, and action research now form parts of the core curriculum in many TESOL programs and seek to expand the traditional knowledge base of language teaching.

The Nature of Teacher Learning

A focus on the nature of teacher learning has been central to a rethinking of both the content and delivery of SLTE programs. Teacher learning from traditional perspectives was seen as a cognitive issue, something the learner did on his or her own. Traditionally the problem of teacher learning was hence often viewed as a question of improving the effectiveness of delivery. The failure of teachers to "acquire" what was taught was seen as a problem of overcoming teachers' resistance to change (Chapter 20, Singh and Richards). A focus on teacher learning as a field of inquiry, however, seeks to examine the mental processes involved in teacher learning and acknowledges the "situated" and the social nature of learning (Lave and Wenger 1991). From this perspective, learning takes place in a context and evolves through the interaction and participation of the participants in that context. Teacher learning is not viewed as translating knowledge and theories into practice but rather as constructing new knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts and engaging in particular types of activities and processes. This latter type of knowledge, sometimes called "practitioner knowledge," is the source of teachers' practices and understandings.

While traditional views of teacher learning often viewed the teachers' task as the application of theory to practice, more recent views see teacher learning as the theorization of practice; in other words, making visible the nature of practitioner knowledge and providing the means by which such knowledge can be elaborated, understood, and reviewed (Chapter 11, Graves). In practical terms this has led to a reconsideration of traditional modes of teaching in SLTE programs and a focus on context involving communities of learners engaged in social practices and the collaborative construction of meanings. Key to the teacher learning processes are the roles of participants, the discourses they create and participate in, the activities that take place, and the artifacts and resources that are employed. All of these shape the nature of the learning that occurs. Learning is seen to emerge through social interaction within a community of practice.

The Role of Context in Teacher Learning

Sociocultural perspectives on learning emphasize that learning is situated, that is, takes place in specific settings or contexts that shape how learning takes place. Teacher learning contexts, whether in the course room (Chapter 20, Singh and Richards); through distance education (Chapter 22, Hall and Knox); the school (Chapter 21, Legutke and Schocker-v. Ditfurth); or virtually, through technology (Chapter 23, Reinders) are settings for patterns of social participation that can either enhance or inhibit learning. Learning and the development of expertise (Chapter 19, Tsui) also occur through the practice and experience of teaching. Both involve induction to communities of practice, Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept for learning that takes place within organizational settings, which is socially constituted and which involves participants with a common interest collaborating to develop new knowledge and skills. For novice teachers, their professional development involves socialization into the profession and adjusting their roles according to the teacher–learner needs (Chapter 18, Farrell).

Typically the campus-based program (in the case of preservice teacher education) is seen as the start of the teacher's professional development, subsequent learning taking place in the school through classroom experience, working with mentors (Chapter 26, Malderez), and other school-based initiatives. In SLTE programs, making connections between campus-based and school-based learning through the teaching practicum (Chapter 25, Gebhard) is also important as student-teachers often perceive a gap between the theoretical course work offered on campus and the practical school-based component.

The Role of Teacher Cognition

An interest in teacher cognition entered SLTE from the field of general education and brought with it a similar focus on teacher decision making, on teachers' theories of teaching, teachers' representations of subject matter, and the problem solving and improvisational skills employed by teachers with different levels of teaching experience during teaching. Constructs such as teachers' practical knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge, and personal theories of teaching noted previously are now established components of our understanding of teacher cognition. From the perspective of teacher cognition (Chapter 16, Borg), teaching is not simply the application of knowledge and of learned skills. It is viewed as a much more complex, cognitively driven process affected by the classroom context, the teacher's general and specific instructional goals, the learners' motivations and reactions to the lesson, and the teacher's management of critical moments during a lesson. At the same time, teaching reflects the teacher's personal response to such issues, hence teacher cognition is very much concerned with teachers' personal and "situated" approaches to teaching. In SLTE programs a focus on teacher cognition can be realized through questionnaires and self-reporting inventories in which teachers describe beliefs and principles; through interviews and other procedures in which teachers verbalize their thinking and understanding of pedagogic incidents and issues; through observation, either of one's own lessons or those of other teachers, and through reflective writing in the form of journals, narratives, or other forms of written report.

A Focus on Teacher Identity

A sociocultural perspective on teacher learning posits a central aspect of this process as the reshaping of identity and identities within the social interaction of the classroom (Chapter 17, Miller). Identity refers to the differing social and cultural roles teacher–learners enact through their interactions with lecturers and other students during the process of learning. These roles are not static but emerge through the social processes of the classroom. Identity may be shaped by many factors, including personal biography, gender, culture, working conditions, age, and the school and classroom culture. The concept of identity thus reflects how individuals see themselves and how they enact their roles within different settings. In an SLTE program a teacher–learner's identity is remade through the acquisition of new modes of discourse and new roles in and through the learning context. Teacher learning thus involves not only discovering more about the skills and knowledge of language teaching but also what it means to be a language teacher. Teacher–learners negotiate their identity through the unfolding social interaction of a particular situated community, in relation to its specific activities and relationships.

Native-speaker and nonnative-speaker teacher–learners may bring different identities to teacher learning and to teaching. For example, untrained native speakers teaching EFL overseas are sometimes credited with an identity they are not really entitled to (the "native speaker as expert syndrome"), finding that they have a status and credibility that they would not normally achieve in their own country. In language institutes, students may express a preference to study with native-speaker teachers, despite the fact that such teachers may be less qualified and less experienced than nonnative-speaker teachers. For nonnative-speaking teachers studying in SLTE programs, identity issues may lead some to feel disadvantaged compared to native-speaker teachers in the same course (Chapter 9, Kamhi-Stein). Whereas in their own country they were perceived as experienced and highly competent professionals, they now find themselves at a disadvantage and may experience feelings of anxiety and inadequacy. They may have a sense of inadequate language proficiency, and

their unfamiliarity with the learning styles found in British or North American university contexts may hinder their participation in some classroom activities.

A Rethinking of Teaching Methods and Strategies

The sociocultural view of learning previously outlined moves beyond the view of the teacher as an individual entity attempting to master content knowledge and unravel the hidden dimensions of his or her own teaching and views learning as a social process. Rather than teaching being viewed as the transfer of knowledge, a sociocultural perspective views it as creating conditions for the coconstruction of knowledge and understanding through social participation. There are several forms such participation may take. One strategy is known as dialogic teaching, that is, teaching that centers around conversations with other teachers focusing on teaching and learning issues during which teachers examine their own beliefs and practices and engage in collaborative planning, problem solving, and decision making (Chapter 24, Johnston). It is often through dialog that teacher–learners create and experience different representations of themselves. This may take the form of both spoken dialog in group conversations as well as through journals or online dialog.

For student-teachers used to more transmission-oriented teaching styles however, dialogic modes of teaching raise issues of identity, power, and agency. "Learning how to talk" is essential in order to participate in a community of practice. It involves learning to share ideas with others and to listen without judgement, and like other forms of collaborative learning, may require modeling and rules if it is to be successful. Key concepts in a collaborative approach to learning are Vygotsky's notions of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and mediation. These two constructs present a view of learning as a process of "apprenticeship," where apprentices collaborate in social practices with teacher educators as well as mentors, critical friends, and peers to acquire and construct new forms of interaction and thinking (Vygotsky 1978). Working in collaboration on classroom tasks offers many benefits including exchanging ideas and experiences, developing professional discourses, and reducing isolation.

In addition to collaborative forms of teacher development, professional development is also increasingly viewed as something which is self-directed, inquiry-based, and directly relevant to teacher's professional lives. The site for such inquiry is the teacher's own classroom, either through the teacher's own efforts or in collaboration with supervisors, university researchers, or other teachers. This often takes the form of action research or other research-based activities (Chapter 29, Burns; Chapter 28, McKay).

The growing demand for SLTE courses as a consequence of the spread of English worldwide has also created a need for new ways of delivery of teacher education courses. Advances in technology have provided new opportunities for both traditional forms of campus-based teaching (e.g., Internet-based resources) as well as for distance teaching through online learning. These new forms of delivery allow for the development of teacher networks that cross regional and national boundaries, establishing globalized communities of teachers who can bring their own cultural, social, professional, and personal experiences into the SLTE process (Chapter 22, Hall and Knox).

The Need for Accountability

The scope of English teaching worldwide and the subsequent growth of SLTE programs has created a demand for greater accountability in SLTE practices and in the assessment of teachers (Chapter 8, Freeman, Orzulak, and Morrisey). What constitutes a quality SLTE

program in terms of its curriculum, the teaching methods that it gives rise to, and the kinds of teachers that the program produces? What competencies do the graduates of such programs possess? What competencies and forms of training do the trainers and educators of English language teachers need? These kinds of questions are very difficult to answer since there are no widely accepted definitions of concepts of "quality" in SLTE, and likewise there is no internationally recognized specification of English language teacher and English language teacher educator competencies (Chapter 10, Wright). One way to approach the issue of accountability is through the identification of standards for SLTE programs (Chapter 7, Katz and Snow). The standards movement has taken hold in many parts of the world and promotes the adoption of clear statements of instructional outcomes in educational programs as a way of improving learning outcomes in programs and to provide guidelines for program development, curriculum development, and assessment. Critics of such an approach argue that the standards themselves are largely based on intuition and are not research based, and also that the standards movement has been brought into education from the fields of business and organizational management and reflects a reductionist approach in which learning is reduced to the mastery of discrete skills that can easily be taught and assessed.

Critical Language Teacher Education

The field of SLTE, as with other areas of language teaching, has also been influenced by issues posed by *critical theory* and *critical pedagogy*, prompting reflection on the *hidden curriculum* that sometimes underlies language teaching polices and practices (Chapter 3, Hawkins and Norton). English language teaching it is argued, is not a politically or morally neutral activity. Mastery of English, it is claimed, often enhances the power and control of a privileged few, and in addition, English language teaching often consumes an inordinate amount of the scarce educational resources of many countries. Globalization and the spread of English raise the need for SLTE programs to engage teachers in an exploration of the political status of English in today's world, the role it can play in maintaining positions of privilege and inequality, and the role the notion of "native speaker" has played in TESOL theory and practice. Language teachers have a particular role to play in promoting their learners' fuller participation in classrooms and communities.

From this perspective, language teachers are not simply teaching language as a neutral vehicle for the expression of meanings and ideas, but should be engaged both in reflecting upon the ideological forces that are present in their classrooms, schools, and communities and in empowering their learners with the language knowledge and skills they need to be able to function as moral agents in society. At the practical level, critical pedagogues would argue that this involves choosing developing curricula and choosing materials and activities that raise students' awareness of sociopolitical as well as ethical issues and problems (Giroux 1988).

In second language contexts, critical language teacher education implies raising teachers' awareness of power relations inside and outside the classroom, encouraging critical self-reflection activities on teacher roles and identities, and seeking critically informed ways to enhance classroom learning opportunities.

Conclusion

The field of Second Language Teacher Education has expanded considerably both in breath and in depth since its origins in training approaches associated with the major

teaching methods of the 1960s and 1970s (Chapter 10, Wright). Through the efforts of scholars and researchers on the one hand, the field has redefined its goals, its scope, its conceptual frameworks, and its teaching methods. And on the other hand, growing demand for effective SLTE programs in response to worldwide expansion in the use of English has highlighted the need for a coordinated organizational response, which has lead to the demand for greater accountability through standards, curriculum renewal, professionalism, and the development of internationally recognized qualifications for language teachers. SLTE today is consequently a vital component of the field of TESOL and makes a vital contribution to our understanding of what lies at the core of this enterprise, namely, teachers, teaching, and the nature of teacher education.

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SECTION I

THE LANDSCAPES OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

The chapters that follow provide an introductory overview of some of the main themes in second language teacher education. Many of these are taken up and elaborated upon in subsequent sections of this volume.

In Chapter 1, Freeman begins the overview by mapping out the broad trajectories and terrains of SLTE over the last half century. He conceptualizes the scope of contemporary SLTE as encompassing three dimensions of *substance*, *engagement*, and *outcomes / influences* in order to map past and present practices and signal new conceptual and theoretical developmental directions. Freeman's chapter sets the scene and raises many key themes that are subsequently taken up and expanded by other chapters in the book.

Following on from Freeman's broad conceptualizations of the scope of SLTE, Johnson (Chapter 2) identifies significant trends in SLTE arising from changing epistemological perspectives on learning and teaching. They encompass the knowledge base of teaching, the recognition of the legitimacy of teachers' practical knowledge, the sociocultural turn that has seen the broadening of definitions of language and second language acquisition, and changes in the nature of what constitutes language teacher professional development. She signals explorations of the impact of new forms of professional development, and the relationships between teacher learning and student learning as the next frontiers for development.

Extending one of the themes raised by Johnson, Chapter 3 by Hawkins and Norton considers how the impact of sociocultural perpectives has necessitated consideration of critical approaches to SLTE. While considering that the notions of *critical* and *critical second language teacher education* are hard to define, they identify the core concern with social action and empowerment through educational change. Accounts of CSLTE

are still rare in the language education field. However, Hawkins and Norton offer an heuristic and examples of three types – *critical awareness*, *critical self-reflection*, and *critical pedagogical relations* – which highlight the notions and characteristics of current practice and praxis.

In Chapter 4, Franson and Holliday argue that teacher education programs urgently need to include a focus on the social and cultural position of English in the world. A paradigm shift is required in most current forms of SLTE so that novice teachers in particular are introduced to "de-centered," or "locality-driven," approaches. De-centered approaches mean turning away from stereotypical representations of local cultures of learning toward ways to enable teachers to "recognize and explore the cultural complexity and diversity within their own experiences," the political nature of English within the world, and non-Center forms of English. They advocate a case study approach drawing on recent literature, where participants in teacher education programs can be exposed to research describing practices of teaching and learning that are taken from settings different from their own and that demonstrate to them the cultural complexity inherent in classroom language learning.

CHAPTER 1

The Scope of Second Language Teacher Education

Donald Freeman

INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the scope of second language teacher education (SLTE) from the standpoint of three questions: *How has the substance been and is being defined? How has engagement in professional learning processes been and is being understood?* and *How have its outcomes or influences been and are being defined and assessed?* In this discussion, *scope* is understood to be "the range covered by an activity, subject, or topic." These three questions examine scope in three dimensions: the ***substance*** of SLTE, which has moved from knowledge and skills to social activity and names what participants are expected to learn through SLTE designs; ***engagement*** addresses how they are expected to learn through these designs; and ***outcomes / influences*** speak to measures by which, in the broad and specific sense, the results of their learning through SLTE activities are ascertained. Together these dimensions form a useful heuristic for mapping past and present practices in SLTE. They also help to anticipate the major new directions that are now happening within the field.

DEFINITIONS

THE PROBLEMATIC NOTION OF SCOPE

Although this chapter addresses the scope of what is done in second language teacher education, the very concept of scope itself is an interestingly problematic one. We generally do not think about the activities we do in terms of their scope. Usually the boundaries come about – or are defined – through the process of doing the activity itself. For example, the scope of parenting is understood in multiple ways, depending on how the role of being a parent is carried out in various situations and cultures. Thus the adage "It takes a village to raise a child" has been widely mentioned in U.S. contexts to suggest a broadening of the

scope of who are seen as involved in parenting in industrialized societies. Or consider how the scope of musicianship is defined, and oftentimes stretched, by what individuals who call themselves musicians do, as when John Cage's composition, *4′33″* (*Four minutes and thirty-three seconds*), was first presented in 1952, thus recasting the scope of music to include the absence of sound (Solomon 2007). In both instances, the boundaries of the scope of the activity are fairly permeable, and the process of the activity works dynamically to shape what is – and perhaps what is not – included within that scope. Given these observations about fluidity, dynamism, and implicitness, one could well ask why consider second language teacher education in terms of its scope?

Perhaps the short answer is because thinking about scope helps to frame and reflect on the development of an area of activity, particularly such a complex one as educating individuals to become (better) language teachers. In teaching, we regularly make assumptions about what we are – or are not – teaching, and these assumptions shape the scope of the content. In the era of audio-lingualism, for example, when we assumed that language was a set of habits, classroom activities usually did not include opportunities for open-ended conversation or generative expression (Larsen-Freeman 1986). Thus, what we later came to call language "use" activities were largely outside the scope of classroom teaching. Subsequently, with the so-called communicative revolution in language teaching, "use" came within the scope of the presentation-practice-use framework of lesson planning.

Teachers and educators will talk about certain aspects of teaching and learning as being outside the scope of their responsibilities. In this way, the activity of teaching hinges on certain common understandings, whether implicit of explicit, of a particular scope. These understandings are usually assumed about the content (what content is and what of it learners bring or already know), about how learners learn that content (i.e., what is within versus beyond the scope of the classroom or instructional setting), and what learners should know and be able to do as an outcome of the teaching. These three dimensions of *content*, *process*, and *outcome* can serve to frame the rather shrouded landscape of the activity of second language teacher education, outline what is included or excluded from its scope, and show how those boundaries have shifted over time.

Overview

A BRIEF REVIEW OF THE SCOPE OF SLTE: A WIDENING GYRE

Until it started to be regularly named as an activity in its own right, the scope of SLTE, like many activities, was largely understood implicitly. Throughout the 1970s, and periods prior to it, language teachers learned to teach through various teacher-training designs, ranging from short courses like the Royal Society of the Arts Certificate of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults (RSA-CTEFLA) to higher education courses and degrees (see Barduhn and Johnson, Chapter 6). The latter preparation differed for teachers of "foreign" languages, or languages other than English, and those learning to teach English as second or foreign language. For the first group, the scope of preparation and training included language, literature, and cultural studies, with some attention to classroom teaching (Schultz 2000). For the second group, preparing to teach English in situations in which it was either a new or an additional (second) language, the scope included learning about language content through grammar and applied linguistics; about learners, through the study of second language acquisition; and about teaching itself, through the study of classroom methodologies. This second scope coalesced into a field of study known as Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), which was articulated with the founding of the eponymous professional organization in 1981 among other initiatives.

In the 1980s, this scope was refined as increasing attention was given to the person of the teacher. It was argued that the procedural aspects of teacher training could be balanced by the person-centred notion of teacher development (Freeman 1982), and these two could be subsumed as educating strategies within a single superordinate concept, language teacher education (Larsen-Freeman 1983). This line of thinking extended the scope beyond initial preparation in knowledge and skills, usually covered through training, to the development of the individual as a teacher throughout a career (Head and Taylor 1997). The inception of two professional groups, the TESOL Teacher Education Interest Section and the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language Teacher Development Special Interest Group in the early 1980s, helped to catalyze this focus. In a sense, this attention to professional learning throughout a career as part of the scope of SLTE both presaged and ultimately drew upon the growing study of teacher thinking, decision making, and knowledge, all of which had its roots in the late 1980s (Calderhead 1987; Clark and Peterson 1986). When U.S. researchers coined the term *teacher–learner* (Kennedy 1991), they articulated a broad movement in scope. Teachers were now seen as actors in two fields of activity: with students in classrooms where they *taught*, and in formally instructed settings of professional training, from short courses to full postgraduate degrees, and nonformal settings, such as internships or professional development schools, where they *learned.*

Arguably though, the 1990s marked the watershed in refining the scope of second language teacher education. The publication at the start of that decade of Richards and Nunan's (1990) collection titled *Second Language Teacher Education* was significant in several ways. The volume brought together thinking from a variety of sources including trainer accounts of activities, program designs, and conceptual arguments; the chapters focused on practices, or the "doing," of teacher education; and the authors publicly labeled the activity as such. Thus, scope was set out in different terms, moving beyond the language-learning-teaching framework that had characterized the previous definitions largely situated in higher education or field-based certificate programs. As articulated in the 1990s, SLTE included not simply *what* teachers needed to learn, but increasingly *how* they would learn it. This implication – that there were professional learning processes in which language teachers engaged – was articulated more fully in research in the mid 1990s (e.g., Freeman and Richards 1996; Woods 1996). Accompanying these burgeoning conversations about teacher learning were conceptual discussions about the nature of the knowledge base of SLTE (Freeman and Johnson 1998). These discussions argued for positioning SLTE as a form of activity based on a professional learning process that was identity- or meaning-oriented, contingent of the settings of learning and of work, and that developed over time (Johnson 2006). In a sense, the decade of the 1990s shifted the definition of scope in SLTE in three ways. First, the activity itself was labeled, and thus its boundaries were (re)defined; second, an independent research base for SLTE began to develop; and third, alternative conceptions of what that scope might include were introduced. These three intellectual streams served to define SLTE as an activity in its own right. In this process of definition however, the term *second language* was increasingly taken to refer to English as a foreign, second, or additional language.

The broadening of scope was not without argument, however. Some contended that it sacrificed the focus on what was essential in SLTE, which they defined variously as knowledge of content through applied linguistics and / or understanding of language learning, through second language acquisition (e.g., Yates and Muchisky 2003). Others contended that, by drawing on research and theorizing from education and professional learning more generally, what they saw as the unique focus on second languages was potentially lost or diluted (e.g., Tarone and Allwright 2005). In a sense though, the real challenge was not what would – or would not – be included within the potential scope of SLTE, but rather a changing understanding of the complex interrelation between teachers' professional

learning and how they applied what they learned. Throughout the 1980s, the scope assumed that SLTE concentrated on learning professional input, defined variously as a mix of knowledge and skills, and then that input would be applied in contexts through the activity of teaching. With the development of research into teacher learning and different conceptualizations of the knowledge base, this input-application relationship was redefined. Context was understood as more than simply a venue of application, rather it was seen as a basis for learning.

Current Approaches and Practices

THE DESIGN OF SLTE

This very brief history sketches out a widening gyre of the scope of SLTE, from a focus on training in knowledge and skills, to development of the individual teacher, to a broader examination of a common professional learning process and alternative conceptualizations of what was being learned through that process. As is often the case in defining the scope of a complex activity, each subsequent articulation seems to subsume, or refine, those that preceded it.

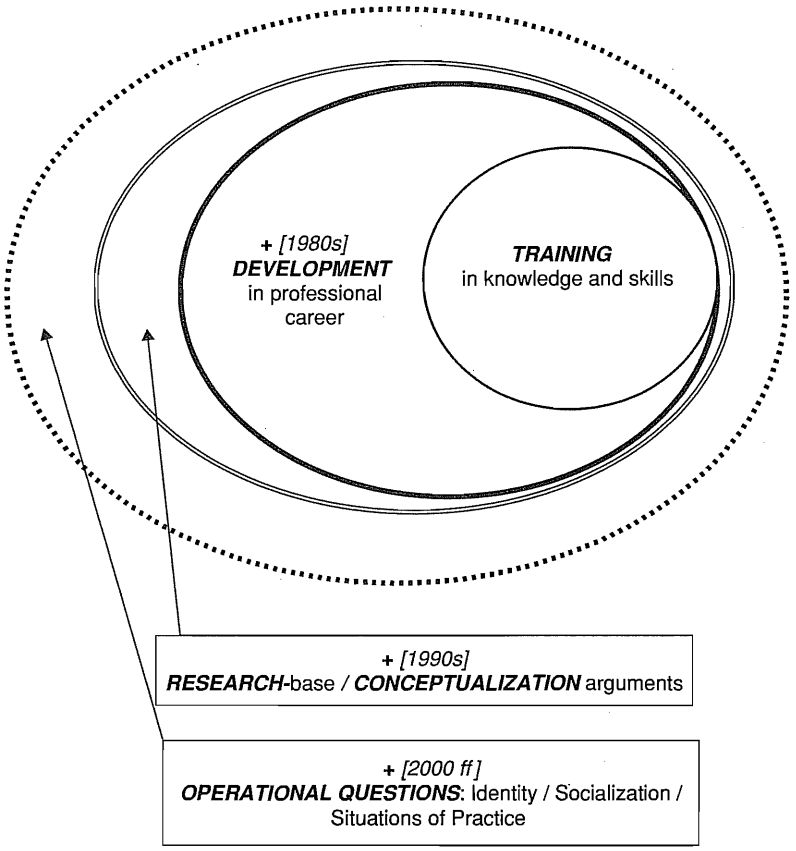


Figure 1 The Widening Gyre of SLTE

In this expanding understanding of scope, the notion of what is – or is not – included in the design of SLTE activities is also expanded. Early concerns focused on the nature of training activities, such as micro-teaching for example (Zeichner 1999). Then subsequently, questions of ongoing support and professional development were raised as teacher training was extended through professional development to encompass a career trajectory. Research and conceptual arguments introduced issues of coherence as questions were raised about the sequence of professional learning and which aspects of teaching were best learned at which points in a career and through which processes.

The challenge in this widening gyre of the scope of SLTE lay in how to operationalize it. When the content started to be defined not simply in terms of disciplinary knowledge – applied linguistics; second language acquisition; or literature, culture, and civilization – accompanied by skills of classroom pedagogy, but rather in terms of social practices, the substance of SLTE became anchored more clearly in classroom interactions and in the activity of teaching itself. Professional learning processes were redefined in a broader sense to include not only what happened in instructed teacher-training environments, but also the wider influences of socialization evident in individual development. These processes were refocused as much on the evolution of participants' professional identities (see Miller, Chapter 17) as on the ways in which they learned new knowledge or ways of doing things in classrooms. Thus, it began to make sense to think in terms of how these new identities are developed: What forms of engagement lead to professional learning?

The notion of where it is all headed has become increasingly important, so the relative impacts, or outcomes, of various SLTE designs have become central to discussions of this expanding definition of scope as well. When SLTE was centrally-concerned with inputs, as it was in teacher-training designs, discussions of the longer-term influences, or durability, of those inputs were often confounded by the wide variety in contexts of application (Freeman 2004). How could one teacher-training course adequately prepare all participants for the classroom and school contexts in which they would teach as they left the course and fanned out often across the globe? How could a teaching degree prepare participants for the work they would encounter throughout their teaching careers? These questions raised the gap of applicability; to narrow it, teacher-training activities were maneuvered to be as close to actual teaching contexts as possible. Short-courses, for example, were often run by language schools on their premises, with these organizations then hiring many of these short-course graduates as teachers. However, as teaching contexts – classrooms and schools themselves – came to be seen as scaffolds for professional learning in school-based learning designs like internships and mentoring for example, the question of how particular SLTE designs shaped what participants learned over time was increasingly relevant. Thus, issues of the substance of social practices in SLTE became part of its scope, which raised many related questions, such as How does engagement in particular SLTE designs contribute in shaping participants' professional identities? And how are we to examine the outcomes or influences of SLTE designs on participants' ongoing professional work and careers?

Issues and Directions

RECASTING THE DIMENSIONS OF SCOPE: SUBSTANCE, ENGAGEMENT, AND INFLUENCE

These three elements – *substance*, *engagement*, and *influence*, or *outcome* – outline key dimensions of the expanding scope of SLTE. *Substance* raises the question of what SLTE is supposed to be about and what participants are supposed to learn through specific activities or designs. Substance brings together what has conventionally been thought of as

content – what participants are supposed to learn and know – with process, how they are to learn it, and setting or learning and environment in both the physical and social senses. *Engagement*, which grows out of the process aspects of substance, raises questions of how professional learning is supposed to unfold in both the short and long terms. In other words, which learning processes are explicit and implicit in particular activities? And how do these aggregate to professional learning and identity over time, through an SLTE program, and even over a career?

Influence, or *outcome*, introduces understanding and gauging results: How are the outcomes of a particular SLTE design judged? In what terms, in the broadest sense, is the efficacy of SLTE designs described? This leads to the question of metrics or measures, which is an active and controversial aspect of policy discussions about what is known in the U.S. as "teacher quality" for example. Judging or measuring efficacy is not in itself problematic; however, it is important to anchor such considerations firmly in what can – and cannot – be said about the complex interrelations between teaching and learning generally. Since teaching does not make learning happen per se, these metrics must be far more nuanced than simple causal or even correlative measures. At the same time, it is clear that teaching does influence classroom learning, and so the stronger and weaker claims of how that influence happens are well worth examining and tracing back to antecedents and supports in teacher education.

These dimensions combine as three axes into a useful new map of the territory of SLTE.

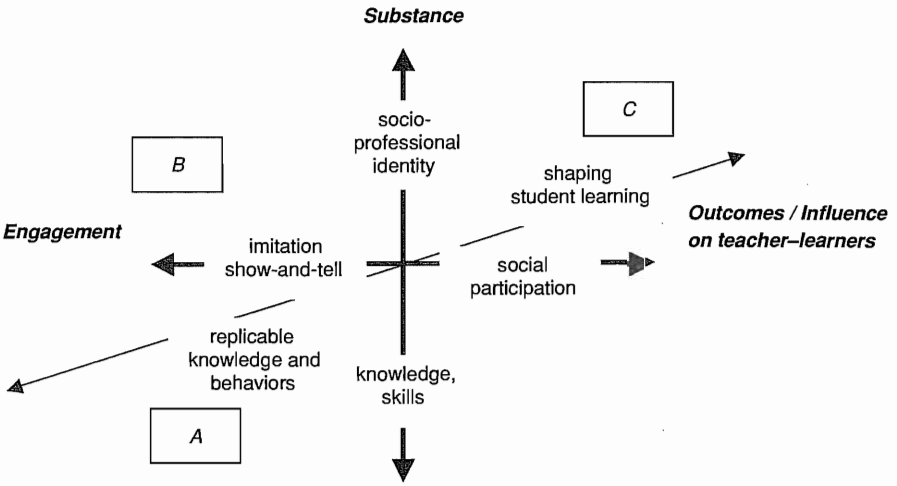


Figure 2 Dimensions of the Scope of SLTE

The axis of *substance* ranges from defining content as knowledge and skills to viewing SLTE as a process of learning and assuming a new socioprofessional identity as a teacher, whereas the intersecting axis shows how participants engage in the content runs from processes of imitation to participation. The sector A then captures what we might think of as most conventional SLTE designs, from lectures to short-course inputs to micro-teaching, which focus on the teacher–learner generating replicable knowledge and behaviors. Sector B, in contrast, abandons formally organized inputs to focus on learning directly in and from school contexts. In the nonformal sense, approaches labeled variously as "learning by doing," "sink or swim," or "sitting with Nellie" fall in this sector; they share with

most apprenticeship models of teacher learning an ad hoc view of professional learning as imitating others in the social context of the classroom.

As argued previously, however, the widened gyre of scope has pushed SLTE increasingly toward designs that are fully embedded in social contexts and that emphasize participation as the main vehicle of engagement and learning. Designs in sector C aim at developing professional identity through social participation, as in the formally organized designs of mentoring or team-teaching for example. In contrast to the ad hoc approaches in sector B, the activities in sector C are consciously designed to provide social and intellectual scaffolds that build toward fully competent professional participation. In a sense, the contrast captures the difference between a casual group of classmates who may gather to study together (sector B) versus the structured expectations of team project assignments or peer teaching / feedback groups (sector C). Although both forms of social organization occur within the scope of SLTE designs, they lead to potentially very different outcomes. They both can lead to professional learning, but the key distinction is that the former is an ad hoc social structure, whereas the latter can be carefully orchestrated to use participation as a vehicle for learning.

Conclusion

Closing thoughts

Defining the scope of any activity – from parenting, to musicianship, to language teacher education – is a tricky undertaking. As I argued at the beginning of this chapter, scope is often a largely de facto notion defined implicitly in the doing of a particular activity. Social expectations and norms contribute to what is seen as part of, or beyond, that scope. In the case of SLTE, arguments about scope have largely been organized intuitively based on tradition and convention. Thus, contentions about the centrality within the scope of SLTE of knowledge of applied linguistics or second language acquisition have been put forward based largely on the history of attendant disciplines, like linguistics or psychology, rather than on clear evidence of how such knowledge influences the activity of teaching or even student learning. In the last decade, an expanding research base has reshaped arguments about the scope of SLTE. Such research has focused on the heart of matter – how people learn to teach languages – and thus has helped to reframe many of the conventional dichotomies, such as theory and practice or content and process. By articulating a different landscape, research and theorizing about professional learning in language teaching has shaped a new conversation of scope. To operationalize these findings and insights, it has been necessary to amplify and redefine known constructs, such as content and process or disciplinary knowledge and application and to examine the enterprise from a new perspective. Substance, engagement, and influence as dimensions of scope should help in this regard.

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CHAPTER 2

Trends in Second Language Teacher Education

Karen E. Johnson

INTRODUCTION

L2 teacher education has been something we have done, rather than something we have studied, for much of our professional history. And the doing of L2 teacher education, that is, how we prepare L2 teachers to do the work of this profession, has been influenced by several trends that have helped to reconceptualize the ways in which we think about L2 teachers, L2 teacher learning, and L2 teaching. Fueling these trends have been shifting epistemological perspectives on learning in general, and on L2 learning and L2 teacher learning in particular, which have occurred in how various intellectual traditions had come to conceptualize human learning. More specifically, these include historically documented shifts from behaviorist to cognitive to situated, social, and distributed views of human cognition (Cobb and Bowers 1999; Greeno, Collins, and Resnick 1996; Putman and Borko 2000).

OVERVIEW

Informed largely by recent research on teacher cognition (Borg 2003; Freeman 2002; Woods 1996), L2 teacher educators have come to recognize that the normative ways of acting and interacting and the values, assumptions, and attitudes that are embedded in the classrooms where teachers were once students – in the teacher education programs where they received their professional credentialing and in the schools where they now work as professional teachers – shape the complex ways in which teachers think about themselves, their students, the activities of teaching, and the teaching–learning process. L2 teacher educators have come to recognize teacher learning as socially negotiated and contingent on knowledge of self, students, subject matter, curricula, and setting. And L2 teacher educators have begun to conceptualize L2 teachers as users and creators of legitimate forms of knowledge who make decisions about how best to teach their L2 students within complex socially,

culturally, and historically situated contexts. L2 teacher education programs no longer view L2 teaching as a matter of simply translating theories of second language acquisition (SLA) into effective instructional practices, but as a dialogic process of coconstructing knowledge that is situated in and emerges out of participation in particular sociocultural practices and contexts. And although L2 teacher education programs around the globe face a multitude of social, institutional, and political constraints that work against the creation of professional development opportunities for L2 teachers that are consistent with the epistemological stance of the sociocultural turn (Johnson 2006), the trends that have helped to solidify these reconceptualizations include call for: 1) reconceptualizing the knowledge base of L2 teacher education, 2) recognizing the legitimacy of practitioner knowledge, 3) broadening the definition of language and SLA, and 4) changing the nature of what constitutes professional development.

Issues and Directions

RECONCEPTUALIZING THE KNOWLEDGE BASE OF L2 TEACHER EDUCATION

A knowledge base is, in essence, a professional self-definition. It reflects a widely accepted conception of what people need to know and are able to do to carry out the work of a particular profession. In L2 teacher education, the knowledge base informs three broad areas: 1) the content of L2 teacher education programs, or *what L2 teachers need to know*; 2) the pedagogies that are taught in L2 teacher education program, or *how L2 teachers should teach*; and 3) the institutional forms of delivery through which both the content and pedagogies are learned, or *how L2 teachers learn to teach*. So, the knowledge base of L2 teacher education is, by definition, the basis upon which we make decisions about how to prepare L2 teachers to do the work of this profession.

In 1998, Donald Freeman and I called for the reconceptualization of the knowledge base of L2 teacher education (Freeman and Johnson 1998). We pointed out that the content of L2 teacher education programs (*what L2 teachers need to know*) had been largely drawn from our parent disciplines, most notably theoretical linguistics and SLA, and very little from the work of L2 teachers and L2 teaching itself. Even today, one needs to look no further than the *Directory of Teacher Education Programs in TESOL in the United States and Canada* (TESOL 2005–2007) to see that knowledge of formal properties of language and theories of SLA continue to be positioned as foundational knowledge for the professional preparation of L2 teachers. Our history, instantiated in the curriculum of L2 teacher education programs, reflects the traditional "applied science" model (Wallace 1991), which assumes one can simply take disciplinary knowledge about language and SLA and apply it to the language classroom. Historically such disciplinary knowledge has been neatly packaged into the curricular content of L2 pedagogies (*how L2 teachers should teach*). In fact, SLA researchers have long made claims about the role that SLA research has or should have on how second languages are taught (Chaudron 1988; O'Malley and Chamont 1990; VanPatton 1989). Thus, the knowledge base of L2 teacher education has been defined largely based on how language learners acquire a second language and less so on how L2 teaching is learned or how it is practiced (see Freeman and Johnson 1998).

In order to build a knowledge base for L2 teacher education that includes attention to the activity of L2 teaching itself; that is, who does it, where it is done, and how it is done, Donald Freeman and I argued that the knowledge base of L2 teacher education must include not only disciplinary or subject matter knowledge that defines how languages are structured, used, and acquired, but it must also account for the *content* of L2 teaching;

in other words, "what and how language is actually taught in L2 classrooms as well as teachers and students' perception of that content" (1998, p. 410). The problem, as Freeman (2004) cogently argues, is that the knowledge base of L2 teacher education has assumed that these two types of knowledge are one in the same. That is, the disciplinary knowledge that defines what language is, how it is used, and how it is acquired that has emerged out of the disciplines of theoretical and applied linguistics is the same knowledge that teachers use to teach the L2 and that, in turn, is the same knowledge that students need in order to learn the L2. However, in mainstream educational research, a distinction has been made between the recognized disciplinary knowledge of a particular field and the pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman 1987) that teachers use to make the content of their instruction relevant and accessible to students. For example, mathematics education in the North American context has been able to tease apart the disciplinary definitions and theories of mathematics from the mathematical content that is useful to teach mathematical concepts in K–12 instructional settings. This is not to say that math teachers do not need to know the disciplinary knowledge of their field, but it does suggest that math teachers also need to acquire the pedagogical content knowledge that will enable them to teach mathematical concepts in ways that will make it possible for their students to learn them (Hill, Rowen, and Ball 2005).

In L2 instructional contexts some very promising research has begun the laborious process of documenting the pedagogical content knowledge of L2 instruction. Given our professional history of teaching "language," it is not surprising that most of this research has focused on teachers' pedagogical content knowledge of grammar. Borg's (1998) study of an EFL teacher's understanding of grammar teaching placed pedagogical content knowledge of grammar within the teacher's overall pedagogical system. While he found little evidence of direct translation of linguistic knowledge of grammar in this teacher's instructional practices, he did uncover deeply held beliefs (see Borg, Chapter 16) about the importance of awareness-raising and grammatical accuracy, the knowledge and needs of the students, and the need to actively engage students in their own learning. Johnston and Goettsch (2000) examined ESL teachers' working knowledge of grammar in terms of how they crafted grammatical explanations, examples, and activities for their L2 students. They found very little evidence of linguistic knowledge in teachers' grammatical explanations but instead extensive evidence of "on-the-spot adjudication of sample sentences the student throw out" (p. 9) that focus much more on intention and meaning than structural or even functional rules. Thus, they argue against a knowledge base that is envisioned as a "repository of inert facts" but instead it should reflect the "highly process-oriented" nature of how teachers dialogically engaged with their students as they walk them through "the gradual acquisition of understanding rather than in terms of the transfer of information" (p. 466).

Research that has focused on L2 teachers and the activity of L2 teaching itself has begun to document an essential kind of knowledge that is critical for L2 teachers. Whether we call it the *content* of L2 teaching (Freeman and Johnson 1998), the *pedagogical content knowledge* (Shulman 1987), or the *practitioner knowledge* (Hiebert et al. 2002), it positions L2 teachers as users and creators of knowledge that constitutes the activity of L2 teaching. The knowledge base of L2 teacher education has just begun to recognize, document, and make accessible to L2 teachers the pedagogical content knowledge held and used by L2 teachers as they carry out their work in the diverse contexts where they teach.

RECOGNIZING THE LEGITIMACY OF PRACTITIONER KNOWLEDGE

To build a broader knowledge base for L2 teacher education requires that we accept as legitimate knowledge that is generated by and from practitioners as they participate in the social practices associated with L2 teaching and learning. Practitioner knowledge is linked

with practice in that it develops in response to issues that come up in practice. Thus, it is integrated and organized around problems of practice and as such, it is detailed, concrete, and specific. Practitioner knowledge is integrated in such a way that it is not easily separated out into typologies but instead is organized around making connections among and between types of knowledge to address problems of practice. And while these characteristics make practitioner knowledge useful and valuable for teachers, they also limit its applicability in that the instructional context figures so tightly with activity. For practitioner knowledge to become part of the knowledge base of teacher education, Hiebert et al. (2002), suggest that it must be made public and represented in such a way that it is accessible to others and open for inspection, verification, and modification.

The reflective teaching movement (Burton, Chapter 30; Lockhart and Richards 1994; Schon 1983, 1987; Zeichner and Liston 1996), action research (Burns, Chapter 29; Edge 2001; Kemmis and McTaggart 1988; Wallace 1998), and the teacher research movement (Burns 1999; Cochran-Smith and Lytle 1999; Edge and Richards 1993; Freeman 1998) have helped to legitimize practitioner knowledge by highlighting the importance of reflection on and inquiry into teachers' experiences as mechanisms for change in classroom practices. While teacher research stems from teachers' own desires to make sense of their classroom experiences, it is defined by ordered ways of gathering, recollecting, and / or recording information, documenting experiences both inside and outside of the classroom, and creating written records of the insights that emerge. Practitioner knowledge can enrich the knowledge base of L2 teacher education precisely because it is generated in and emerges out of teachers' lived experiences, it highlights the interconnectedness of how teachers think about their work, it is deeply connected to the problems of practice, and it is situated in the contexts in which such problems are constructed (Johnson 2006).

Another form of practitioner knowledge largely absent from the traditional knowledge base of L2 teacher education is how practitioners make sense of the disciplinary knowledge they are exposed to in their professional-development programs. Two very different approaches to the documentation of this sort of knowledge have been published recently. The first is a collection of classroom-based research studies that examine how teachers enrolled in professional course work make sense of and take up the disciplinary knowledge of applied linguistics (Bartels 2005). Conducted by applied linguists, most of the studies in this collection focus on the acquisition and use of disciplinary knowledge about language (KAL). Overall, the collection indicates a usefulness of KAL in shaping teachers conceptions of language but a general lack of transfer of this knowledge to classroom language teaching.

An alternative means of documenting how practitioners make sense of disciplinary knowledge is found in a collection of "dialogues" between *TQ* readers (classroom teachers) and *TQ* authors (researchers) of previously published *TQ* articles that focus on issues of language, culture, and power (Sharkey and Johnson 2003). The dialogs highlight the complex ways in which teachers actively link theoretical knowledge to their own experiential knowledge as they reframe the way they describe and interpret their lived experiences. The new understandings that emerge enable teachers to reorganize their experiential knowledge and this reorganization creates a new lens through which they interpret their understandings of themselves and their classroom practices. Thus, this sort of knowledge has a great deal of experiential knowledge in it but it is organized around and transformed through theoretical knowledge.

The current challenge for L2 teacher educators is to position the various forms of practitioner knowledge alongside the disciplinary knowledge that has dominated the traditional knowledge base of L2 teacher education. This requires that practitioners change their view of teaching as something that is personal and private to teaching as a professional activity that can be improved if it is made public and examined openly. In addition, it requires

that researchers move from undervaluing the knowledge that practitioners acquire in their own classrooms to recognizing the potential of this knowledge to transform both classroom practice and the knowledge base of L2 teacher education (see also Golombek, Chapter 15).

Broadening the Definition of Language and Second Language Acquisition

About ten years ago, Firth and Wagner (1997) questioned the taken-for-granted assumption in traditional SLA research that language is a stable, neutral, and naturally ordered hierarchical system consisting of predetermined syntactic, phonological, morphological, and pragmatic characteristics that reside on some deeper psycho-cognitive level in the individual. They called for greater attention to the contextual and interactional dimensions of language use, a broadening of the traditional SLA database, and more emic (participant-relevant) sensitivity toward SLA concepts. Calls for broadening the definition of language and SLA subsequently called into question the curricular content and methodologies of traditional L2 instruction; namely, structural and static descriptions of what language "is" and pedagogical practices based on speculations about the mental processes through which language is assumed to be acquired. Even contemporary instantiations of communicative language teaching that consist of making discreet bits of language (both form and function) visible to learners (either explicitly or implicitly) and then create opportunities for L2 learners to try them out in communicative contexts have come under scrutiny.

From the epistemological stance of the sociocultural turn, converging research from anthropology, applied linguistics, psychology, and education has taken up a social and functional understanding of language as social practice. Common to these intellectual disciplines is the unification of language and culture, the notion that social interaction is central to language development, and that the language of the individual develops in relation to its functions within the sociocultural activity in which the individual participates. Likewise, sociocultural theory has worked to underscore the role that language plays in serving as a tool for mediating thinking (Leont'ev 1981; Vygotsky 1978). Grounded in the notion that all social activities are structured and gain meaning in historically and culturally situated ways, the language used to describe an activity gains its meaning not from some underlying representation encoded in the words themselves but in concrete communicative activity in specific sociocultural contexts. Thus, people do not learn a "language" per se, but instead they learn different "social languages" (Gee 1996, 2004), and each social language offers distinctive grammatical, semantic, and pragmatic resources that allow them to enact particular socially situated identities and to engage in a specific socially situated activities. Language as social practice reflects a dynamic constellation of sociocultural resources that emerge out of and are re-created within social and historical usage. Thus, any utterance creates a context of use, or genre (Bakhtin 1981), in which the utterance typically belongs, conjuring up specific meanings and inferences while simultaneously creating a space for one's own voice to be expressed.

When language is conceptualized as social practice, L2 teaching shifts toward helping learners develop the capacity to interpret and generate meanings that are appropriate within particular sociocultural contexts (Lantolf and Johnson 2007). Instructionally, the point of departure is no longer the discreet form or communicative function but the conceptual meanings that are being expressed that denote ways of feeling, seeing, and being in the L2 world. Emerging research on concept-based L2 instruction focuses learners' attention on knowing how certain concepts are encoded in the conceptual metaphors, lexical networks, and schemes that represent particular ways of experiencing and representing the world

(Hopper 1997; Littlemore and Low 2006; Negueruela 2003). When the goal of L2 pedagogy is to build capacity to function in relevant sociocultural contexts, L2 instruction revolves around exploring with learners how an utterance positions the speaker in relation to others, the cultural schema it invokes, how it may be understood and evaluated by others, and what is assumed to be shared knowledge and thus remains unarticulated. Since language is both the medium of instruction and the object of teaching and learning, understanding language as social practice, as enacting identities, and as situated in and drawing meaning from broader social, cultural, and historical contexts, reorients how L2 teachers must come to think about and teach language.

Likewise, when SLA is understood as located in activity, it becomes a process of acculturation into various sets of social practices that are embedded in and sustained in particular sociocultural contexts. Likewise, L2 teacher education becomes a process of enabling teachers to recognize the norms that govern participation in activities and to pay attention to the extent to which L2 learners are able (or not) to participate. Attention also shifts to the resources L2 learners are using, attempting to use, or need to be aware of in order to successfully or even partially participate in activities. Finally, attention shifts to what is being accomplished in activities and whether what is being accomplished is working to build L2 learners' capacity to interpret and generate meaning and therefore successfully function in particular sociocultural contexts (Lantolf and Johnson 2007).

Changing the Nature of what Constitutes Professional Development

Traditionally, the professional development of teachers has been thought of as something that is done by others *for* or *to* teachers. And while postsecondary course work, professional workshops, and educational seminars will most certainly continue to play a role in the professional credentialing of L2 teachers, a host of alternative professional development structures that allow for self-directed, collaborative, inquiry-based learning that is directly relevant to teachers' classrooms have begun to emerge. Common to these alternative structures is the recognition that teachers' informal social and professional networks, including their own classrooms, function as powerful sites for professional learning. Those recently reported on in the literature include teacher inquiry seminars (School for International Training 2003), peer coaching (Ackland 2000), cooperative development (Edge 1992), teacher study groups (Burns 1999; Clair 1998; Dubetz 2005), narrative inquiry (Bell 2002; Johnson and Golombek 2002; Golombek and Johnson 2004), lesson study groups (Takemura and Shimizu 1993), and critical friends groups (Bambino 2002). Recognizing the critical role that context plays in teacher learning and L2 teaching, such alternative structures encourage teachers to engage in ongoing, in-depth, and reflective examinations of their teaching practices and their students' learning (Rogers 2002) while embracing the processes of teacher socialization that occurs in classrooms, schools, and the wider professional communities where teachers work. And although these alternative structures hold promise for changing the nature of what constitutes professional development, there remains a need for systematic exploration into the kinds of participation these alternative structures engender, the impact they have on teacher learning, and the kinds of learning environments teachers in turn create to foster student learning.

Finally, given the global political rhetoric demanding that all teachers be highly qualified, the next generation of research on L2 teacher education must begin to tackle the thorny question of the relationship between teacher professional learning and student learning.

Specifically, it must begin to explore the "relationship of influence" (Freeman and Johnson 2005, p. 79) that emerges when, as a result of participating in professional development, teachers have come to truly reconceptualize some aspect of their teaching. When they have come to think about and organize activities in the classroom in fundamentally different ways, how does that professional learning influence both what students learn and how students understand and experience that learning? Probing the relationship between what teachers come to know through professional development and what, through their teaching, their students come to know and are able to do will be absolutely critical for the professional legitimacy of L2 teacher education in the future.

Conclusion

Current trends in L2 teacher education have helped to reexamine, reconceptualize, and redesign how L2 teachers are prepared for their work. Our increased attention to the complexities of teacher learning is grounded in an epistemology of practice; one that is committed to an emphasis on ongoing, in-depth, and reflective examinations of teaching practices, the recognition that participation and context are essential to teacher learning, and the tremendous potential that practitioner knowledge has as a mechanism for change in classroom practice. Our long-term endeavor must seek to design, implement, and sustain L2 teacher education programs that focus on learning in, *from*, and *for* L2 teaching practice.

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CHAPTER 3

Critical Language Teacher Education

Margaret Hawkins and Bonny Norton

INTRODUCTION

As global migration makes classrooms increasingly diverse, there is growing concern about the lack of school success for students of color, those who live in poverty, immigrants and refugees, and minority-language speakers. Such learners are often marginalized and thus denied equal access to social and material resources that support acquisition of the language and literacy skills that promote full participation in classrooms and communities. Although many policy and social service documents continue to focus on what these learners are lacking – locating the "problem" as deficiencies in the learners – current research in the fields of education and language learning is recognizing that there is a mismatch between educational systems and pedagogies and the learners that they serve. In response, theories that reconceptualize learning and learning environments are emerging that represent new ways of thinking about the goals of education, the roles of teachers and learners, and the processes of learning.

Perhaps the most visible and widely represented paradigms that challenge traditional views of language, teaching and learning are *sociocultural* (see Franson and Holliday, Chapter 4) and *critical* approaches. In this chapter we provide a discussion of what *critical* has come to mean in educational and applied linguistics research, theory, and practice, and what it might mean for second language teaching and language teacher education. We survey the literature on critical language teacher education to offer exemplars of current pedagogies and practices across diverse contexts. We then identify a number of principles associated with critical language teacher education, and conclude with a discussion, in classic critical tradition, that both supports and problematizes this notion.

Scope and Definitions

Defining *Critical*

There is much debate about what is meant by a *critical approach* to education and applied linguistics. Educators confront a smorgasbord of terms, including *critical theory*, *critical pedagogy*, *critical literacy*, *critical applied linguistics*, *critical language awareness*, *critical discourse analysis*, and *critical reflection*. To complicate the debate, other terms are often used interchangeably, for example, *liberatory education*, *social justice education*, *education for equity*, *transformative practice*, *empowerment*, and *praxis*. So what do these mean, and, more specifically, what is "critical" about them?

Critical theory, initially attributed to the Frankfurt school of critical theory (Habermas 1976), challenges constructs such as naturalism, rationality, and neutrality, referencing instead the subjective, the social, and the partisan nature of reality, and the ways in which our understandings of the world are constructed by contextual factors that are ideologically informed. It enables us to see that our ideas, interactions, language use, texts, learning practices, and so forth, are not neutral and objective, but are shaped by and within social relationships that systematically advantage some people over others, thus producing and reproducing inequitable relationships of power in society.

Whereas critical theory is predominantly abstract, critical pedagogy is directly concerned with social action and educational change. Rooted in the work of Paolo Freire, a Brazilian educator whose mission was the emancipation of peasants in colonial and postcolonial societies, critical pedagogy seeks to empower people to challenge oppressive conditions in their lives. One central tenet in Freire's work, which we will take up in this chapter, is *praxis*: the site where theory and practice come together to create action that leads to social and political change. Freire advocated for dialog, or the importance of engaging in a "dialogic process," as a means to make visible ideologies and relations of power, and the ways in which people are situated within them (Freire 1973, 1974).

Critical, then, refers to a focus on how dominant ideologies in society drive the construction of understandings and meanings in ways that privilege certain groups of people, while marginalizing others. In this spirit, Luke (1997) defines *critical literacy* as

> . . . characterized by a commitment to reshape literacy education in the interests of marginalized groups of learners, who on the basis of gender, cultural and socioeconomic background have been excluded from access to the discourses and texts of dominant economies and cultures. (p. 143)

Theorists and researchers have examined how language shapes and reproduces power relations in society. As Fairclough (1995) claims: "It is mainly in discourse that consent is achieved, ideologies are transmitted, and practices, meanings, values and identities are taught and learnt" (p. 219). Fairclough advocates for critical language awareness, to recognize "... nontransparent aspects of the social functioning of language" (p. 224). He views critical discourse analysis as one aspect of this work. Critical discourse analysis is a set of methodological tools that enables researchers to describe and analyze the relationship between language and the social world (see also Gee 1999; Rogers 2004). Within applied linguistics, Pennycook (2001) offers the concept of *critical applied linguistics*, arguing for, "... the importance of relating micro relations of applied linguistics to macro relations of society" (p. 2). It is perhaps this work that best links notions of "critical" to language learning and teaching.

Overview

WHY CRITICAL LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION?

The concept of "critical" is especially salient for language teachers. Because language, culture, and identity are integrally related, language teachers are in a key position to address educational inequality, both because of the particular learners they serve, many of whom are marginalized members of the wider community, and because of the subject matter they teach – language – which can itself serve to both empower and marginalize. Language teachers are often the first contacts that newcomers (immigrants, migrants, and refugees) have in the target language community, and they serve as social mediators and informants in the new environment. They play a key role in the construction of the learners' views of their new homes; their understandings of unfamiliar belief systems, values and practices; and their negotiations of new social relationships. For those who practice in contexts in which the language they teach is not the majority language, and whose students may be members of the mainstream community, they nevertheless represent the values, beliefs, and practices of the cultural groups with whom the new language is associated. Critical language teachers make transparent the complex relationships between majority and minority speakers and cultural groups, and between diverse speakers of the majority language, thus having the potential to disrupt potentially harmful and oppressive relations of power.

Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) claims that within the next generation, 90 percent of languages currently in use will disappear. She claims that as speakers of indigenous languages are schooled in another (dominant) language, they come to view their mother tongue as less useful and developed, ultimately abandoning it in favor of the new language. Critical language teachers are aware of issues surrounding linguistic genocide and work to mitigate this damage through finding educational alternatives that promote access to new languages, while maintaining and valuing heritage languages.

Although language is the primary medium used to teach any subject matter, for language teachers it is both the medium and the content (see Johnson, Chapter 2). Because language (or discourse) is the tool through which representations and meanings are constructed and negotiated, and a primary means through which ideologies are transmitted, language itself is not neutral, but is shot through with meanings, inflections, intentions, and assumptions. Rather than have learners internalize such meanings as normal and right, critical language teachers work with their students to deconstruct language, texts, and discourses, in order to investigate whose interests they serve and what messages are both explicitly and implicitly conveyed. How can language teacher education support teachers to develop such critical practices?

Current Approaches and Practices

CRITICAL LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION PRACTICES

McDonald & Zeichner (2008) discuss the current move from multicultural teacher education to social justice teacher education. They claim that multicultural teacher education focuses on "celebrat(ion) of cultural diversity and the experience of the individual," while ignoring the "institutionalised relationships among groups." This is to say that, although multicultural teacher education does acknowledge status differences among people based on culture, ethnicity, and language, it does not take up the explicit study of the production and reproduction of power relationships in institutions (such as schools) and society. Social justice teacher education seeks to address institutionalized as well as individual power

differentials, with the goal of promoting teachers' recognition and ownership of their roles as social activists.

There is a growing body of literature within the fields of TESOL, Applied Linguistics, and Second Language Acquisition that addresses critical theoretical stances around language use, language teaching, and language planning (e.g., Canagarajah 1999; Hawkins 2004a; Norton 2000; Pennycook 2001; Phillipson 1992; Ricento 2006; Tollefson 2002). There are also accounts, although more rare, of critical language teaching practices, most often authored by the language teacher (e.g., Morgan 1998; *TESOL Quarterly* special issue, 1999). More difficult to find are accounts of critical language teacher education practices. Next we discuss accounts we have found of critical practices in language teacher education, which can be categorized as promoting, respectively, critical awareness, critical self-reflection, and critical pedagogical relations. These accounts span international locales, in-service and preservice programs, undergraduate and graduate courses, and experiences both within and outside of institutions of higher education. We acknowledge that these accounts only address instances where English is the target language and do not wish to imply that critical work is not being done in language teacher education in other languages; however, this is the literature base to which we have access. Although there are no neat boundaries between these three categorizations, we use them as heuristic tools to guide analyses of practices, and highlight, in each account, the notion of praxis as well. We do this not in an attempt to be prescriptive, but rather to provide models that illustrate the range of practices associated with critical language teacher education.

CRITICAL AWARENESS

A key focus of critical teacher educators is to promote critical awareness in their teacher–learners by raising consciousness about the ways in which power relations are constructed and function in society, and the extent to which historical, social, and political practices structure educational inequity. We describe three cases in which teacher educators attempt to make visible to teacher–learners inequitable relations of power in their communities, and the ways in which these affect the language learners they teach.

Goldstein (2004) describes her implementation of performed ethnography with preservice teachers in Canada, based on a play she wrote entitled *Hong Kong Canada*, which represents tensions experienced in multilingual and multicultural high school settings. Goldstein describes how her teacher–learners perform the play, and how she then facilitates discussion of their affective responses. She asks them to identify issues and dilemmas represented, focusing in particular on the power of linguistic privilege. Goldstein discusses and reflects on pedagogical possibilities that arise from discussion about the play. In this example, praxis begins with the recognition of existing inequitable social conditions and moves to a realization of the teacher–learners' abilities to effect educational change.

In a very different setting, Pennycook (2004) offers an insightful reflection on what it means to be a critical teacher educator, coining the term *praxicum* to capture how theory and practice come together to create new understandings of the TESOL practicum. In his account of a supervisory visit he conducted in Sydney, Australia, Pennycook identifies three critical moments in the teacher–learner's classroom, arising from the actions of a disruptive male student; the use of practice dialogs; and the recognition of nonstandard English in the classroom. Each of these critical moments raises larger questions of power and authority in society and provides an opportunity for critical discussion and reflection. He suggests that "... trying to be a critical educator is more often about seeking and seizing small moments to open the door on a more critical perspective" (p. 341). Thus, Pennycook's account, too, locates praxis in the emerging critical awareness of teacher–learners and its potential for social transformation.

To similar effect, Hawkins (2004b) analyses interactions on a listserve in a graduate teacher education class in the midwestern United States, examining how the listserve functioned to support dialogic engagement among class members, and how it mediated the construction of meanings and understandings. Hawkins claims that "... the listserve provided both access to identities and voices from which to speak, and an overt focus on the relations between language and literacy and relations of power" (p. 106). It promoted students' emerging awareness of critical issues, including their own status and positioning, thus enabling them to break down boundaries and redistribute power relations among themselves. For Hawkins, *praxis* was defined as the raising of critical awareness, but also as the direct connections class members made between these issues, their social relations, and their teaching practices.

CRITICAL SELF-REFLECTION

In seeking to address inequities, critical language teacher educators encourage teacher–learners to critically reflect on their own identities and positioning in society. Self-reflection provides a window on the relationship between the individual and the social world, highlighting both constraints on and possibilities for social change. Here we present accounts that display classroom strategies that teacher educators in diverse contexts utilized to promote self-reflection by their teacher–learners.

Pavlenko (2003) demonstrates how she utilized theory to provide empowering options in a graduate language education class in the United States. By encouraging critical self-reflection through linguistic autobiographies, Pavlenko realized that many teacher learners had internalized traditional discourses of native vs. nonnative speakers. She therefore introduced contemporary theories of language acquisition and competency, in particular Cook's (1992, 1999) notion of multicompetence, enabling her students to reenvision themselves as legitimate users of the target language, rather than as "failed native speakers." The comments of Ikuku, a female Japanese student, illustrate the power of theory to provide a wider range of identity options for teacher–learners:

> Every day, I learn a new insight about English and sociocultural aspect of the language, which knowledge empowers me. For instance, I hesitated to see myself as a bilingual person until recently, and I kept thinking that my English was not good enough and ultimately I should be able to speak or write like native person until I learned the concept of multicompetency by Cook. (p. 262)

In this example, *praxis* can be defined as the emerging awareness (on the part of the teacher–learners) of ways in which societal discourses have shaped their self-perceptions, and thus their ability to act on the world.

In an example from South Africa, Stein (2004) discusses The Literacy Archive Project, which she implemented in an undergraduate teacher-education course taught to students from both historically advantaged (mostly white) as well as disadvantaged (mostly black) backgrounds. The project promoted critical self-reflection by requiring teacher–learners to present multimodal representations of their own literacy histories. These evoked powerful affective responses, which served to make visible the power of privilege, and to redistribute what she calls "students' representational resources." As Stein notes:

> In classrooms into which students bring diverse representational resources that are differently valued in the school setting, one of the ways to work with this situation is to develop pedagogies that work with what students bring ... and acknowledge what students have lost. (p. 50)

Praxis here is the recognition by teacher–learners of power differences among cultural groups, reflections on their own positioning within these power relations, and understanding the implications of such differences for language and literacy learning and teaching.

Lin (2004) describes her experience designing and teaching a critical pedagogy curriculum in an MATESOL course in Hong Kong. Her students, local teachers who have to negotiate undemocratic educational policies and struggle with identities that are defined in gendered, ageist terms, are frustrated by the inaccessibility of critical theory. Lin integrates course content with her learners' lives and struggles to make social and critical theories meaningful and applicable. She recognizes that her learners feel powerless as teachers, and she finds ways to connect them, through critical self-reflective writing, to a broader professional community. Lin says:

> I witnessed the empowering effect of words produced by teachers, themselves, as agents analyzing their own situations and voicing their own views about the oppressive system in which they are caught and in which they have, for so long, felt helpless. (p. 281)

In Lin's practice, as in Pavlenko's and Stein's, *praxis* means empowering teacher–learners to critically reflect on their positioning within larger relationships of power, with a view to resisting oppressive social practices.

CRITICAL PEDAGOGICAL RELATIONS

If the goal of critical pedagogy is to empower learners, pedagogical relations between teacher educators and teacher–learners must be structured on equitable terms. In the three accounts that follow, teacher educators reflect on their attempts to restructure power relations between themselves and their teacher–learners, not only to model critical educational practices, but to encourage teacher–learners to consider ways in which their own teaching can enhance opportunities for language learners in their classrooms.

In an example of innovative curriculum development, Crookes and Lehner (1998) describe a language teacher education course they taught in Hawaii in which they aimed to disrupt what Freire has referred to as "the banking model of education" in favor of one in which all participants are equally responsible for designing and participating in learning. Beginning with a negotiation of the syllabus, they attempted to change the structure and dynamics of the class. Their account details the struggle to implement a critical curriculum within a traditional environment, and is, in large part, a reflection on the tensions between their positions of authority as educators and the desire to enact a participatory, dialogic pedagogy. Thus, praxis entailed a critical examination of, and shift in, the structure of the curriculum and classroom.

In a dialogic reflection, Willett and Miller (2004) discuss a graduate language teacher education class in the eastern United States in which they, respectively, were professor and student. The course focused on transformational curriculum design, and it supported teachers to "challenge the status quo" in a standards-based era of accountability. As in Crookes and Lehner's example above, they worked to reconceptualize and redistribute power relations among participants. In their view, "... contradictions, tensions, misalignments, and unpredictable results provide productive possibilities for transformative practice" (p. 53), and it is through dialogic engagement across differences that learning (for all participants) occurred. For them, *praxis* is change in classroom practice (both their own and the teacher learners') that promotes social justice, and the focus is on understanding how course design supports such change.

The final account is that of Toohey and Waterstone (2004), in which they reflect on their experiences facilitating a teacher research group in Vancouver, Canada. Their challenge was

to construct equitable relations with the teacher–learners, who were practicing teachers. Although they shared the mutual goal of expanding classroom learning opportunities for language minority students, they had very different ideas on how to reach that goal. Toohey and Waterstone provide examples of teachers collaboratively exploring their practices, but resisting facilitators' attempts to bridge into academic language. They suggest that writing that respects both teachers' and researchers' ways of knowing makes collaborative research a powerful tool. Here, too, *praxis* is the pedagogical restructuring of power relations between teacher educators and teacher–learners.

Issues and Directions

Insights, Implications, and Cautions

Thus far we have argued that critical awareness, critical self-reflection, and critical pedagogical relations are central heuristics in critical language teacher education, noting, however, that there are no neat boundaries between these conceptual frames. What then might be some of the common threads across the accounts we have identified? We offer five principles for discussion and critique:

- **The situated nature of programs and practices**
  One common theme is the local and specific nature of the pedagogy and content of critical language teacher education. In each case, teacher educators drew on their cultural and historical knowledge of the context and the students in order to work innovatively with teacher–learners.
- **Responsiveness to learners**
  Language teacher educators took into account their knowledge of their teacher–learners' languages, cultures, desires, and histories, and connected learning to the backgrounds and experiences students brought to the learning environment.
- **Dialogic engagement**
  Language teacher educators used collaborative dialog to construct and mediate meanings and understandings. In each case, dialog was used to promote reflection among participants, and to link explicit critical awareness of social justice issues to educational practices.
- **Reflexivity**
  Teacher educators displayed deep reflectivity on their own practices. In addition to discussing goals and pedagogies, they provided an insightful analysis of what occurred, and how they might use what they have learned from these experiences to redesign future possibilities.
- **Praxis**
  Each case discussed took up the notion of praxis (although not necessarily naming it as such) by integrating theory and practice in the interests of educational and social change.

These, then, serve as examples of "pedagogies of possibility" (Simon 1987), offering hope that, as teacher educators, we can support change in institutional practices that will ultimately serve to offer full and equal participation in society for language learners.

There are, however, cautions associated with critical practices that call for further debate and critique. Within institutions of education, there are traditional power hierarchies that are not easily disrupted. Critical theory and pedagogy directly challenge relations of

power in the classroom, advocating for equalizing these relations. As Johnston (1999) points out, however, "... teachers still retain power in the classroom... it is more interesting and useful to work on putting this power to good use than to imagine it can be removed" (p. 560). There may well be potential dangers in disrupting and critiquing relations of power in some locales. Not only may there be political sanctions for the teacher, but students who have been socialized into specific schooling practices and ideologies may resist such change. An inevitable tension arises between our belief that critical pedagogy is good and just and our right to impose it on others. A concept that we have found helpful in negotiating this impasse is the differentiation between coercive and collaborative relations of power (Cummins 2000; Kreisberg 1992). We embrace the view that when power is distributed and shared, its potential for social change is enhanced.

A second critique addresses the theoretical nature of critical pedagogy and its perceived impracticality. Gore (1992) discusses the difficulties for teachers engaging in critical work, given few guidelines or resources, and little time for major adaptation of curriculum and classroom processes. In addition, as education in many contexts is becoming more standards-based, and testing proliferates, critical practitioners must juggle commitments to social justice while ensuring that their students can jump existing hurdles to succeed in the educational arena.

Conclusion

Given that critical practice is situated, responsive, and contextual, it is clear that the pursuit of a one-size-fits-all model of critical language teacher education is inadequate (Kumaravadivelu 2005; Norton 2005). However, the very absence of prescriptive models encourages the language teacher educator to reflect on the possibilities and limitations of any given context, and creatively seek enhanced opportunities for language learners through educational and social change. This then, is the promise a critical approach holds: to contribute to the shaping of a social world in which all people, regardless of language, ethnicity, color, or class, have equal voices, access, and possibilities.

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CHAPTER 4

Social and Cultural Perspectives

Charlotte Franson and Adrian Holliday

INTRODUCTION

The content of teacher training, or education, needs to include not only the linguistic features of English and how these may be taught and learned, but also its social and cultural position in the world and its subsequent impact on the lives of both teachers and language learners. If teachers of history do not address with their students the way in which often uncertain events can be used by governments and movements to promote political agendas, the teaching of history can be reduced to propaganda. There will be a similar effect if English is not presented as a postcolonial language that is deeply socially and culturally involved in world politics, which is often unequal.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

Much of prevailing second language education practice remains dominated by an essentialist view of culture in which students and their language-learning attitudes and abilities are very much characterized by imagined and problematic stereotypes of their national, ethnic, regional, or religious cultures. To counter this, there has been a call for a decentered, or locality driven, approach to the way in which teachers and students recognize and explore the cultural complexity and diversity within their own experiences (e.g., Kumaravadivelu 2007), and to the way in which students are exposed to curriculum content that addresses the political nature of English in the world and non-center forms of English (e.g., Holliday 2005). Attention to the social "contexts" of language teaching has gone some way to meeting this need; but these contexts have often been overgeneralized or oversimplified as a result of superficial center-led investigation. Attention to specific contexts can also suffer from inattention to the bigger political picture.

In this chapter we are going to address this state of affairs by juxtaposing two sets of experiences that we feel have often remained apart. The first is the very generalized international arena called Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL),

which although it has produced critical understandings of English in the world, has few examples of rich decentered research. The second derives from the more localized contexts of publicly funded education, which is often described as English as a Second Language (ESL), and which includes immigrant and adult English language programs (often termed ESOL). This latter setting is significant because it has produced sustained and in-depth decentered research into areas such as bilingualism, the aspirations of the language learner, and developing identities in the dominant language community. For these ESL language learners, second language literacies and social and cultural knowledge are necessary tools for their academic and ultimately economic success. For adult language learners, language learning is more explicitly linked to their economic success. Although the sources of this experience have often been within Canada, Australia, Britain, and the United States, the research is decentered in the sense that it has grown from within the localities in question.

This juxtaposition and subsequent crossing of boundaries between these local and international arenas provides a set of relationships from which to deduce generalized teacher practice, which engages with social and cultural realities in demanding ways. Relating their own experience with the close study of language learning in settings such as multilingual inner-city London, may enable student-teachers to develop deeper understandings of the complexity of social and cultural issues.

Implicit in this juxtaposition is also a recognition of a reconfiguration of traditional concepts such as Center and Periphery; power and identity; and inner, outer, and expanding circles in an increasingly complex and cosmopolitan, globalized world (e.g., Canagarajah 2006). These two arenas also need to be seen in relation to the important development of sociocultural theory in second language education in the past 10 years.

Overview

These international and local arenas are represented by two important literatures. The international arena literature is marked by a series of key readings that are presented in the following. The first is Phillipson (1992), which was the first major work to propose that the way in which English was being promoted across the world was part of the English-speaking West's agenda to continue the domination established through colonization. Such common concepts as the "native speaker" teacher model, the need to teach English without the interference of other language, at the earliest possible age, were presented as "fallacies" that had been promoted by this world strategy. This needs to be read by all student-teachers if they are to understand how their work fits into a broader political picture. The thesis presented by this book is not necessarily to be agreed with; but it presents an argument that has to be addressed.

Pennycook (1994, 2001) developed this premise into the areas of culture and identity and critical pedagogies. Kramsch (1993) also refers to critical language pedagogy. Holliday (1994) considered a further angle of this discussion by arguing that classroom methodologies developed by Britain, Australasia, and North America (BANA) were culturally unsuitable for state tertiary, secondary, and primary education (TESEP) in the rest of the world. Canagarajah (1999) examined these issues from the point of view of how Sri Lankan students and teachers maintain their own identities in the face of linguistic and cultural imperialism in their own "private sites of learning," which are away from the formal gaze of the teacher. There is a detailed ethnographic account of students dealing with U.S. textbooks by imposing their own cultural references and images onto the text and into the margins.

Holliday (2005) pursues this discussion into the "us"–"them" chauvinistic cultural politics, which marginalizes the so-called nonnative speaker. He explores, through personal

narratives and interviews, how the everyday practice of TESOL is permeated by the ideology of native-speakerism, which casts nonnative-speaker teachers (see Kamhi-Stein, Chapter 9) and students as culturally deficient and is traced back to the corrective behaviorism of early methods. Kumaravadivelu (2007) develops further how cultural chauvinism needs to be addressed in the English language classroom. In an unprecedented manner, he sets the nature of culture and its place in language education against the complex politics of cultural globalization. By making use of personal experience as a multicultural migrant, he presents a critique of the ways in which our profession has developed narrow definitions that have inhibited true cultural sensitivity. A major contributor to this discussion is a series of articles and chapters by Kubota (2001, 2002, 2004), which unravel the ways in which imagined stereotypes of the non-Western Other represent a hidden racism in TESOL that derives from the English-speaking West. Kubota (2003) is a highly accessible account of how three student-teachers, through progressive conversations, develop an understanding of culture, which enables them to reject chauvinistic stereotypes.

Much of the second body of literature shows how different contexts, educational discourses, and ideologies have resulted in different approaches to second language classrooms. It includes the work of colleagues such as Cummins (2000), who focuses on issues of language learning and teaching of bilingual children, interrogating the discourses of diversity, multiculturalism, and bilingualism, in order to address major themes including power relations and concepts of inclusion and equity in multilingual contexts where institutional policy and practice can be both empowering and disempowering of linguistic and ethnic minority learners. In the United States the issues are complex, with much of the work on bilingualism being overtaken by an "English only" approach at state and national policy level. On the other hand, three decades of immersion education in Canada has provided a substantial amount of research in language pedagogy. In the Australian context, the influence of Michael Halliday and systemic functional linguistics is evident in the extensive body of work on genre and literacy theory that views genres as reflecting culturally informed patterns of discourse, learning, and participation (e.g., the work of Cope and Kalantzis 1993) issues, which have contributed to the more recent development of sociocultural theory in second language learning, which is explored elsewhere in this book.

Nevertheless, proponents of sociocultural theory in second language learning have also addressed such issues in relation to minority learners in second language contexts, where language, ethnicity, and identity are integral to learning (Toohey 2000; Miller 2003; and Hawkins 2004; see also Hawkins and Norton, Chapter 3, and Miller, Chapter 17) In the U.K. context, there has been a long tradition of applying what might be simply called a multicultural approach, and the promotion of a pluralistic view of society, especially in urban areas, to the education of the culturally and ethnically diverse population of second language learners. The education literature since the 1980s reflects concerns with, among other issues, multiculturalism, cultural diversity, racism, and identity. Rampton, Harris, and Leung (2001) offer one such critique of policy and practice. The promotion of bilingual learners' languages and cultural heritage in schools has become a "given" when working within diverse urban ethnic and multilingual communities. Concerns with equality have increasingly underpinned this work and subsequently have become identified as a critical factor in minority ethnic students' underachievement. The work of Gilborn and Mirza (2000) and that of Harris (2006), examine the complex interplay of these factors and others that influence the educational achievements of minority ethnic learners. In all three international contexts, debates about language education for minority ethnic and second language learners are situated within continuing ideological and political discussions that cannot be ignored in language teacher education.

In several education contexts, issues of English language proficiency now merge with those of literacy (another strand in the educational debate about what is necessary for

economic success) at both the individual and national level. Work in literacy studies (e.g., Street 2003) investigates the relationships between literacies, languages, ideology, and power and is particularly relevant to the debates in TESOL with respect to the globalization of English. The field of critical discourse studies (see Hedgcock, Chapter 14) also provides support for a richer examination of the interplay of social languages with identities, meanings, and cultural models within a critical framing that could enable both teachers and learners to engage with and critique dominant discourses that are both empowering and disempowering (Gee 2004). Within the arena of multilingual and multicultural education for minority ethnic learners, where ESL teachers' work necessarily addresses social justice and equity issues, an awareness of the discourse of racism and how it is embedded in social structures constitutes a first step to challenging such practice. Work by such authors as Wetherell and Potter (1992) and van Dijk (1987) have provided a foundation for others.

Current Approaches and Practices

The current practice, which addresses the issues raised in the above literatures, resides in teacher-education programs that are informed by sociocultural approaches to education. Teacher education in the ESL field has always addressed issues of language, culture, heritage, and identity within particular contexts of learning. Norton and Toohey's (2004) edited collection reflects their concern to engage teachers in a reevaluation of practices in diverse international contexts with respect to issues of social relationships, power, and pedagogy (see Hawkins and Norton, Chapter 3). This volume provides a critical perspective on language education and also includes topics such as gender and critical research practices, which are explored within a framework that aims at engaging participants in reflexive discussions about critical approaches to language education that require "commitment to social transformation, justice and equality" (p. 15; see also Burns, Chapter 29). Other content will need to provide a broad knowledge base that is rooted in the sociology, politics, and cultural studies of English as a world language, which will help student-teachers to develop a critical awareness of the discourses that pervade dominant practices and teaching materials (see also Singh and Richards, Chapter 20).

Student-teachers need to engage with case studies and tasks that address these issues by bringing together the insights of the detailed studies generated by the decentered of the local arena and the macro-politics of the international arena. These need to relate to such areas of content as the nature, relevance, and ownership of English as a world language, which is realized in a diversity of ways in specific cultural contexts; the ways in which the cultures of English can interact with and enhance the identities and literacies of language learners and teachers and the communities on which they impact; the dangers of English as a predatory, colonizing, force in contrast with being a resource that language users of diverse origins can colonize with their own values and dispositions; and the diverse natures of English as it is expressed in diverse literatures and genres.

There are several good examples of pieces of research that might provide the basis for case studies (Canagarajah 2006). Rampton's (2007) study of how British secondary school students develop their own intelligent, apparently subversive discourses on the peripheries of "the lesson" reveals a deeper sense of the development of communicative competence than can often be found in teacher designed activities. Other examples can be found in Holliday (2005) and in Harris's (2006) study of young people who negotiate multilingual contexts on a daily basis. Student-teachers need to be made aware that learners bring multiple identities to the classroom, and to language learning and use, and to consider how they can use this knowledge to develop responsive curricula and pedagogy (Leung, Harris, and Rampton, 1997).

Such examples of the communicative richness of student life out of sight of the teacher might complement the psychology of language learning found in SLA (see Ellis, Chapter 13) with a social psychology of how communities of students find their own ways to deal with the political realities of classrooms, and would provide novice teachers with a broad sociology of the nature of the TESOL phenomenon they are about to engage with.

Student-teachers also need awareness and understanding of issues regarding the role of the teacher and relationships in the classroom and the power of language to regulate relations in that context. An understanding of Bourdieu's (1993) conceptualization of linguistic and cultural capital and how this provides a theoretical framework to support discussions of language, culture, and power relations would also be relevant. In addition, teacher education programs should include opportunities to investigate more fully the concept of culture as a dynamic, multifaceted, ideological, and political construct. Inherent in this discussion is a need to make explicit how language, culture, identity, relations, ideology, and power are relevant to all language teaching and learning situations, despite the differences in contexts among the various strands of English language teaching. In each context, teachers and learners will place different emphasis on these factors. Arguably it may be simply a question of weighting; thus, in a state-funded education context such as in England, all of these elements play a part in language learning, whereas in Mumbai, the emphasis may be on language, and to some degree power, in that learning to speak and use English can influence earnings and status. In the EFL class in England, learners wanting to undertake a university degree may also consider their changing identities, as they move from EFL learners to postgraduate students, as an important factor in their language learning. Nevertheless, the expectation would be for the student-teacher to have an awareness of these factors and their relevance to their teaching context, and address them accordingly. Thus, the focus of teacher education is about drawing upon a wide range of knowledge and skills to respond to more localized contexts of language learning.

It is therefore important that the case study format, within the teacher education activity, should present student-teachers with a piece of decentered research taken from a setting different from their own. The case study should demonstrate the cultural complexity implicit in classroom learning. Exposure to Sri Lankan pupils writing their own cultural identity into their foreign textbooks in Canagarajah (2006), or British pupils acting out their own complex literacies on the periphery of the classroom in Rampton (2007) would thus be instrumental in transporting student-teachers into other spaces from which they can then make better sense of their own classrooms.

Issues and Directions

The introduction of the sorts of sociological, political, and cultural studies content described here may require some basic changes in educational orientation. The designers of teacher-education and training programs need to set the starting point right by acknowledging the cultural dispositions and abilities of so-called nonnative-speaker teachers and learners as equal in every respect to those of the Center. The tradition has been to see nonnative-speaker teachers as specifically located and limited within the home national, regional, ethnic, or religious cultures in which they are "expert." This culturally confining attitude needs to be replaced with an understanding that teachers from all "speakerhood" backgrounds are equipped to work equally, though diversely, in all settings.

Implicit in the approaches described is the notion of a cosmopolitan, globalized world within which English can play a major role in cultural continuity. Here we need to take heed of Bhabha's (1994) distinction between Center and "vernacular" concepts of the cosmopolitan. We need to be wary of Center constructions of the Periphery, of culture, and

of context. What we need to get away from is the standard fare of what sorts of methods and content are suitable for students from specific cultures, which may, dangerously and uncritically, indulge in negative essentialist stereotyping (see for example, Holliday 2005: 71, citing Baxter's qualitative study of three British training courses).

Underpinning much of this discussion have been assumptions that need to be regularly reexamined as our understanding and knowledge base in language teacher education draws on an increasing number fields of research and knowledge. A major challenge presented by the approaches described above is how to find room for this new content in existing programs.

Although we have located the sorts of decentered studies necessary to increase student-teachers' sociocultural knowledge in publicly funded education in multicultural settings in the English speaking West, second language teacher education needs to be supported by sustained decentered research from other locations. Canagarajah's (2006) study in Sri Lanka has been referred to previously as one such case. Much of this currently exists in qualitative doctoral dissertations written by educators from the Periphery who have the privilege of resources to take time out to reflect deeply on the complexities of their workplaces. However, it is as a result of the unequal postcolonial world that we need to understand that decentered research is rarely seen without the support and framing of Center institutions.

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SECTION 2

PROFESSIONALISM AND THE LANGUAGE TEACHING PROFESSION

This section introduces current issues and debates relating to the nature and development of professionalism in the language teaching profession, including the emergence and diversification of qualifications and standards. It also focuses on two groups of language teaching professionals who over the last decade or so have increasingly become a focus of interest and research in second language teacher education.

Leung, in Chapter 5, takes up the question of what constitutes professionalism in SLTE. He distinguishes between *sponsored professionalism*, laid out by regulatory bodies and professional associations to promote professional action and motivate educational reform, and independent professionalism, developed through socially and politically sensitive awareness of professionalism on the part of teachers themselves. He argues that SLTE programs should aim to offer teachers ways to find a balance between these two forms of professionalism.

Following Leung's discussion of professionalism, in Chapter 6 Barduhn and Johnson discuss the key issue of certification and professional qualifications. They distinguish between the notions of certification and licensing and overview the current status and nature of programs aimed at professional preparation. They consider what the range of current certification programs, which they note ranges from certificate to PhD level, offer and discuss strengths, weaknesses, and potential areas for improvement.

Chapter 7, by Katz and Snow, overviews current approaches and practices in the development of standards and the standards movement. The use of standards is increasing both as a strategy for enhancing teacher development and as a way of generating benchmarks for learner performance. While they see the need for SLTE programs to be concerned with both, they also lay out criticisms that have been leveled against the standards movement and

caution against the uncritical adoption of standards that may constrain rather than enhance effective teaching.

Freeman, McBee Orzulak, and Morrissey examine the state of assessment in language teacher education in Chapter 8. Here they also describe how the focus of assessment has evolved as understanding of the nature of language teaching and teacher learning has developed and review the complex issues involved in assessing both teacher knowledge and teacher practice. They point out that for language teachers, language is both the content and process of teaching and that assessment practices in SLTE include a focus on language knowledge, on teaching practices as well as on learning outcomes. They examine a wide range of different contexts for teacher assessment including both public sector and private sector settings and describe how different contexts for assessing language teachers make different assumptions about the focus and processes of assessment.

Although it is a fact that the majority of language teachers around the world are nonnative English speakers (NNES), it is only recently that debate and research relating to this group have emerged. In Chapter 9 Kamhi-Stein highlights issues in SLTE in relation to NNES teachers. She notes that two broad themes are highlighted – language proficiency in teacher preparation programs and issues of teacher socialization related to teacher-in-preparation programs in English dominant, or "Inner Circle" countries. She suggests that these two lines of research have much to learn from each other.

In Chapter 10, Wright raises issues related to the development of another group of professionals who are receiving increased attention – language teacher educators. He provides an overview of what becoming a teacher educator involves, noting that only recently has the notion evolved that language teacher educators' work is "sufficiently different" from language teachers' work to warrant separate forms of professional development. He argues that formal teacher educator development, in addition to the personal and informal that has existed in the past, is vital as teacher educators have a central role in mediating what is disseminated to teachers as defining pedagogy. He concludes with five interwoven issues that he sees as critical to the further emergence of teacher educator professional development.

CHAPTER 5

Second Language Teacher Professionalism

Constant Leung

INTRODUCTION

In general usage, a "professional" is a trained and qualified specialist who displays a high standard of competent conduct in their practice, for example, "We're very proud of the professional manner in which our teachers have implemented the curriculum reforms." The term *professionalism* is regularly used in a constitutive sense to refer to practitioners' knowledge, skills, and conduct. In discussions on teacher education, professionalism issues are often addressed through questions such as *What should teachers know?* and *How should teachers go about their business?* Other chapters in this volume are good examples of such discussions. Over time and in different educational environments though, the *what* and the *how* questions can, and often do, lead to different answers in different contexts.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

This protean nature of the conceptualization of teacher professionalism is the main concern of this chapter. I will first look at some examples of how teacher professionalism in general, and second language teacher professionalism in particular, can be characterized and defined differently at different times and in different places by professional and / or political authorities; sometimes different and incompatible definitions can coexist without mutual reference in the same place. I will refer to all such instances of institutionally endorsed and publicly heralded definitions as *sponsored professionalism*. Sponsored professionalism is usually proclaimed on behalf of teachers as a collectivity; therefore, it does not necessarily coincide with individual teachers' views on professionalism, as often as not because it is promoted by regulatory bodies to introduce reform and / or by professional associations to advocate change.

After that I will examine the need for individual teachers to develop socially and politically sensitive views of professionalism; this is a particularly important issue for

second language teachers working in the diverse field of English language teaching (ELT) in different world contexts (see also Hawkins and Norton, Chapter 3). I will refer to this more individually oriented notion of professionalism as *independent professionalism.* In the final section I will discuss two examples of the kind of issues that independent professionalism can address. I will close with a few brief remarks on the ways in which tension between sponsored professionalism and independent professionalism, where it arises, can be dealt with.

In this discussion I will not dwell on issues such as the different types of second language teacher professional knowledge, because they have been addressed at some length by other chapters in this volume (see Graves, Chapter 11). Suffice it to say that for the purpose of this discussion, any definition of second language teacher professionalism, either sponsored or independent, is regarded, among other things, as a selectively combined set of disciplinary-based knowledge, ethical principles, and time- and place-specific work practices. Throughout this discussion my assumption is that teacher practice should be informed by both sponsored and independent professionalisms that can engage with local and particular pedagogic issues without losing sight of wider social and ideological issues (see Leung 2002; Pennycook 2000). Teacher-education programs can play an important part in developing this sense of professionalism.

Overview

SPONSORED PROFESSIONALISM – SHIFTING SANDS?

The expression of sponsored professionalism can appear in a number of different forms. One example is end-of-course standards, which student-teachers are required to meet in the subjects that they have studied; another example would be the pronouncements made by peak professional or regulatory bodies on the kind and level of disciplinary knowledge and practical experience teachers are expected to have. Teaching quality inspection menus and quasi-judicial decisions related to disputed teacher conduct can also be seen as expressions of sponsored professionalism. What counts as desirable professionalism to be sponsored, however, does not always stay the same over time.

Troman (1996), for instance, finds that the definition of the *good teacher* in primary (elementary) education in England changed over a period of 30 years. Generally speaking, up until the mid-1970s, there was long-standing profession-wide support for the view that a good primary teacher was, inter alia, a generalist; that is, someone who would be able to teach the full range of curriculum subjects. In other words, primary teachers were not required to have specialist knowledge, say, up to first degree level, in any of the subjects (e.g., mathematics or English or music) that they taught; what was important was a teacher's ability to *teach* across the curriculum subject range. However, this view began to change in the late 1970s when government inspectors of schools began to promote a view of the "good primary teacher" as a subject specialist with appropriate initial teacher education. A general and nonspecialist ability to teach in a large number of subject areas was no longer regarded as adequate. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, this emphasis on subject specialism was maintained. In addition, with the introduction of national curriculum reforms in the 1990s, primary teachers were also expected to take on managerial roles to coordinate new teaching content and to implement officially endorsed teaching strategies. Traces of this officially promoted characterisation of the "good" primary teacher as a subject specialist-cum-manager can be found in much of the official teacher education guidance in England today (e.g., Training and Development Agency for Schools, 2006).

In a comparative study of the current initial teacher education systems of England and Norway, Stephens, Tønnessen, and Kyriacou (2004) observe that the postgraduate teacher-education system for school education in England in recent years has significantly reduced the time allocated to academic study (e.g., theory of education) and moral debate. Overall the system "envisages effective teaching as equivalent to performing set mechanical tasks well" (p. 111). In contrast, the Norwegian system pays explicit attention to social and moral dimensions in education as well as attends to the development of student-teachers' competence in teaching skills: "Intending teachers are expected to base their professional work on core Christian and humanistic values such as equality, compassion and solidarity" (p. 113). Schoolteacher professionalism has thus been constructed very differently by the education ministries in these two countries.

In the diverse field of ELT, sponsored language teacher professionalism has also been construed in quite different ways by different authorities in different places. In the United States, for instance, individual states operate different qualificatory frameworks for English language teachers who work in the publicly funded school systems (see TESOL, undated). In England since the early 1990s, the education authorities have provided no public funding for full-time initial schoolteacher preparation for English Language teachers[1]. Indeed, an epoch-defining official guidance document in 1991 pronounced that "[l]anguage teaching is the professional responsibility of all teachers," that is, a general teaching qualification will suffice (National Curriculum Council, 1991: 1). Currently no mandatory formal subject specialist qualification or training (see Barduhn and Johnson, Chapter 6) is required to teach English language in schools in England. In contrast, English language teachers working in the state-funded post-16 (adult) colleges are required to obtain specified general and specialist qualifications (National Institute of Adult Continuing Education 2005)[2]. In the commercial English Language school sector (catering largely for adult learners), the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA, University of Cambridge ESOL, undated), if not the more advanced Diploma (DELTA), is generally regarded as an industrial standard for teacher qualification. These variations reflect the localized nature of the sponsored conceptualization of ELT professionalism everywhere. Indeed, it would be true to say that there is no single publicly espoused definition of ELT teacher professionalism that would apply in all educational contexts. The diversity in teacher qualifications signals that at the collective level publicly endorsed teacher professionalism is context-sensitive, reflecting historical, social, political, and ideological contingencies. In a sense the various mandated professional qualifications represent socially and politically powerful views on preferred teacher professionalism. Whether they resonate with individual teachers' opinions and practices is another matter, but they are always representations of particular viewpoints and interests (Ball 1990, 1997).

The Value of Sponsored Professionalism

Public statements on sponsored professionalism can serve a number of different purposes. Apart from defining formally what professional practitioners are supposed to know and do, they can also help to frame the content of professional education programs. The contrasts in content between the English and Norwegian initial teacher-education systems is a good case in point. There is then an instrumental and utilitarian value in publicly sponsored professionalism. In terms of democratic debate, public statements on sponsored professionalism are also helpful in making visible the epistemic and value preferences adopted by a specific authority or professional body. This is a particularly important issue for teacher professionalism in general, and for second language teacher professionalism in particular, for at least two reasons.

First, there has been a strong policy preference for measurable accountability in public service, which includes education, in recent years. The prime reason for this development has been economic, or more accurately, the return to ideological prominence of market forces in public policies. It has been noted that this return to economic rationalism has been felt in a large number of societies. Broadfoot and Pollard (2000: 13) succinctly summarize the impact of this powerful and still-growing international trend on education in this way:

> The 1970s and 1980s had seen a growth in international economic competition. This, together with growing financial pressures and an increased demand for state institutions to be accountable, underpinned a desire to curb the professional autonomy of teachers and to replace it with a much greater measure of central control. The underlying rationale here was provided by "New Right" beliefs about the beneficial role of market forces and competition in driving up standards, and controlling "producer interests" . . . In such a model, assessment and measurement has a particular role in providing "objective" information on which educational "consumers" such as parents and governments can base their decisions.

Of course, this tendency toward economic rationalism and measurable public accountability is not a uniform development across different countries. Stephens et al. (2004), for instance, observe that one of the reasons for the differences between the English and the Norwegian initial teacher education is that, unlike England, Norway has not yet adopted economic rationalism wholesale, although elements of it are "filtering in." In the authors' words, Norway is still a "Milton Friedman Free Zone" (p. 113). That said, it is undoubtedly the case that in societies where public accountability is expressed in mainly measurable terms there is curtailment of professional autonomy, that is, a reduction in the level and / or type of independent professional decision making outside the prescribed criteria. Sachs (1999: 3) suggests that in conditions where there is policy preponderance toward marketization of public services, teacher professionalism tends to be expressed in terms of a corporate management model characterizing a professional as someone

> who clearly meets corporate goals, *set elsewhere* [emphasis added] . . . The criteria of the successful professional in this corporate model is of one who works efficiently and effectively in meeting the standardised criteria set for the accomplishment of both students and teachers, as well as contributing to the school's formal accountability processes.

Although Sachs's comments are related to developments in Australia, similar kinds of conceptualizations of teacher professionalism can be found in other places (see Training and Development Agency for Schools, 2006; U.S. Department of Education, 2004; also see Kogan 2000 for further comments). From the point of view of trying to understand the nature of sponsored teacher professionalism in context, it would be very important to study the model(s) being invoked.

The second reason for paying close attention to public statements on sponsored professionalism is that the ELT field is very closely bound up with major changes in the ways English is perceived and used in the world. The continuing processes of globalizing industrial production, technological development, trade, and movements of people have shifted the foundations on which some of the old certainties in ELT were built. For instance, it has been observed that although English as a form of colonial legacy is not welcome by formerly subjugated peoples, the use of English as a lingua franca by peoples in the world (including former colonies) for business, education, popular culture, leisure, and political purposes in cross-community and cross-lingual settings is growing rapidly (also see Brutt-Griffler 2002; Graddol 2006; Jenkins 2006, among others). This in turn raises issues

such as what language functions should be included and what language norms should be adopted in ELT pedagogy (see Kamhi-Stein, Chapter 9). The once-comfortable assumption of learners having a set of predictable communication needs in second or foreign language contexts may no longer obtain. Likewise, the adoption of native speaker norms as default pedagogic reference points for student performance may no longer be sustained (Holliday 2005; Leung 2005; this issue will be taken up further later).

Another area of change is associated with the developments in digital communication technology, which have impacted the way we use and work with language. For example, the notion of literacy is constantly being reconstituted. Canagarajah (2006: 26) observes that "because of the resources available in computers and the World Wide Web, texts have become polysemic, multimodal, and multilingual [and] diverse dialects, registers . . . now commonly inhabit the same textual space" (also see Kress, Jewitt, Ogborn, and Tsatsarelis 2001). Under these conditions, notions such as genre, which once seemed well understood, have now been destabilized. In general, reading and writing practices have changed in quite fundamental ways with the developing technology. These are just some of the issues that ELT professionals have to grapple with on a continuous basis. (For a further account of the disciplinary issues ELT teachers have to deal with see Burns 2005, Chapter 1.) All this suggests that any notion of pedagogically responsible teacher professionalism should be built on a dynamic process of engagement with emerging social, political, and technological developments.

Independent Professionalism – a Source for Self and Collective Renewal

If sponsored collective professionalism can at best represent a particular view, and if as teachers we wish to take an inquisitive and critical (but not necessarily hostile) view on handed-down requirements, and to take emerging developments in the world into account in our professional practice, then there is a need for individual practitioners to be engaged in reflexive examination of their own beliefs and action. Reflexivity is the willingness and capacity to turn our thinking (and action) on itself, thus making it an object available for self-examination (Babcock 1980; for a related discussion on teacher reflection see Burton, Chapter 30; Johnson 2000). Engaging in reflexive examination is an important element of *independent professionalism*, or a commitment to careful and critical examination of the assumptions and practices embedded in sponsored professionalism with reference to discipline-based knowledge and wider social values, and to take action to effect change where appropriate. Of course, this kind of reflective action presupposes making conscious personal choices – to comply professionally with sponsored models and / or regulatory requirements and their associated values, or to question their educational, pedagogic, and social validity. The argument here is that ELT as a transnationalized profession can only retain its vitality with the latter course of action, particularly in contexts where professionalism has been tightly constrained by managerial models or where it is underrepresented (e.g., in situations where no specialist ELT teacher qualification is required). Seen in this light, teachers informed by a sense of independent professionalism will be receptive to alternative perspectives on rountinized practice, and they will seek to update and modify their knowledge and work in ways that are consistent with their developing views.

Current Approaches and Practices

I will now exemplify the case for independent professionalism through two "local" second language education issues.

ISSUE 1: APPROPRIATE PRONUNCIATION NORMS

The appropriacy of insisting on adopting native speaker norms in ELT has been widely questioned for some time now (e.g., Cook 1999, 2002; Jenkins 2006; Quirk 1985, 1996; Widdowson 1994, 2003). However, the default preference for the so-called native-speaker model seems to have seeped deeply into the fabric of ELT practice (see Kamhi-Stein, Chapter 9) and, it has to be said, into student perception. Luk and Lin (2006) report a telling case showing this naturalized norming preference in relation to the Hong Kong Language Proficiency Assessment for Teachers (LPAT). The LPAT was designed to ensure that all teachers of English (and Putonghua) had reached the official benchmarks of proficiency. For the spoken language component of the test, pronunciation is assessed. Luk and Lin observe that only English speakers with native-like pronunciation can achieve the top grade (level 5), because to achieve this grade, the teacher test-takers have to demonstrate error-free pronunciation with no traces of first language (Cantonese in most cases) characteristics. On one particular occasion when one of the authors attended a standardization meeting for assessors, the official facilitator (a mother tongue Cantonese speaker) advised the gathering that replacing /ð/ with /d/ (*dare* for *there*) or equal stress in multisyllabic words, for example, *autumn*, were errors.

The descriptor for the top grade in the speaking test and its interpretation in the form of advice given by the facilitator tell us a good deal about the complex and deep-seated assumptions involved. If only native speaker pronunciation is acceptable as evidence for the top grade, this would effectively preclude a vast majority of the test-takers, teachers of English, in Hong Kong since most of them are nonnative speakers of English. Apart from the obviously undesirable effect of telling the bulk of the teacher test-takers that they have little hope of achieving the top grade, the rating scale itself seems to signal that nonnative speaking English teacher cannot provide top grade pronunciation models for their students; they are effectively branded as "next best" teachers of English. We also know that some phonemic substitutions such as /ð/ with /d/ do not tend to interfere with intelligibility (Jenkins 2000), and placing equal stress on multisyllabic words, if anything, can enhance intelligibility. Teachers with a sense of independent professionalism would raise questions such as "What is the purpose of setting a virtually unachievable target for this test?" and "What would count as an appropriate pronunciation model for school teachers in Hong Kong?" And if, after careful deliberations, the answers to the above questions suggest that an alternative should be proposed, the next question would be "what short and long term actions should be taken?"

ISSUE 2: SEPARATE OR MAINSTREAMED ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROVISION FOR LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS IN ENGLISH-SPEAKING SOCIETIES

English language teachers working with school-aged students in places such as Australia, England, and parts of the United States (e.g., Florida) have been grappling with the issues of mainstreaming. In the past, English language learners were provided with separate English-intensive programs for the initial period. When their English proficiency was judged to be adequate to follow the "ordinary" curriculum, they would be integrated into "ordinary" classes. In the last 20 years or so, this initial separation practice has been abandoned by a number of educational jurisdictions, for example, England and Florida. In broad terms *mainstreaming* means the integrating of English language learners into the "ordinary" classes upon arrival without major curriculum adaptation to take account of their specific language learning needs.

The mainstreaming initiative has been supported by proponents of inclusive education. Proponents of this approach argue, inter alia, that initial separation is discriminatory in that it denies English language learners full access to the curriculum, and that the separate

English language provision offers an impoverished language environment for second language acquisition (e.g., no opportunity to interact and learn from English-speaking peers). Arguments in favor of initial intensive English language provision include (a) the access to the mainstream curriculum is largely legalistic; educationally mainstreaming is unsound in that early stage English language learners are unlikely to benefit from exposure to the curriculum when they lack the means to understand the content, and (b) the immediate immersion (some would call it submersion) into an English-speaking environment without assistance is tantamount to a sink or swim approach, which is inconsistent with known effective language learning and the general principles underpinning any kind of organized curriculum. (For a fuller discussion see Harklau 1994; Leung, 2001, 2005, 2007; Mohan, Leung, and Davison 2001; Platt, Harper, and Mendoza 2003.) The type of English language provision for language minority students is largely determined on the basis of ideological commitments. For teachers working in educational environments where initial separation or mainstreaming has been chosen, a sense of independent professionalism would raise questions such as "What are the reasons for initial separation or mainstreaming in local contexts?," "What evidence is there for either option to be a satisfactory form of provision for learners of different backgrounds, needs, and level of English language proficiency?" and "What alternative arrangements can be devised that would better meet the needs of learners?" And of course, questions related to possible actions would follow this examination.

Issues and Directions

Working with Sponsored and Independent Professionalism: The Art of the Possible

In terms of everyday practice, second language teachers, just like all other teachers, have to conduct themselves in accordance with the rules and expectations that prevail in their context of work, even if they harbor strong misgivings about aspects of their work. This is, in a way, a common-sense obligation in so far as one wishes to work as a teacher. The central contention in this chapter though, has been that sponsored professionalism forms only one part of professionalism. The vitality of the teaching profession, if teachers are to be more than mechanical operators of pedagogic procedures, requires practitioners to reflect critically on their practice with reference to wider educational and social issues, and to take appropriate action to modify their values and practices. Given that ELT teachers work in very diverse social and political circumstances in all parts of the world and have to deal with potentially very different educational and professional environments, teacher-education programs should and can offer student-teachers an opportunity to develop a professional orientation that takes account of both sponsored and independent professionalism. Perhaps it would be important to say that the kind of professionalism being discussed here would sidestep traditional concepts of left- or right-wing politics; the issues in mainstreaming English language learners, for instance, illustrate the tangled nature of ideologies in educational matters. So, it is not a question of being on the left, right, or center of any political spectrum in the first place; it is about having a high degree of professional consciousness that is informed by relevant specialist knowledge and explicit values.

In practice this means inculcating a cast of mind that is capable of critical reflection on one's daily work that can lead to a considered view of one's professional activities, alternative perspectives and follow-up actions where appropriate. The kind of professional action that would promote alternative perspectives and practices includes public activities such as formal and informal discussions with colleagues with a view to disseminating alternative

information and views, participating in professional association campaigning and lobbying activities, and democratic representational work through open political channels. Individual teachers may also engage in more *private* professional activities through focused research on particular issues to improve one's own knowledge and understanding, and / or engage in specialist courses of study.

Suggestions for further reading

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Notes

[1] In British schools English as a Second Language is referred to as English as an Additional Language.

[2] In the post-16 sector, the term English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) is preferred.

CHAPTER 6

Certification and Professional Qualifications

Susan Barduhn and Jenny Johnson

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to describe the skills and knowledge that can be gained from second language teacher qualifications around the world and what level of expertise is valued by employing and institutions and accrediting bodies. The content is derived from current literature and from the experience, knowledge, and contacts of the authors, who have more than 60 years of experience in English language teaching and teacher training between them. Both public sector and private sector institutions are considered in these areas:

- the processes of getting certification
- an exploration of ways in which some countries have attempted to establish standards and criteria to describe both competency and excellence
- the issues around these areas

In addition to considering the skills and expertise that training programs seek to inculcate, we will consider what it is that needs improvement in teacher-education programs. We include those programs that award an initial certificate to teach to be followed by a more substantial qualification after extended professional experience. We also discuss which qualifications, beyond the minimum, teachers may opt to study for, and what may motivate teachers to acquire these extra qualifications.

Scope and Definitions

The four principal areas involved in professional recognition for ELT (English Language Teaching) work suggested by Martha Pennington are career structure, accountability, power base, and qualification (Pennington 1992). Regarding qualification, she advocates that:

> . . . like other professional areas, ELT must be perceived within academia and by the public at large as an educational specialization with unique requirements for preparation and evaluation of its practitioners. We can go a long way toward making this goal a reality if we insist that those without the proper qualification are not in fact properly qualified to teach ESL. (Pennington 1989a, 1989b, p. 17)

Qualifications abound. In fact, the latest directory of professional preparation programs in TESOL (Garshick 2002) lists 400 programs at the undergraduate and graduate levels in the United States and Canada alone. There are many more offered in the United Kingdom, Australia, Japan, and around the world. What is more at issue is the range of acceptable qualifications in our field, in which there are teachers with PhDs at one end of a continuum, and at the other there are teachers who can and do teach without any recognized qualifications whatsoever. This chapter examines some of the issues around certification and professional qualifications in international ELT.

Overview

Donna Kerr astutely summed up the history of the field of certification in teacher education when she stated that, "The sheer number of characters, the substantial measure of fate, and the intricacy and entanglement of plots could fund a nineteenth-century Russian novel" (Kerr 1983: 126). The culprit, she reasons, is deliberate policy decisions that abhor complexity, choosing to remain deliberately vague. Certainly there has been development over the years in the qualities sought in a novice teacher. Lortie (1975) identified the 13,000-hour "apprenticeship of observation" that students in schools spend observing their teachers. This observation time automatically precedes all teacher preparation. He explains:

> From the perspective of more than three centuries of schooling, the creation of formal arrangements for training and certifying teachers is relatively recent . . . For over two hundred years, those who taught school received no special preparation . . . During colonial times . . . certain expectations were held for teachers: acceptable moral character, proficiency in the subjects to be taught, and maleness – the last being thought necessary to wielding the rod of control. (p. 17)

It is perhaps only in the last 30 years that a substantial degree of professionalization has taken place. Traditional subject matter (phonetics and grammatical theory) has been expanded to include "pedagogical grammar, discourse analysis, second language acquisition, classroom-based research, interlanguage syntax and phonology, curriculum and syllabus design, and language testing" (Richards 1990: 3). Agreement is lacking, however, on what teachers actually need in order to be ready to teach. In many contexts, for example, the training of primary level teachers takes place in teacher training colleges, whereas the training of secondary teachers is more often the responsibility of the universities, which may not appreciate the value of practical teaching (Randall and Thornton 2001).

Wallace (1995) describes three models of teacher education that have appeared chronologically through history:

1. the craft model
2. the applied science model
3. the reflective model

In the craft model all of the expertise of teaching resides in the training, and it is the trainee's job to imitate the trainer. The applied science model has been the traditional and probably the most present model underlying most teacher-education and training programs. The followers of this model believe that all teaching problems can be solved by experts in content knowledge and not by the "practitioners" themselves. The third model envisions as the final outcome of the training period that the novice teacher becomes an autonomous, reflective practitioner capable of constant self-reflection leading to a continuous process of professional self-development. This is the current trend in teacher education and development.

The evolution of certifying or licensing teachers has not always run in parallel with the changing views above on teacher education. Eraut (1994) writes:

> Historically, it is interesting to note the gradual transition in English-speaking countries from a situation where competence was a concept developed by the professions to justify the introduction of qualifying examinations to one where competence became a concept used by government to justify control over licensing arrangements and / or public expenditure. In the first case the professions were concerned with maintaining their status and reputation by excluding unqualified practitioners, in the second government was seeking to limit professional autonomy in order to safeguard the interests of the public. Naturally, the definition of what in practice was meant by "competence" reflected the political purpose it was intended to serve. (p. 159)

The year 1986 was a watershed year for teacher education in the United States, following the publication of reports by the Carnegie Forum and The Holmes Group, which also included suggestions for second language education. These reports argued for the elimination of teacher education at the undergraduate level entirely, offering it only at graduate level; for rigorous entrance standards for teacher-education programs; for the need for career ladders and a national board of standards; and for ways of associating university programs more closely with schools (Lange 1990; The Holmes Group 1986).

This trend toward professionalization has seen a differentiation being made between certification and licensing. "Certification is the process of deciding that an individual meets the minimum standards of competence in a profession. Licensing is the legal process of permitting a person to practice a trade or profession once he or she has met certification standards" (Cronin 1983: 175). An example from New York follows this sequence: the issuance of a **certificate** of qualification following an examination at the end of the Bachelors degree, the completion of a very carefully supervised **internship** of one year to qualify for a limited permit good for four years of teaching, and finally the completion of an Masters to qualify for a permanent teaching **license** (p. 179).

In the international arena, however, there is a great variety of acceptable qualifications. Barone et al. (1996) state that "there is literally no end to the complex and overwhelming task of discovering, reporting, summarising, analysing and critiquing the corpus of teacher education research conducted in nations outside the U.S. Such a task is probably suitable to an encyclopedia or perhaps a book dedicated to the topic" (p. 1047). In general, the Bachelors is the highest qualification required around the world, and yet in certain contexts, in order to teach, it may be sufficient to have passed certain English language exams, or to have attended a few workshops, or even just to be a native speaker with or without qualification or experience. It is also true that in some desperately underresourced parts of the world, particularly in rural areas, it is simply not practical for any qualifications to be required. This is an example of the thinnest end of the wedge:

> I have . . . given you a rough picture of the plight of our teachers here in my State. Things are not bright. Teachers in fact are a neglected lot. Sometimes the situation can be really bad. . . . 90% of the teachers have no teacher qualification at all. In fact English teachers are not even aware of what ELT is at all . . . To be honest with you . . . , I am the only one with an ELT qualification in the whole state. Can you beat that? I am struggling alone to make my people aware of what ELT is all about. (a teacher from India, in private correspondence)

Many teachers start work in ELT, typically in privately run and privately funded language schools, after a four-week preservice course. According to Senior (2006), the CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) is the best known and most widely taken initial TESOL/TEFL qualification of its kind in the world, with 10,000 candidates successfully completing it each year in training centers in 135 countries (118 in the U.K. alone). Yet the number of people, principally native speakers of English, taking the CELTA or another equivalent course, such as the SIT's TESOL Certificate or the Trinity Certificate in TESOL, is far smaller than the number of teachers, principally *non*native speakers, trained annually through teacher training colleges and universities worldwide.

At the other end of the scale, Pennington optimistically assumes a Masters as the most basic qualification and feels that the desired level of qualification for all teachers is a PhD:

> We must also face up to the fact that as long as we are a Masters rather than a Doctoral level specialisation, we will have problems being recognised within tertiary institutions. Although people who have a Master's level qualification in ESL have specialised skills and are appropriately qualified for teaching English at tertiary level, we must work to bring the qualification of the ELT professional up to a PhD level, or else settle in to being second-class citizens in a society of PhDs. (1992: 18)

Current Approaches and Practices

Regardless of what the initial qualification is, it does not guarantee future effectiveness as a teacher. In 1994, Eraut wrote, "The current expectation of professional qualifications is based on a general judgment of competence which divides learning professionals into two groups, those who are properly qualified and those who are not" (pp. 167–8). The current trend across the world, however, is the move to view teacher education as an ongoing process, with teacher-education programs increasingly striving to link subject knowledge with practical experience, and recognizing the need to balance the simultaneous roles of (a) learner of teaching and (b) teacher of students. As Hawkins (1973) put it, "It may be possible to learn in two or three years the kind of practice which then leads to another twenty years of learning. Whether many of our colleges get many of their students on to that fascinating track or whether the schools are geared to a thoughtful support of such learning by their teachers is another matter" (p. 7). Hawkins' observation implies that becoming a *learning* teacher is not only a matter of individual disposition, but also depends on how teachers are prepared and the conditions under which they carry out their work.

As mentioned above, regulatory bodies are now tending to award an initial certificate to teach, to be followed by a more substantial qualification after extended professional experience. There are partnerships that exist between schools, local education authorities, and higher education institutions, for example, which provide attachments for novice teachers with the support of a mentor. This form of school-based training resembles an

apprenticeship, as opposed to traditional university-based courses, which can be perceived to be overly academic. Lave and Wenger (1991) use the term "legitimate peripheral participation" to describe the process by which newcomers become part of a community of practice. In Japan there are several types of professional development (*kenshu*) programs developed by the government: leadership development; internships for beginning public school teachers with a supervised, reflective induction into teaching; prefectural programs organized by the local education center to promote career objectives; and long-term *kenshu* through graduate study (Shimahara 2002: 11). Even the regulatory body of the CELTA, for example, is now more circumspect in the claims it makes for the course, stating that it is no longer intended to be a preparation in itself for teaching, so much as an initial step along a longer road to professional development (Ferguson and Donno 2003).

Those are examples of teacher-education programs that incorporate teacher development into the qualification process itself. For teachers choosing to undertake professional development after that there are various paths. Within the public sector, for example, beyond the minimum requirement of a Bachelors, teachers may go for qualifications such as a Masters, or a government-recognized qualification, or a teacher-training course endorsed by their Ministry of Education, while a small minority aim at a PhD. In the private sector, teachers may go on to attain a DELTA (Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults) or equivalent 200-plus hour qualification, an in-service training course, or teacher development through workshop-based training.

Among the reasons for acquiring qualifications beyond the minimum, a personal desire for development ranks highly, with salary increase, when it exists, being a big motivator. Other reasons include needing a further qualification for promotion, wanting one for variety in work and for personal motivation. A further qualification is often a requirement of a teacher's employers, indicating that there is an expectation in both the private and the public sectors for teachers to continue learning and developing beyond the minimum essential requirement.

Issues and Directions

The challenges around the world that teachers find in getting certification can be as basic as locating a regulatory body capable of training teachers and / or finding the time and finances to complete the training. Challenges around teacher-education courses themselves may be that they are too theoretical and so novice teachers may find themselves with a recognized qualification, but lacking both competence and competencies. In addition, there are issues around the complexity, practicality, and reliability of assessment systems and the appropriateness of the qualifications for the range of jobs they cover (Eraut 1994). Examples of final assessment instruments now include portfolios and other reflective documents, recognizing the fact that there are problems with reliability concerning standards that are based primarily on observed behavior.

There are a number of areas where changes could be made to bring about improvements. Among these areas of weakness, there are issues around the needs for:

- higher language proficiency before nonnative speakers are allowed into teaching programs
- fairer and more rigorous assessment
- improved curriculum content that leans further toward the practical rather than the academic
- syllabi that take psychological aspects better into account
- retraining of lecturers

- more partnership schemes between national bodies and teacher-training institutes
- more funding and scholarships for teachers
- better access to courses, exams, and opportunities for further development
- more emphasis on relationships and mentoring
- more opportunities for employment
- more respect for the teaching profession

As for trends and future directions, The International Council on Education for Teaching convened in Rome in 1982 with representatives from 21 countries on five continents, and its findings are still significant for our purposes. They found that qualifications for teaching were generally increasing throughout the world. The two most significant elements stated as indications of this are requirements for (a) a university degree and (b) practical experience in classroom teaching before certification. There is a widespread trend for teacher education to be the province of universities but in conjunction with school-based experience. Countries, especially the ex-colonial, are developing their own models of teacher education embedded in local culture, and no longer accepting uncritically the importation of foreign models. This includes a trend toward using innovative methods to upgrade the quality of untrained and undertrained teachers in remote rural areas (International Council on Education for Teaching, 1982). Overall, there is an acceptance that the process of teacher education is one in which certification is an entry into the profession, not full membership, keeping in mind that what is required for certification varies enormously from country to country, depending on what is available and the many factors that influence the ability to acquire them.

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CHAPTER 7

Standards and Second Language Teacher Education

Anne Katz and Marguerite Ann Snow

INTRODUCTION

This chapter addresses the topic of standards in second language teacher education. It is concerned with how standards might be designed and implemented as one strategy for improving language teacher education. In the chapter we will define different kinds of standards, examine their applications to various audiences and educational levels, and provide examples of several different standards projects. We will also consider some of the key issues and future directions of the standards movement.

> The English teacher uses a variety of instructional strategies and resources appropriately. The English teacher plans instruction according to the Ministry's educational goals, English curriculum, and assessment framework.

> The English teacher adapts instruction to take into account differences in students' development, learning styles, capabilities, and needs.

> The English teacher plans activities that will assist students in developing language skills and learning strategies.

The three boxes above contain standards for English teachers. They are drawn from a domain called *Planning and Management of Learning*, which deals with one aspect of a teacher's job, namely classroom instruction. These three standards could probably apply, perhaps with a change in wording here and there, to English teachers in almost any setting in the world since all teachers must set up and deliver appropriate learning experiences in order to achieve instructional objectives. In fact, these standards are just three of 18 standards developed for English teachers in Egypt. Taken together they provide a road

map that Egyptian teachers can use to develop professionally (*Developing Educational Standards in Egypt*, undated).

Scope and Definitions

What are standards? Standards may be described as tools that can be used to improve outcomes. The kind of outcomes desired depends on the goals for improvement – whether they target teachers, teacher trainers, educational leaders, students, programs, and so on. The major benefit of standards is that they set out clear expectations for all involved in the educational enterprise, including the public. They provide a "common language" for talking about the process of teaching and learning (Harris and Carr 1996). For teachers and administrators, they provide guidelines for designing instruction, curricula, and assessment. They also set criteria for program excellence and, perhaps, for promotion and career advancement. For teacher educators, they set out the competencies needed by prospective teachers as they prepare for teaching careers. For students, they set clear performance expectations, assisting them to understand what they should know and be able to do to meet standards.

Over the past decade, standards have become the lynchpin of educational systems both in English-medium countries and in a growing number of other countries around the world. Also known by labels such as attainment targets, band-scales, benchmarks, competencies, essential skills and knowledge, profiles, and *saviours* and *etres*, standards form the basis of a reform model. By organizing around a central and coherent vision of instructional outcomes, educational systems – schools, governmental agencies, ministries of education – strive to create the kinds of changes in program delivery that will lead to higher levels of learning.

The standards literature typically distinguishes between content standards and performance standards (National Research Council, 1999). Content standards identify the essential knowledge, skills, and dispositions (sometimes called attitudes or habits of mind) that should be taught and learned in schools or educational programs. Performance standards express the degree or quality of proficiency expected in relation to content standards. Thus, content standards in teacher education specify what a teacher or teacher candidate should know and be able to do, and performance standards set levels of achievement to assess the degree of learning. These two aspects of standards, identifying learning outcomes and measuring progress in attaining those outcomes, are characteristic of a variety of standards projects developed for specific contexts.

Standards are often couched in broad general terms as they lay out the territory of learning. For them to provide a useful direction for planning preservice programs, designing certification criteria, or setting goals for professional development, however, they typically are accompanied by more specific "indicators," which describe assessable, observable activities or behaviors that may be performed to show the standard is being met. An indicator for the Egyptian teacher standard listed in the first box at the beginning of this chapter is: *The English teacher uses a variety of instructional strategies and resources appropriately.* A visitor to this teacher's classroom might observe her using whole-class, group, and pair-work activities along with the course textbook and stories that the students themselves have written as they work on the grammar and vocabulary objectives of that day's lesson plan.

Indicators can also be used to describe levels of achievement. *Performance indicators*, another term associated with standards, are designed as a series of descriptions at various levels that provide specific information about what teachers know or can do. For example, the *TESOL/NCATE*[1] *Standards for P–12 Teacher Education Programs* (TESOL 2002) are meant to guide the preparation and licensure of ESL educators in the United States. The TESOL/NCATE Standards provide performance indicators and accompanying rubrics

describing teacher performance at three levels, *Approaches Standard*, *Meets Standard*, and *Exceeds Standard*. These performance levels help teacher educators identify aspects of a teacher candidate's performance and locate that performance on a developmental continuum. One performance indicator, for example, states that the teacher candidate can: "apply knowledge of phonology (the sound system) to help ESOL students develop oral, reading, and writing (including spelling) skills in English." According to the rubric, a candidate who *meets* this standard must: "apply knowledge of developmental and contrastive phonology to identify difficult aspects of English pronunciation for their students, noting how ESOL students' L1 and identity may affect their English pronunciation." Thus, performance indicators can illustrate how teachers progress from level to level toward a fixed reference point – the standard.

Current Approaches and Practices

In this section we will discuss a number of initiatives to illustrate how standards have been used for different purposes and in a variety of settings. We will start by describing standards for teachers and then explore standards that describe what language learners must know and be able to do. We include these standards since they articulate the content for instruction and assessment in language classrooms that competent teachers need to know and utilize in designing lessons.

STANDARDS FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

What skills and knowledge do teachers need in order to demonstrate competence in teaching English language learners? How can preservice and in-service programs ensure that teachers develop effective practices?

The sample standards that led off this chapter were developed as part of a project intended to help improve the effectiveness of English teaching in Egypt. Over the course of this project, four sets of standards were developed for: English teachers, in-service trainers, in-service programs, and educational leaders. (For detailed descriptions of the Egyptian standards project, see Katz and Snow 2003; Snow, Omar, and Katz 2004.) A second initiative, Standards for Teachers of English at Pre-Service (STEPS), identified the social, linguistic, and pedagogical competencies required by prospective teachers who intend to teach English in primary, preparatory, and secondary schools (*Developing Educational Standards in Egypt*, undated). An example standard from the domain Classroom Management is the following: "The newly qualified teacher effectively manages instructional time and transitions, minimising disruptions and smoothly handling interruptions to maximise learning." The two projects, targeting teachers at different levels of experience, played a key role in providing a framework for the development of the Egyptian National Standards (*National Standards of Education in Egypt*, 2003).

Standards have been developed in other EFL settings as well. In China, for instance, teacher performance standards were designed with local applications in mind, encouraging teachers to "look at your particular needs and inspire your development in your particular contexts" (Agor 2006: 221). They are built around eight domains that reflect best practices while respecting the Chinese educational system. Table 1 displays the domains used in the Egyptian, Chinese, and TESOL/NCATE teacher standards.

Since the context and purpose for developing standards differ across initiatives, the resulting products differ somewhat in terms of how they articulate the core body of knowledge and skills required for teaching. At a broader level, however, they share certain traits. Smith (2007) sorts the range of features characterizing standards for teachers into four

Egyptian Teacher Standards	Chinese Teacher Standards	TESOL/NCATE Standards
• Vision and Advocacy • Language Proficiency • Professional Knowledge Base • Planning and Management of Learning • Assessment and Evaluation • Learning Community and Environment • Professionalism	• Knowing Students • Appreciating Attitudes • Planning, Delivering, and Reflecting on Instruction • Constructing Knowledge of Languages, Language Learning, and Critical Thinking • Exploring and Applying Culture • Assessing Teaching and Learning • Connecting beyond the Classroom • Expanding Profession Horizons	• Language • Culture • Professionalism • Instruction • Assessment

Table 1 Domains used in the Egyptian, Chinese, and TESOL/NCATE teacher standards

levels (individual, group, school, and profession) and three domains (behavioral, affective, and cognitive). Thus, teachers must demonstrate competence in various domains not only in their own classrooms, but in working with peers, taking on a role at the school level, and acting as a professional in the wider community. In addition, it is important to emphasize that much of the content that English teachers must understand and master is set by the content standards required of their students. As the following sections illustrate, this content varies by context and over time.

ESL Standards in English-Medium Countries

TESOL has overseen the development of two sets of content standards for ESL learners. The first set, TESOL's *ESL Standards for Pre-K–12 Students* (1997), articulated the broad English language content required by school-age students for success in school. The document consisted of three overarching goals, each supported by three content standards. Attempting to capture the breadth and complexity of language competencies needed for new learners within an immigrant setting, the three goals focused on social language, academic language, and sociocultural language. By 2006, the educational landscape in the United States had changed to such a degree that TESOL published a new set of standards. The *Pre-K–12 English Language Proficiency Standards* (2006) represent a shift in thinking about what students need to know and to be able to do in English to be successful in the classroom, offering a greater focus on academic English within specific content areas. For example, Standard 3 states, "English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of Mathematics." Organized by grade level spans and language domains (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, and writing), sample performance indicators for each standard illustrate student progress in achieving a targeted learning outcome across five language proficiency levels. Here is an example of a strand of sample performance indicators for Standard 4, the language of science. For this example, designed for grade levels 4–5 and focused on reading, the content topic is *properties of matter* and *energy sources*.

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Find examples of forms of energy from billboards, magazines, and newspapers	Sequence steps of energy use and depletion from phrases and illustrations	Follow illustrated directions to test hypotheses about energy in scientific inquiry	Interpret results of inquiry from illustrated text (e.g., in lab reports)	Infer applications of information about energy gathered from modified grade-level text or inquiry-based projects

Table 2

This incorporation of a performance aspect within the standards ties in with the increasing emphasis on standards-based assessment within U.S. schools.

While these standards initiatives represent a national perspective on what school-age students in the United States need to know and be able to do in English, additional standards have been created by individual states and adopted to varying degrees by local school districts. Thus, teachers must wade through a plethora of standards in their attempts to create standards-based instruction.

Other English-medium countries have published standards as well. In a review of selected ESL standards, McKay (2000) describes the *ESL Scales* (Curriculum Corporation, 1994) as part of Australia's national effort to improve teaching and learning. Combining both content and performance features, they consist of a series of outcomes accompanied by a scale ranging from 1 to 8 that provides a framework to chart student achievement. As in the United States, standards in Australia have been developed under the auspices of individual states, and so multiple models can be found. In New South Wales, for example, the ESL objectives published by the Board of Studies include these broad learning goals related to both oral and written language:

Students will develop knowledge and understanding of:
- the relationships between texts and contexts
- cultural reference in text
- the relationships between purposes and structures of texts
- language forms and features of texts.

These Australian ESL learning goals, like the U.S. standards, reflect the local philosophical terrain. In this case, they are based on a sociolinguistic model of language that draws on systemic functional linguistics (Halliday 1994).

EFL Standards in Non-English Medium Countries

The movement toward a centralized, coherent definition of what students should know and be able to do is gaining ground in EFL venues as well. In Oman, for example, the Ministry of Education uses the term *competencies* in describing student learning outcomes for each grade level. These outcomes are divided into the four domains of reading, writing, listening, and speaking; and within each domain, the outcomes are further categorized. Following is an example from grade 4, reading.

SENTENCES	TEXTS
General Outcomes	**General Outcomes**
CAN: (a) understand sentences (b) understand the use of punctuation and capital letters (c) recognize and understand words and phrases	CAN: (a) understand general meaning (b) identify main points (c) extract specific information (d) recognize and understand words and phrases
Specific Outcomes	**Specific Outcomes**
CAN: (a) understand statements (b) understand the use of capital letters and the punctuation marks already introduced (c) recognize and understand the most important vocabulary items already introduced	CAN: (a), (b), and (c) understand a variety of (i) short texts and (ii) longer, more complex texts: – descriptions – narratives – series of instructions (d) recognize and understand the most important vocabulary items already introduced

Table 3

In China, the EFL learner standards cover primary level (grades 3–6), junior level (grades 7–9), and senior level (grades 10–12) and cross over three domains: The Learner, The Language, and The World (Agor 2006). An example standard under The Learner domain is: The learners will "develop and use a range of strategies to derive, express, and clarify meaning in reading, writing, speaking, and listening to English."

Standards for Additional Languages

Major initiatives in the area of language proficiency have been undertaken to describe the knowledge and skills needed by learners in order to use another language effectively for a variety of purposes. In the United States, the Proficiency Guidelines of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (1996) set out standards for five goals that underpin foreign language teaching in the K–12 setting: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities. Standard 1.1 of Communication states: "Students engage in conversation, provide and obtain information, express feelings and emotions and exchange opinion." A sample progress indicator for this standard for grade 12 states: "Students exchange, support, and discuss their opinions and individual perspectives with peers and / or speakers of the target language on a variety of topics dealing with contemporary and historical issues." The standards are meant to be used in conjunction with state and local standards and curriculum frameworks to determine the best approaches and reasonable expectations for students in individual districts and schools.

The Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (2001) was developed to improve the quality of communication among Europeans of different

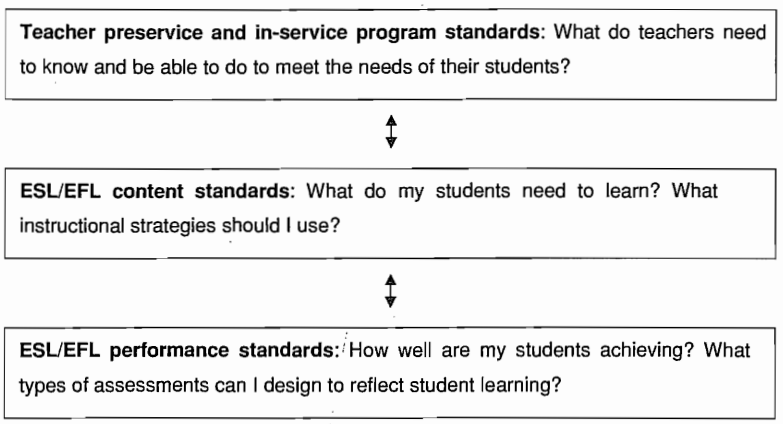


Figure 1 A model showing the connections across standards

language and cultural backgrounds. The CEFR provides a common language for describing communicative performance, and thus can serve as a basis for elaborating language syllabi, curriculum guidelines, examinations, and textbooks regardless of the target language. The descriptions of language proficiency, couched as "can do" statements, facilitate the mutual recognition of language qualifications gained in different learning contexts, thereby aiding mobility across the European Union. They also provide educators within a country with a consistent frame of reference for designing and evaluating language programs and practices.

As the description of selected standards projects suggests, standards vary, both for teachers and students, according to their function and purpose within educational systems, thus reflecting local perspectives on the content of English and how to teach it. Figure 1 is an operational model illustrating how standards designed for different purposes can be connected.

Standards serve as a common frame of reference for talking about teaching and learning. They can offer a coherent vision and direction for instruction and criteria for evaluation. From the examples provided in this chapter, one can see the commonalities across frameworks designed for very different age groups, educational levels, and instructional settings. This tells us something compelling about the core of language teaching, yet reinforces the importance of relating standards to local contexts.

Why are standards important in teacher-education programs? As our model in Figure 1 suggests, standards can guide the direction of teacher preparation in several ways. First, teacher standards outline the array of competencies for preparing teachers for the complexities of the second language classroom. Teacher standards define both what it means to be an effective teacher as well as how those competencies can be assessed. Second, teachers need to have a thorough understanding of English learner standards to inform their own awareness of what students should learn, the needs of second language learners, and the nature of second language development. In addition to knowledge about learner standards, teachers must be able to use them in planning instruction and assessment in their own classrooms. Learner standards, both content and performance, should inform the design of curriculum, the choice of materials, the use of instructional techniques and strategies, and the array of assessment tools used to chart student progress in achieving targeted learning aims.

As we gain experience with standards across diverse contexts, we have identified several characteristics of standards that illustrate how standards are being implemented.

- **Standards are dynamic.** When educators write standards, they incorporate their current beliefs about language, learning, and teaching into what they identify as the essential knowledge, skills, and attitudes that make up content. These beliefs reflect a specific time and place since they are tied to the prevailing educational paradigm and political context of the local setting, which may change over time. For this reason, accreditation bodies such as NCATE in the United States typically require that standards be revised periodically. The TESOL/NCATE standards, first published in 2002, must be revised every five years. They are currently undergoing revision to reflect possible changes in understandings of ESL teacher competence. TESOL has recently developed *Technology Standards for Teachers*[2] Standard 1 (of Goal 1) states that "teachers will demonstrate an understanding of a wide range of technology supports for language learning and options for using them in a given setting." Given the extraordinary pace of change in the area of technology, these standards will have to be updated regularly to reflect the now unimagined types and uses of technology in the second language classroom.
- **Standards encompass a range of performance levels.** Identification of content is merely the first step in creating a standards-based framework. Performance levels provide educators with a means to understand what teachers or students know and are able to do over time and a measure against a constant target. They also allow teachers at all skill levels – experienced teachers as well as novice teachers developing their craft – to locate their own practice within a common set of reference points.
- **Standards are systemic.** Through identifying content and targeted levels of performance, standards form the core of accountability systems. Effectiveness is tied to how well different parts of the system – teachers, teacher-education programs, students – perform. Because standards permeate various components of educational systems, teachers must be aware of the various standards documents that impact their classrooms and, thus, their own professional development.

Issues and Directions

While standards have been touted as a means to transform education in positive and productive ways, they also present us with many challenges. A number of critics have questioned the validity of the descriptions that characterise standards (McKay 2006). Many standards documents are based on individual teacher's experiences, often referred to as practical or craft knowledge (Smith 2007), or are informed by other standards documents. Bailey and Butler (2002–03), for example, found, in their observations of elementary school science classrooms, that many of the language functions set out in various learner standards were at odds with actual classroom uses of language. They therefore join McKay's call for a sound theoretical base for construction of standards and validation of standards against documented practice. Further empirical research is needed to verify the developmental pathways represented in standards documents and to determine accurate reflections of teaching and learning outcomes.

There is also a lack of consensus on what constitutes teacher expertise (Murray 2001). Given the individualized and highly contextualized nature of "good teaching," how closely

can the professional knowledge extracted from one setting be applied to others? Furthermore, not all educators agree that standards have identified the most important learning outcomes. Some feel that standards constrict the view of teaching and learning, a "one-size-fits-all" approach (Ohanian 1999), since as part of accountability systems they are linked to assessment schemes that value what is tested over what is useful or important. Others are concerned that standards have the effect of making schools "teacher-proof," reducing teachers to the role of "compliant technicians" rather than decision-making professionals (Falk 2000).

The focus on outcomes has also meant limited thinking about ways of supporting teachers as they develop the competencies needed to improve teaching skills. It is not enough to know about standards. Teachers need explicit training in both selecting and using standards, both for their own professional development as well as in improving instruction for their learners. Evaluation designs that rate teaching effectiveness based on student test scores place enormous pressure on teachers and education systems to perform at the highest level and as quickly as possible. Expectations for the rate of professional growth and development may not be sensitive to individual teacher needs and available resources even when those expectations are shaped by standards.

As standards move beyond defining teacher competence for training and education purposes, another challenge is determining the role standards should play in other aspects of a teacher's career, such as teacher promotion and career advancement. Egypt, for example, as part of a wholesale educational reform is moving away from a deeply entrenched seniority-based system in which time served was the primary criterion for career advancement (Fitzgibbon 2008; Touba and Abdelkhalek 2008). Procedures for testing and subsequent licensing of teachers will create a career path of five levels from assistant teacher to master teacher, seeking for the first time to implement a system that promotes excellence and equity over seniority. Since the licensure and testing procedures will be anchored in standards, the high stakes nature of this reform demands that the teacher standards upon which the licensure tests are based are accurate reflections of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes expected of effective teachers.

These are only a few of the key issues and directions for standards in second language teacher education. As Cheng (2001) points out, teachers in an era of rapid change may be required to assume expanded roles and responsibilities, including curriculum developer, new teacher mentor, staff development facilitator, or action researcher. Standards, thus, must necessarily consider these expanded roles and the new knowledge, competences, and attitudes needed to meet changing professional challenges in all areas, including technology, in the course of a teacher's career.

As we move further into the twenty-first century, our thinking about standards must also move from describing desired competencies and performance levels to considering how to ensure that those competencies are relevant to the audiences they are meant to serve. Educational standards are designed to present a coherent vision of effective teaching and learning practices. By illustrating a consistent target, standards have great potential to nurture growth and development. Unfortunately, as an integral component of accountability systems, they have also become static and generalized descriptions, often with little connection or relevance to the teachers for whom they have been designed. Building in entry points for teachers so that they connect standards to their own practice is key to ensuring that standards impact and change that practice and fulfill the promise of reform. This requires shifting the way we understand and use standards, from an emphasis on the end product (a summative focus) to one that illuminates the process (a formative focus). Standards have the potential to guide professional development innovations such as teacher portfolios, teacher study groups, and peer collaborations. Our challenge will be to develop pathways that will support teachers in using standards in meaningful ways.

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Notes

[1] TESOL is the professional organization, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. NCATE is the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education.

[2] Go to www.tesol.org to view the Technology Standards for Teachers and Technology Standards for Students.

CHAPTER 8

Assessment in Second Language Teacher Education

Donald Freeman, Melinda McBee Orzulak, and Gwynne Morrissey

INTRODUCTION

THE ARC OF ASSESSMENT

Assessment, like many aspects of second language teacher education, is changing. Several factors are driving the change, among them how we understand the work of teaching generally, language teaching in particular, and more fundamentally the role of teachers' knowledge in teaching. There are also issues of identity and practice: who teachers are and what they are expected to teach in the face of changing student demographics, all of which are redefining theoretical frameworks for assessing knowledge-in-action. Thus, what might, at one point, have seemed like a straightforward notion – documenting what teachers know as language teachers – is becoming increasingly complex. When that knowledge was seen as unitary – knowing about language, its grammar, form, and uses – then assessing it could be equally straightforward: it was simply a matter of testing teachers' knowledge of content.

However, this formula – that content could equal competence – belied the messy complexity of language teaching itself. The challenge with language teaching is that teachers *use language to teach language*, so knowledge in language teaching is actually a dual phenomenon: It must relate (or blend) content and process in and through language. Language is the basis of the lesson – *what* the teacher is teaching – and it is the means of teaching it – *how* the teacher teaches that lesson. Added to this complexity is the more general challenge of assessing teaching as an activity: whether to document its processes (what the teacher is doing), its outcomes (what the students appear to have learned), or some combination of the two[1]. There are also key choices to be made in assembling such documentation: whether the records are grounded externally in visible practices or combine, or indeed are based in, the teacher's self-assessment of their work.

The confluence all of these challenges and issues make the question of assessment in second language teacher education a rich, complex, and shifting enterprise. We gather these

complexities under what we call the arc of assessment, to capture the way these concerns, and indeed the central question of how best to document what language teachers know and do in relation to their own and their students' learning, are shifting over time.

Scope and Definitions

Locating the Focus and Manner of Assessment

This chapter addresses three questions: What is the focus of assessment in second language teacher education? How has that focus changed and why? And how have the ways of assessing this evolving focus changed and evolved? Together these questions frame the changing parameters of assessment in this field in terms of its *focus*, what is to be assessed, and the *manner*, or how, it is to be assessed. We suggest that these parameters of what and how are, at least to some extent, mutually defining since the profession has tended to assess *what* we could figure out *how* to assess. However, as the arc of assessment extends into complex questions of knowledge-in-use or -in-action, the focus has broadened and the processes have been reoriented so that the synergy between focus and manner is moving in new directions.

All of which calls for a broader definition of assessment. Increasingly critics recognize the interrelation of information gathered through tests and how that information is interpreted and used as part of the assessment process. Moss, Girard, and Haniford (2006) locate assessment in an ascending set of practices that include testing, assessment, and assessment practices. They follow the *Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing* to connect "tests" and "assessments," as follows:

> . . . tests [are] an evaluative device or procedure in which a sample of an examinee's behavior in a specified domain is obtained and subsequently evaluated and scored using a standardized process. (AERA, APA, NCME, 1999: p. 3)

Assessment is a broader term for ". . . a process that integrates test information with information from other sources (e.g., information from the individual's social, educational, employment, or psychological history)" (AERA et al. 1999, p. 3). Combining these two terms, Moss et al. redefine *assessment practices* as ". . . a process of inquiry that integrates multiple sources of evidence, whether test-based or not, to support an interpretation, decision, or action." (Moss et al. 2006: 152).

This widening perspective goes beyond test scores alone to put information and how it is used at the center of the assessment process. Moss (2008) argues that assessment involves

> . . . questions or problems being addressed and the kinds of evidence needed / used to address them. . . . [F]urther that use of evidence to address questions or problems – to support interpretations, decisions, and actions – is an ongoing aspect of the interaction (whether formally designated as "assessment" or not). (p. 227)

These broader interactions, or "assessment practices," she contends, ". . . do far more than provide information; they shape people's understanding of what is important to learn, what learning is, and who learners are" (p. 254). Including these so-called political judgments locates the specific information from tests in the contexts, or assessment practices, of its uses, which is key in understanding assessment in second language teacher education.

In second language teacher education, we include in this arc of assessment preservice teacher preparation and training, in-service professional development, and also judgments that are made through licensure and certification about entry into the profession. These latter functions are generally vested in policies and regulations at the national, regional, and perhaps local levels. They are part of state licensure regulations in the United States (e.g., Freeman and Riley 2005); in national qualification frameworks in countries like Australia, England, and South Africa for example; and in national regulatory structures in other countries (e.g., Korea, Mexico, Spain, etc). In addition, in the case of English language teaching, there are well-developed teacher assessment schemes, which are internationally portable, at least at the entry level (www.cambridgeesol.org/teach/). These preemployment assessments often lead to certification judgments, whereas assessments done during employment, such as formal and informal teacher supervision (Bailey 2006), can impact relicensure, promotion, and ongoing employment.

Our discussion traces three broad phases in the development of the *focus* of assessment in second language teacher education. We start from what we call the *conventional* view in which testing knowledge about language as content provides a proxy for teaching knowledge. This conventional view has developed into an increasingly *elaborated* view of language as content, which distinguishes proficiency in the language as a medium of instruction from knowledge about that language as content. Recently, we argue that there has been an *emerging* view that acknowledges that language functions as both the medium and the content of lessons through pedagogy. This emerging view considers as central the wider frame that Moss (2008) refers to above as "assessment practices": "... people's understanding of what is important to learn, what learning is, and who learners are" (p. 254). These three phases – the conventional, the elaborated, and the emerging – reorient the *manner* in which teacher knowledge in second language teaching has been assessed. By *manner*, we refer to the choices made about how to document what language teachers know and do, either directly, as through observation for example, or indirectly, as with self-assessment, portfolio, or a paper-and-pencil test.

OVERVIEW

THE DILEMMA OF LANGUAGE AS CONTENT

We have argued that assessment, then, interrelates a focus (*what*) with a manner (*how*); we want to turn now to the person: *who* is being assessed. In fact, assessment practices categorize people according to *what* knowledge is being documented and evaluated through the assessment. Defining who is being assessed is usually relatively straightforward, although as we will see in language teaching, those definitions depend on context. This may be because in second language teaching, the content, or what teachers know, is circumscribed and defined by the context. We call this complex interplay between the *who* and the *what* in assessing second language teachers, the dilemma of language as content.

WHO IS BEING ASSESSED

In second language teacher education, it is important to position the discussion of the individual teachers who are being assessed in context, since those judgments are, at least in part, a function of the individual teacher's position within the broader social setting and workforce. From this perspective, we differentiate among three key sectors in this teaching force since assessment is generally approached differently depending on the aims and resources available in each sector.

The first, so-called public, sector refers to teachers in national or regional employment. The aim in this sector is to qualify and license teachers according to national or regional (e.g., state-level in the United States) determinations of pedagogical and subject matter competence (see Katz and Snow, Chapter 7). Most assessments in this public sector depend on a combination of the candidate's educational record (transcripts, course evaluations, and the like) and paper-and-pencil tests that are nationally or regionally administered. In certain situations, they can be complemented by self-assessment measures and representations of practice, as in paper or electronic portfolios, which assemble samples of the candidate's work accompanied by analytic and reflective statements. In all instances though, the assessment process, which is entirely *ex situ*, is separated from the candidate's actual teaching performance.

Within this first public sector, there is a further distinction in second language teaching between what are called "foreign," or "world," language teachers, who teach languages other than the national language, and "second," or "additional," language teachers, who teach students the language of instruction / schooling[2]. Thus, in an English-speaking national context like the United States or Australia, "world foreign language," or LOTE, teachers may be teaching Mandarin Chinese, French, or Spanish, whereas "second," or "additional language," teachers are teaching English to children or adults who are speakers of other languages. In another national language context, such as Italy for example, "foreign language" teachers may be teaching English or German, whereas "second," or "additional language" teachers, if they are so licensed, would be teaching Italian to immigrant children. In these diverse cases, assessments of candidates usually combine review of their educational records, as documented by degrees, with certain *ex situ* written assessments, which are, at times, reflective self-assessments.

In addition, in this first sector, "foreign," or "world language," teachers can often be expected to teach the literature(s) and culture(s) of those languages (Hawkins 1981, McFerren 1988). So a foreign language teacher of French may be expected to teach the writings of Camus or Baudelaire, whereas an English as a foreign language teacher in certain state-school settings may be expected to teach Shakespeare or cultural information about living in New York City or London. However, these same teachers, if they are working in "second or additional language" settings – perhaps teaching French to immigrants in Quebec or English to children who are new to U.S. schools – would not be expected to be knowledgeable in those literatures, and the cultural information, although central, would be treated differently. This distinction between "foreign" and "second" language teachers complicates the task of mapping assessments of what these groups of teachers should know, especially since in some circumstances, the knowledge needed may shift when one is teaching a language as a foreign language in one context or teaching the same language as a second / additional language in another.

This complex interplay between content as language proficiency and as literary or cultural knowledge is often highlighted in the debate of the role of the native-speaking teacher. In contrast to other areas of education, the public sector in second language teaching is perhaps unique among subject matters in also having a second, "private," sector. This sector, which is made up largely of private, non- and for-profit institutions and schools, is generally un- or perhaps semi-regulated; in it, language teachers are hired based on their proficiency and social / cultural background[3]. These teachers are referred to as "native-speakers," usually because they were born in communities that used, and were educated in, the language they are teaching. This simplistic social / cultural qualification that equates being a native-speaker with being competent to teach has diminished a great deal in the last two decades. However, in some national and regional contexts, such judgments, which are completely unassessed, do persist, usually as a function of the market for the languages being taught (e.g., the demand for English in countries in east Asia, or recently for Mandarin

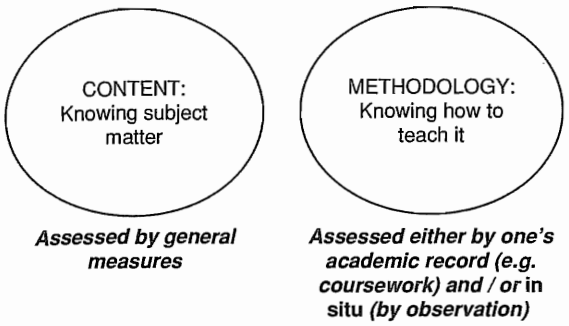


Figure 1 The conventional frame

Chinese in many communities in the United States). Pasternak and Bailey (2004) provide a useful way of charting this interrelation between teachers' language proficiency and their professional preparation (see Kamhi-Stein, Chapter 9, for more discussion).

There is a third sector, which is in many ways entirely unique to the teaching of English as a foreign language: the transnational entry-level teaching credentials offered by independent assessment authorities (e.g., the University of Cambridge ESOL Assessment's Certificate of English Language Teaching to Adults [CELTA]). These credentials, which date from the 1970s, are well-established (Poulter 2007) and are undergirded by assessments that support, at least in theory, a globally portable credential. Assessments in this third sector are generally *in situ*, operating through the training design itself. Candidates are judged qualified by the trainers' ongoing judgments of their work, participation, and practice teaching in the course itself. These judgments are then corroborated through an external system of moderation. Usually an assessor, who is qualified in the curriculum but outside the particular running of the course, visits the site, meets the trainees, and assesses their work. In this way, these global qualification schemes provide checks and balances, which blend emic, or insider, judgments of the trainer with the etic, or outsider, corroboration of the assessor.

Although these three sectors share a common overall purpose in assessing what teachers know – to determine competence however described – they differ in the *focus* of assessment and in how content, or what is being assessed, is defined, which we discuss in the following section.

WHAT IS BEING ASSESSED

The question of what is being assessed has become increasingly complicated. Until the mid-1980s, knowledge-for-teaching tended to be defined almost exclusively as content knowledge. Pedagogical knowledge, usually based in teaching methodology, although it was recognized as part of what teachers might know to teach, was rarely focused on in general assessments. Knowledge-for-teaching was equated to knowing the subject matter – mathematics, chemistry, history, and so on.

This basic formulation (Figure 1: The conventional frame) obeyed a certain common-sense logic: If teachers did not know their content, they could not be qualified to teach it. Thus, given the manner of such assessments, which tended to be paper-and-pencil and often multiple-choice tests of basic content knowledge, testing content was a common surrogate for assessing knowledge-for-teaching.

During the 1980s, the logic of this conventional frame was challenged on several fronts. The question of whether subject-matter knowledge in itself was most important in teaching came under fire. In mathematics, for example, the work of scholars in the National

Center for Research on Teacher Learning (NCRTL) (e.g., Ball 1988; McDiarmid, Ball, and Anderson 1989) examined the premise that preservice teachers with university degrees in mathematics might be better prepared to teach than preservice teachers with specific preparation in mathematics education. For the former group of subject-matter / mathematics majors, the researchers found that ". . . their additional studies do not seem to afford them substantial advantage in explaining and connecting underlying concepts, principles, and meanings" (Ball 1988: 24).

The argument that subject-matter knowledge alone was not adequate to teach effectively brought to the fore students as learners. How, in the words of Stevick (1976), could a teacher claim to have taught, if students had not learned? This basic riddle formed the basis of Shulman's now-broadly embraced construct of pedagogical content knowledge. Writing in 1986, Shulman described this new construct as "the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others" (p. 9). Placing subject matter in relation to learners, he argued that

> pedagogical content knowledge also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons. (Shulman 1986: 9)

Shulman's proposal for a different knowledge construct was driven in part by the policy proposal in the United States to establish a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), which would "define what teachers should know and be able to do" and "support the creation of rigorous, valid assessments to see that certified teachers do meet those standards" (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986, as cited in NBPTS, 2007). The intent, as Katz and Snow (Chapter 7) argue, has been that standards – as putative exemplars of effective teachers' knowledge, skills, and attitudes or dispositions – change the focus of teaching assessments from an evaluation of the end product to an "illumination" of the teaching process. Clearly teachers' self-assessment is central in this process. Katz and Snow (Chapter 7) suggest that portfolios, such as those used in National Board Certification, are useful means of representing teacher learning and skills in this process.

Current Approaches and Practices

While pedagogical content knowledge introduced an argument for making more complex judgments about teachers' knowledge, it proved a difficult construct to enact both in teacher education and in undertaking assessments of classroom practice. Questions of how this emergent, contextual knowledge of teachers' practices could be documented – let alone scored – raised both psychometric and hermeneutic issues. The teacher's emic knowledge of practice called for a new theory of assessment (Moss 2008). Clearly the manner of such assessments also had to change, moving from simple written documentation to include video and / or observations, so that *ex situ* and *in situ* judgments could somehow be combined through elaborated portfolios and other means of documentation.

A key approach to addressing these hermeneutic issues has been to base assessment in a teacher's own interpretation of his or her practice. Such assessments might be performed as a mark of "independent professionalism," as Leung (Chapter 5) suggests. If teachers use only the "handed-down requirements" of sponsored "collective professionalism" in assessments of their work, the assessments may not generate continued professional learning. Such reflective examination of the process of teaching is often found in portfolios,

which can be mandated in relation to standards such as those posed by the United States NBPTS. There are also independent resources, such as the Web-based portfolios teachers can create with organizational support, such as the University of Cambridge ESOL Examination's online Teacher Portfolio (University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2006). In both cases as Katz and Snow (Chapter 7) argue, these self-assessment processes can serve to build a "common language" to discuss and improve the processes of teaching and learning.

Beyond these major challenges of implementation however, there is an even more fundamental one: The construct of pedagogical content knowledge may not work when it is applied in language teaching. Conceived to document the teaching of conventional school subjects (e.g., Grossman 1990), the construct may not function in the case of language. Simply put, although there may be one subject matter, there are two contents in language teaching: *Content*^{1} is the language itself; and *content*^{2} is knowledge about the language and its use (see Bartels, Chapter 12) as diagrammed here:

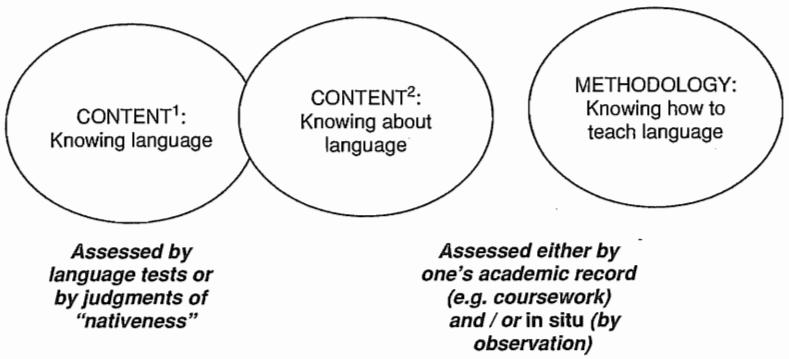


Figure 2 The elaborated frame (the conventional frame applied to language)

These two contents are in dynamic relation to each other. For example, a "foreign language" teacher who is teaching English in Brazil can teach English (*content*^{2}) in / through English (*content*^{1}), but she or he can also teach English (*content*^{2}) in / through Portuguese (*content*^{1}). Here the content^{2}, English, is the same; but it is framed and delivered in two different versions of content^{1} – English or Portuguese. This raises the real question since both are languages: What is the content of the lesson? Although the ideology of modern language instruction, in contrast to grammar-translation teaching, may privilege teaching the language in the language (e.g., Rivers 1981), thus making *content*^{1} synonymous with *content*^{2}, in fact, much foreign language instruction around the world generally presents the target language content (*content*^{2}) via the medium of the home or national language, which becomes *content*^{1}.

This distinction between the two contents has become a central feature of assessing teachers' knowledge in second language teaching. Generally speaking, knowledge of and fluency in the target language (*content*^{1}) is taken as a proxy for knowledge about the language (*content*^{2}) (Upshur 1971), although the reverse is not the case. Thus, in many settings, when English fluency can be referenced to birth and / or education, which happens in the concept of native speaker (Cook 1999; Davies 1996), a teacher candidate who is native is viewed a qualified to teach that language. However, other candidates, who may have in-depth grammatical and meta-linguistic knowledge, but who have not spoken or used the language from birth or perhaps in daily interactions, are seen as less qualified.

In this way, language creates a dilemma in the content, in measuring the mastery of subject-matter. By the late 1980s in the United States, requirements existed for either full

certification or endorsements in teaching most "foreign" languages. These assessments included tests in the target language, methodology, and cultural knowledge (McFerren 1988). Over the last 20 years, similar requirements have been developed for ESOL teachers, although these requirements have often been localized at state, or even district, levels. Presently, standardized tests such as the ETS *Praxis* battery, test language knowledge, metalinguistic knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge. Though these exams do not include an oral proficiency component for the examinee, they purport to test student language production, linguistic theory, pedagogical methods, assessment techniques and cultural issues, and professional issues (Educational Testing Service, 2005). Though not nationally required, the *Praxis* is frequently a state requirement in the United States for teacher certification in ESOL and foreign languages.

The dilemma of language as content has been played out in transnational or global assessment schemes as well. In 2005, the University of Cambridge ESOL Assessments developed the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT), which is now offered in 21 countries. Similar in some ways to the *Praxis* battery, the TKT has three independent modules that address language and background to language learning and teaching, planning lessons and use of resources for language teaching, and managing the teaching and learning process (University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2008; also Spratt, Pulverness, and Williams 2005). While both the TKT and the *Praxis* batteries appear to assess knowledge that could only be acquired through professional training in language teaching, they also include knowledge that an individual might acquire simply via an "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie 1975) of being a student in a language classroom and in school more generally.

The demand for national and transnational assessments of teaching knowledge in language teaching has been fueled in part by continuing policy moves to setting standards for teacher quality. Most major national systems in the Anglophone countries, with the notable exception of the United States, vest these quality standards for teachers generally in their national qualifications frameworks (e.g., Australia, England, New Zealand, and South Africa). However, the specifics are often murky, and there is usually no national curriculum for educating ESOL teachers, perhaps because it is a second / additional language in these settings.

The challenge of establishing national standards for language teaching as a basis for assessment is exceedingly complex because of the nature of language as content. When it was defined primarily in terms of its grammar, language was a relatively stable construct. However, as these definitions have evolved to account for the speakers' potential purposes in using language, such as those outlined in the Common European Framework of Reference in the countries of the European Union for example (Council of Europe, 2001), the construct of language itself has become blurred (Larsen-Freeman and Freeman 2008). There is no longer one standard against which language can be assessed; rather there can be multiple standards that hinge on the speaker's purpose and use.

Issues and Directions

The evolving construct of language has further blurred the distinction between knowledge of methodology and knowledge of content. The latter, knowledge of content, has depended as we said on a relation between language as medium, which we have called content[1], and language as subject matter, content[2]. This distinction is played out both in theory – what does it mean to know the language *versus* to know about the language – to determine qualifications, and in how teachers teach in classrooms. When the relationship conflated

notions of linguistic fluency or proficiency with language knowledge, then knowledge of content seemed relatively straightforward to assess. Knowledge of methodology, although it was usually treated separately, was seen as assessable through paper-and-pencil tests given *ex situ*, outside the classroom. However, recent work on knowledge for / in teaching has clarified that these distinctions between content and methodology are not viable in assessing the work of teaching. Research in teaching mathematics in elementary schools, for example, has found that parsing assessments into teacher's knowledge of methodology and knowledge of content as separate phenomena does not capture what teachers seem to know in order to teach (Ball, Hill, and Bass 2005). This research has, in a sense, extended and deepened Shulman's (1986) construct of pedagogical content knowledge, by focusing on assessments that can document the relationship between content and methodology in the act of teaching.

The problem is that, as we mentioned previously, language teaching presents a doubly complicated version of this relationship. Because methodology is delivered in language, if the language of delivery is the language that the students are learning, then methodology becomes content and vice versa. This is the interrelationship between we have called content[1] (or medium of instruction) and content[2] (or subject matter). As understanding of knowledge of content moves beyond a focus on teachers' linguistic or metalinguistic knowledge, work is starting to focus on knowledge of language in and for teaching. Addressing the issue of content[2], Larsen-Freeman and Freeman (2008) argue that when language becomes a subject in school, the definitions and relationships between methodology and knowledge change. They call this phenomenon "subject-languages." These are

> . . . languages that are designated as subject matter within the school curriculum but are not the medium of instruction in those settings . . . As subject matter they have certain teaching practices and learning expectations associated with them. (p. 175)

Because language now moves fluidly within and between local and global contexts (via technology and other means), Larsen-Freeman and Freeman point out that when language "goes to school," the institution of school shapes the way language works even as the outer sociopolitical frames are also redefining its values and uses. Thus subject-language, which exists itself as a sort of "normative fiction" (Larsen-Freeman and Freeman 2008), is increasingly challenged as an assessable construct because it is global and local simultaneously. So, for example, in the case of lexis, whose usage is considered correct? Which word choice or vocabulary?

These complexities in teachers' understanding and use of subject-language, and the ways in which language teachers must combine content, medium, and pedagogy, are yet not captured in current assessments. Further, an uneven patchwork of teacher education programs and regulatory groups at national and local levels exacerbate these problems in defining "professional" knowledge as a basis for assessments. In most national contexts, training for elementary and secondary teachers, as Barduhn and Johnson (Chapter 6) write, occurs in two different institutional arenas (in many countries, teacher training colleges are responsible for the former whereas universities are in charge of the latter). These groups of teachers are prepared differently, and often have with different degrees of exposure to and training in the knowledge and practices they need to teach effectively. In discussing the varying ways that teachers are deemed qualified internationally, Barduhn and Johnson call for "fairer and more rigorous assessments." Further, they note that, in comparison to the standardized assessments of teaching as observable

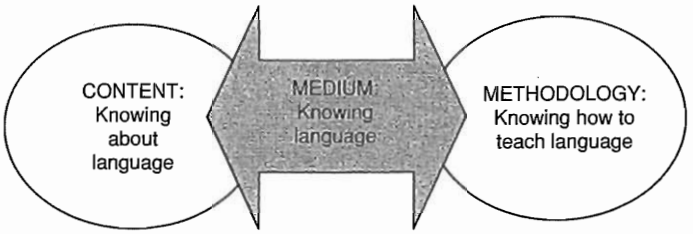


Figure 3 Emergent view – Language knowledge for / in teaching

behavior used conventionally, portfolios and other reflective documents may be "fairer" in documenting the contextual and idiosyncratic aspects that make teaching practice effective.

Further, what it means to know and to use language is being understood as increasingly complex. Through the lens of emergentist views, language is seen as a dynamic system, which changes and adapts in use (Ellis and Larsen-Freeman 2006). In contrast to conventional grammar-based views, when language is seen as an emerging system, there is no inherent progression or sequential movement toward a target proficiency. Instead, these thinkers argue that as users, learners assemble resources in the moment to act on a particular task and achieve a particular outcome. This view of the unstable and nonstatic nature of language has clear implications for assessment of language competence, and of language as subject matter. How teachers engage in the moment of interaction through the medium of language and use of their pedagogical understandings—how they play the language game in class—is connected to three inextricably linked domains we have discussed: knowing about language as content; using the language as *medium* in teaching; and knowing how to teach it, or *methodology*.

Figure 3 suggests a subtly different framework of language knowledge for / in teaching, one that combines knowledge of content and medium as these are enacted in and through processes of methodology. We call the third framework *emerging* because it represents how language as content emerges in the processes of classroom teaching and learning. Because those processes are locally shaped and nonsystematic, emergent knowledge-for-teaching will, like the construct of pedagogical content knowledge that preceded it, emphasize the teaching in context (Lampert 2003). Perhaps the clearest example of this emerging framework would be work on content-and-language-integrated-learning, or CLIL. This reform, which is prevalent in Europe, is similar to what is known as content-based instruction in North America (e.g., Brinton, Weshe, and Snow 2003). It proposes that language can be taught through other school subjects, or contents, such that students are learning both the content and the language simultaneously (Mehisto, Frigols, and Marsh 2008). In one sense, these reforms are seeking to expedite learning by integrated language and content in the teaching process; in another sense, they seem to hinge on the idea, which is key in this third framework, that language is not itself actually content, but rather a medium, or means, of delivering instruction, or providing learning opportunities in content. So a high school geometry lesson taught in English to Dutch-speaking students in the Netherlands integrates their learning of mathematics and language.

This emergent framework also offers a new and useful lens for conceptualizing assessment in second language teacher education. In this view, knowing a language is a medium that interacts with both the content of knowing about the language and with methodology, or knowing how to teach it. And methodology is a dynamic process of interacting with what students know and do. Since the relationships among these three domains is neither

sequential nor cumulative, they cannot be logically separated for the purposes of assessment, as is done currently, and for that matter in teacher education. Rather, assessment of language knowledge for / in teaching is likely to become an increasingly messy and emergent process, particularly as the stakes of such judgments are increasing.

> *How can we know the dancer from the dance?*
> —W. B. Yeats

All of this repositions the challenge of assessment in second language teacher education from one of testing what teachers know in and about language, to assessing the activity of what they are able to do in teaching language. But in activity, we cannot separate the content of language from the processes of how it is being taught and hopefully learned. In the often quoted last stanza of his poem, "Among School Children," W. B. Yeats writes about this challenge of teasing apart elements of an activity that are fundamentally inseparable:

> Labour is blossoming or dancing where
> The body is not bruised to pleasure soul . . .
> . . .
> O chestnut-tree, great rooted-blossomer,
> Are you the leaf, the blossom or the bole?
> O body swayed to music, O brightening glance,
> How can we know the dancer from the dance?

We have argued that the arc of assessment in second language teacher education has reached a point that it must attend to the complex intersections between the teacher and teaching, between the dancer and the dance. Teaching is not simply combining content with process, but classroom processes create content in language teaching. Developing new and more comprehensive theories that locate testing with the broader assessment practices of how information is gathering, interpreted, measured, and used, as well as new forms and formats of assessment that can account for this complexity is the major challenge for second language teacher education.

As teacher education in other subject areas grapples more and more with the language-related challenges in assessment, such as how to describe and analyze teaching in language and how to evaluate those descriptions (Moss 2008), second language teacher educators are uniquely well positioned to offer insights into the complexities of these interaction of language and teaching. This poses the central question: How do we use understanding of language to inform these challenges of documenting and assessing classroom practices across multiple forms of teacher education?

Some possible moves in response to this question will include: challenging forms of testing and assessment – both individually or institutionally – that rely on simplistic models of teacher knowledge; developing assessments that truly integrate multiple sources of evidence to gauge teacher preparation and effectiveness; and developing assessments that account for language as both medium and content. These issues, and others like them, will increasingly occupy our thinking as English as a global lingua franca changes our views of what language is and how it works. All of which brings us back to the person of the teacher and how she represents language as content in the act of teaching. It is the challenge of complex assessments to judge the activity of teaching through the person who does it, or in Yeats's words ". . . to know the dancer from the dance."

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Notes

[1] Some teacher quality schemes simply equate teaching and performance to student learning outcomes as measured on standardised tests. Pay-for-performance schemes are based on this simplistic formulation that teaching causes learning (see Freeman and Johnson 2004).

[2] Also referred to as teachers of languages-other-than-English (LOTE) in Australia.

[3] The ARELS (Association of Registered English Language Services) organization in Britain, and the ELICOS sector in Australia are two exceptions, in which institutions have come together to monitor quality among members and thus to be self-regulated.

CHAPTER 9

Teacher Preparation and Nonnative English-Speaking Educators

Lía D. Kamhi-Stein

Introduction

Nonnative English-speaking (NNES) educators constitute a large majority of English as a second or foreign language teachers around the world (Canagarajah 1999). However, it is only recently that they have become more visible and that the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) has begun to address issues that are of concern to them. Although there is wide agreement that the terms *native* and *nonnative speaker* are impossible to define (Kaplan 1999) and that they "obviously and pointlessly dichotomise the world neatly into 'us' and them" (Kaplan 1999: 5), the reality is that "teachers who are perceived as speaking a language other than English as their mother tongue – regardless of their actual proficiency with English – are typically labelled as 'nonnative English speakers'" (Pasternak and Bailey 2004: 156). This chapter focuses on NNES educators in relation to issues of language teacher preparation programs.

Scope and Definitions

It could be argued that work on NNES teachers-in-preparation has focused on two different broad themes related to the setting in which language teacher-education programs are offered. Specifically, the first theme deals with issues of teacher language proficiency in relation to language teacher-preparation programs. With some exceptions, this line of work has been the focus of attention in teacher-preparation programs for / in English as a foreign language (EFL) settings (e.g., Barnes 2002; Berry 1990; Chacon 2005; Cullen 1994, 2002; Lavender 2002; Murdoch 1994, etc.). Work on issues of language proficiency draws on the notion that "a teacher's confidence is most dependent on his or her own degree of language competence" (Murdoch 1994: 258); therefore, it deals with language as a skill that needs to be improved for a teacher to be a successful professional.

The second theme has mainly focused on issues of teachers-in-preparation in Inner Circle settings, where English is the dominant language (U.S., U.K., Canada, Australia, New Zealand); therefore, it may not be surprising that work in this area has dealt with how NNES teachers-in-preparation socialize into their language education programs in these countries, how they perceive themselves in relation to their English-speaking peers, and how they develop a sense of professional identity (e.g., Brutt-Griffler and Samimy 1999; Golombek and Jordan 2005; Morita 2004; Thomas 1999; Pavlenko 2003, etc). This line of work could, at least in a small part, be attributed to the growth in interest in issues related to NNES teachers-in-preparation prompted by the establishment of a TESOL association caucus focusing on NNES educators (Braine, Liu, and Kamhi-Stein 1998).

Underlying the work in Inner Circle settings are three notions: First, that nativeness in English cannot be equated with proficiency in English, and a teacher's language proficiency "is only one element of professionalism" (Pasternak and Bailey 2004: 161). Second, that professional preparation is another element of professionalism (Pasternak and Bailey 2004). Third, that language teacher preparation programs can play a central role in demystifying the notion of the native speaker (Brutt-Griffler and Samimy 1999; Golombek and Jordan 2005; Pavlenko 2003). The following sections provide an overview of the research on language teacher preparation and NNES educators and describe the various approaches that language teacher preparation programs have taken to address issues of NNES professionals.

Overview

RESEARCH IN EFL SETTINGS

As explained in the previous section, work on English language competence and language development has been mainly concerned with teacher-preparation programs for EFL settings. Research findings (e.g., Berry 1990; Lavender 2002; McDonald and Kasule 2005; Murdoch 1994) have shown that EFL teachers perceive language improvement to be central to their professional development. For example, Berry (1990) and Murdoch (1994) found that the EFL teachers they investigated (Polish teachers in secondary schools and Sri Lankan teachers-in-preparation in two English Teachers' Colleges respectively) viewed language improvement (rather than theory or methodology) as the number one priority in their professional preparation. Lavender (2002), drawing on Berry's research, also found that a group of Korean EFL teachers participating in a short in-service teacher development course in England, viewed language improvement as the most important feature of their program. McDonald and Kasule's (2005), focusing on a university program designed to prepare primary school teachers at the University of Botswana, found that the teachers-in-preparation agreed that their studies had contributed to their overall English language competence. While the participants attributed their improved competence to a variety of factors, McDonald and Kasule argue that "it was apparent that all the interviewees were aware of the interactive nature of university education and the important role English plays in this interaction, and that this was beneficial to their improved performance" (p. 191). In addition, in a study designed to identify the characteristics of EFL teachers, Borg (2006) found that Hungarian preservice EFL teachers and Slovenian undergraduate students of English argued that language teachers and content teachers differ: Whereas the former are nonnative speakers who have to teach in English, the latter teach in their first language. According to one participant, EFL teachers are concerned about avoiding mistakes since English is not their first language. This factor contributes to feelings of insecurity, a notion identified in a study by Seidlhofer (1999), focusing on Austrian teachers of EFL.

Research in Inner Circle Settings

In contrast to the work in EFL settings concerning language proficiency, work in Inner Circle settings has dealt with issues of language teacher preparation and the self-perceptions and socialization processes of NNES teachers-in-preparation, their identity development, and NNES teachers-in-preparation in relation to the practicum course. Taken together, research findings have shown that language teacher education programs in Inner Circle settings place great demands on participation (in the areas of reading, writing, and oral classroom participation). Research has shown that although NNES teachers-in-preparation may be aware of the fact that their experiences as second language (L2) learners strengthen the graduate programs in which they are enrolled, they may nonetheless experience feelings of anxiety (Lee and Lew 2001; Morita 2000), which, as shown by Morita, can be attributed to linguistic factors; sociocultural factors; and psychological factors. To deal with their feelings of anxiety, NNES teachers-in-preparation have been found to implement a variety of coping strategies, including resorting to their NES peers, revising their papers (Lee and Lew 2001), spending extra time to complete course requirements, and rehearsing and preparing for their oral presentations (Morita 2000).

However, central to the research on the socialization process of NNES teachers-in-preparation is the fact that generalizations should be avoided. For example, whereas some NNES teachers-in-preparation have reported going through a silent period (Kamhi-Stein 1999; Thomas 1999), others (e.g., 2004) identify and implement participation strategies. In this respect, it is important to highlight the excellent contribution of Morita's (2004) research, which showed that the socialization process of female Japanese graduate students enrolled in a Canadian language teacher education program varied significantly depending on the class in which they were enrolled. This study has important implications for language teacher preparation because it shows that the identity of NNES teachers-in-preparation, much like the identity of native English-speaking teachers-in-preparation, is not fixed and that identity construction is socially situated (see also Miller, Chapter 17). It also shows that it can't be assumed that just because teachers-in-preparation are native or nonnative speakers, or come from one cultural or linguistic group, they will all act in the same way. Moreover, as explained by Morita, this finding emphasizes the notion that classroom participation (or nonparticipation) is coconstructed; in this view, teacher educators play a central role in creating conditions in which NNES teachers-in-preparation participate, perceive themselves, and are perceived as valuable members of the classroom community (a finding identified in a study by Kamhi-Stein (2000a), focusing on the use of electronic bulletin board discussions in an L2 teaching methodology course).

Research has also shown that language teacher preparation programs can play a central role in demystifying the notion of the native speaker (Brutt-Griffler and Samimy 1999; Golombek and Jordan 2005; Pavlenko 2003) or in contributing to feelings of "otherness" (Johnson 2001). Specifically, the work by Brutt-Griffler and Samimy (1999), Golombek and Jordan (2005), and Pavlenko (2003) provides strong support for the notion that by creating environments in which teachers-in-preparation engage in discussions on native and nonnative speaker constructs and issues of identity, NNES teachers-in-preparation who, initially, may not perceive themselves as legitimate owners of the English language, question the native speaker fallacy, shift their self-perceptions, and begin to view themselves as multicompetent and as members of multilingual communities (notions that, as Pavlenko notes, are in line with Cook's 1999 concept of multicompetence).

Research on the practicum course has investigated the self-perceptions (Brinton 2004; Polio and Wilson-Duffy 1998) and the perceptions of others (host teachers, practicum supervisors, and TESOL faculty) (Derwing and Munro 2005, Llurda 2005, Nemtchinova 2005) in relation to NNES teachers-in-preparation. As a whole, the research shows that

NNES teachers-in-preparation enrolled in the teaching practicum are often affected by concerns anchored in their status as nonnative speakers, and at the same time, by concerns that are typical of *all* novice teachers. Drawing on these findings, Brinton (2004) argues that it is the responsibility of the teacher educator to create opportunities that are pedagogically meaningful and supportive for all teachers-in-preparation.

Current Approaches and Practices

This section highlights current approaches to the preparation of NNES teachers-in-preparation. It looks at the relationship between language proficiency and professional preparation, the practicum course, and approaches to addressing issues related to NNES educators in language teacher preparation programs.

Pasternak and Bailey's (2004) framework captures the relationship between language proficiency and professional preparation. Central to their framework are two notions. First, language proficiency and professional development need to be perceived as continua, "rather than an either-or proposition" (Pasternak and Bailey 2004: 163). Second, language proficiency needs to be perceived as one element of professionalism and professional preparation is the second critical element. Figure 1 presents the framework.

As can be seen in the figure, teachers in Quadrant 1 are both professionally prepared and proficient in the target language (TL). Teachers in Quadrant 4 are neither professionally prepared nor proficient in the TL. Teachers in Quadrant 2 are professionally prepared but are not proficient in the TL and teachers falling into Quadrant 3 are not professionally prepared but are proficient in the TL. Pasternak and Bailey argue that language teacher preparation programs should help teachers to improve their English language proficiency and their professionalism, regardless of whether they are native or nonnative speakers.

The notion that language teacher preparation programs need to deal with issues of pedagogy as well as issues of teacher language proficiency has received strong support in the literature (Barnes 2002; Berry 1990; Brady and Gulikers 2004; Chacon

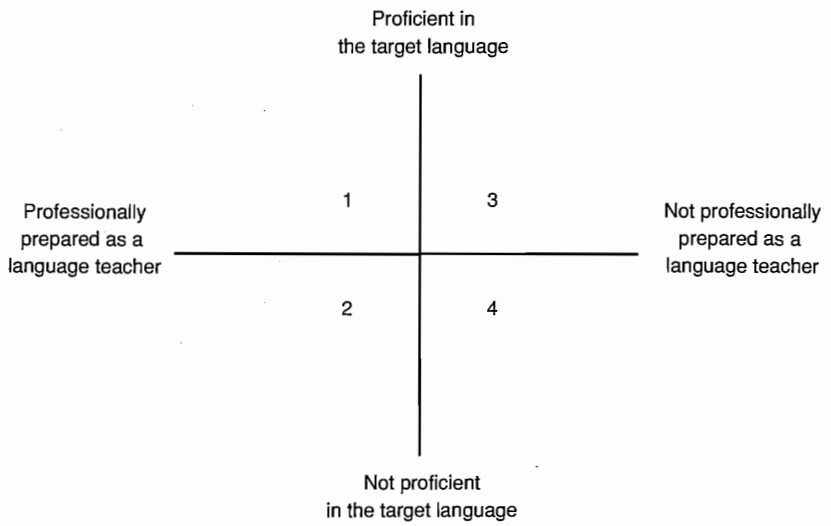


Figure 1 Continua of Target Language Proficiency and Professional Preparation

2005; Cullen 1994, 2002; Carrier 2003; Kamhi-Stein 1999, 2000b; Liu 1999; Lavender 2002; Murdoch 1994; Samimy, cited in Kim 2004; Snow, Kamhi-Stein, and Brinton 2006). As noted by Murdoch (1994) and Cullen (1994), language proficiency plays an important role in a teacher's instructional practices since it may contribute to enhancing or undermining the teacher's confidence; therefore, affecting the teacher's instructional practices.

Emphasis on issues of language proficiency has come from programs in EFL contexts, which have produced detailed descriptions of curricula designed to enhance teacher language proficiency. For example, Cullen (1994) describes a course offered in a teacher-training program in Bangladesh. The course is designed to link language improvement with other components of the program, and methodology in particular. In the course, teachers-in-preparation engage in language lessons as learners (input stage), then they analyze and evaluate the lessons as professionals (processing stage), and finally they develop their own lesson plans (output stage). More recently, Cullen (2002) has described another approach to language improvement: In this approach, emphasis is placed on helping teachers develop "a command of classroom language" (p. 221) by using lesson transcripts. In this way, teachers would improve their instructional strategies and their language skills, ultimately contributing to their confidence in the classroom. Lavender (2002) also supports the notion that language proficiency should play a central role in language teacher preparation. Specifically, she argues that short programs for EFL teachers should have language improvement as a central aspect of the entire program, should "provide coherence amongst the taught components by preparing teachers within the language component for their other components" (p. 247), and if the program is offered in English-speaking countries, should integrate the teachers' experiences in the country into the program. Barnes (2002), also looking at foreign language teachers, supports the notion of a language skills maintenance program that engages foreign language teachers-in-preparation in independent language learning tasks. Lee (2004), working in Hong Kong, suggests integrating language enhancement activities while, at the same time, capitalizing on the strengths that NNES teachers-in-preparation bring to the classroom. Snow, Kamhi-Stein, and Brinton (2006), in describing a teacher-development program offered in Uzbekistan, argue that central to EFL teacher development should be the notion of tolerance for teacher accentedness, an acceptance of local varieties of English, and a recognition of the importance of the notion of ownership of English among NNES teachers-in-preparation. They go on to describe a comprehensive teacher-development program, sponsored by the U.S. Department of State, that combined language skills development and the improvement of pedagogical practices.

In contrast to the detailed descriptions of how EFL teacher-preparation programs address issues of language proficiency and NNES teachers-in-preparation, language teacher preparation programs in Inner Circle countries have not given great attention to issues of language teacher proficiency. Still, the literature identifies four approaches to addressing language proficiency issues. The first one involves incorporating a language component across the curriculum and helping NNES teachers-in-preparation to develop sociocultural competence by comparing Inner Circle–based and local beliefs as a means to improve language skills and to make instruction relevant to the teachers' environments (Liu 1999). The second approach involves offering an individualized program of language study, in which teachers-in-preparation work on their self-perceived language needs (Kamhi-Stein 1999). The third approach involves offering an introductory first-term course designed to acculturate NNES teachers-in-preparation to the demands of Western-based programs, and at the same time, help NNES teachers-in-preparation develop their writing and communication skills (Carrier 2003). The fourth approach, more broad in perspective, involves offering a grammar course designed to help teachers-in-preparation develop both grammatical and

pedagogical knowledge. This is accomplished by integrating materials from real language classrooms (Borg 2003) and by contextualizing "grammar within a global perspective on English language use" (Burns 2003: 71–72).

The discussion of language proficiency has also been the focus of the practicum course (Brady and Gulikers 2004; Polio and Wilson-Duffy 1998). Practicum supervisors have argued that the practicum course needs to address issues of teacher language proficiency (Brady and Gulikers 2004; Polio and Wilson-Duffy 1998) and, at the same time, be relevant to the needs, interests, and expectations of NNES teachers-in-preparation who are planning to teach outside the United States and create opportunities for native and nonnative speaker collaboration (Brady and Gulikers 2004; Polio and Wilson-Duffy 1998).

Rather than emphasizing the role that teacher language proficiency plays in the classroom, work in some programs has emphasized sociopolitical and sociolinguistic issues, involving but not limited to the importance of demystifying the notion of the native speaker and creating conditions that develop a sense of ownership of the English language among NNES teachers-in-preparation (Brutt-Griffler and Samimy 1999; Golombek and Jordan 2005; Pavlenko 2003). This idea draws on the rationale that to be successful professionals, teachers need to develop a sense of ownership of the English language. To this end, Samimy (1999) supports the notion of offering a seminar that focuses on issues related to NNES educators, with the objective of helping students understand the relationship between language and power and of creating a professional community (see Brutt-Griffler and Samimy 1999, for a description of the course). In contrast, Kamhi-Stein (1999) suggests a cross-curricular approach with the threefold purpose of promoting reflection on issues related to NNES educators in relation to the curriculum of various teacher preparation courses; of ensuring that discussions on issues related to NNES educators are not isolated to an individual course or to one group of teachers-in-preparation (in this case nonnative English speakers) and of allowing NNES teachers-in-preparation to see themselves and the issues that are of concern to them as an integral part of the language teacher preparation curriculum.

Issues and Directions

As shown in this chapter, over the last few years, NNES teachers-in-preparation and their professional preparation have received growing attention. Given the trends and limitations described in this chapter, it is possible to identify the following issues as central to teacher preparation programs and NNES teachers-in-preparation.

First, the previous sections reveal that teacher-preparation programs in EFL settings have paid close attention to issues of teacher language proficiency (and pedagogy). In contrast, in language teacher preparation programs in Inner Circle settings, there is a growing trend toward integrating curriculum that challenges the notion of the native speaker (Burns 2003, 2005; Cook 1999), and, by extension, helps NNES teachers-in-preparation develop a sense of professional legitimacy and self-confidence. The same trend seems to be emerging in settings where English plays a central role in the educational system (see Vilches 2005 as an example).

It could be argued that language teacher preparation programs in Inner Circle and EFL settings have a lot to learn from one another. Specifically, NNES teachers-in-preparation in both settings would benefit from curriculum that emphasizes the importance of developing language proficiency, while, at the same time, enhances the teachers' self-perceptions by challenging the notion of the native speaker and by supporting the notion of the teachers' ownership of the English language. In this way, language teacher preparation programs would strive to help NNES teachers-in-preparation develop a positive professional identity which, in turn, would result in enhanced instructional practices.

Second, although much has been said about the importance of making language teacher education programs relevant to and sensitive to local sociocultural and institutional beliefs (i.e., Canagarajah 1999; Kumaravadivelu 2001, etc), communicative language teaching (CLT) continues to be the most popular approach to the teaching of English around the world (see Burns 2005, for a discussion of the role of CLT over the last 20 years) and is growing in popularity in countries like South Korea, Japan, and China. However, it remains to be seen how language teacher preparation programs in Inner Circle and EFL contexts prepare teachers to face the demands imposed on them by teaching methodologies that are not congruent with their local environments.

Third, current thinking in the field emphasizes the notion that English as an international language (EIL) is a variety of English that is not "owned" "by a specific group" (Bryan 1994, as cited in Burns 2005: 3). There is a need for descriptions of language teacher preparation curricula both in the Expanding and Inner Circles that address the issue of teacher identity, ownership of the English language, and accentedness in English. In this respect, the work by Jenkins (2005) is relevant. In a study of EIL teachers, she found that EIL teachers looked up to the native speaker as the ideal English speaker. She concluded that "it can't be taken for granted that teachers (let alone all speakers) from the expanding circle wish unequivocally to use their accented English to express their L1 identify or membership in an international (ELF) community" (p. 541). Therefore, it remains to be seen how language teacher preparation programs prepare NNES teachers to deal with the contradictions between the realities of the job market and the ideal values and beliefs advocated in teacher preparation programs.

Fourth, work on NNES teachers-in-preparation has assumed that NNES teachers-in-preparation in Inner Circle settings come from international backgrounds. This assumption does not recognize the growing numbers of teachers-in-preparation who are choosing ESL teaching careers because of their own ESL learning experiences as long-term immigrants (called Generation 1.5 in the United States, or second phase learners in Australia, for example). Although these teachers may be similar to those from an international background, in many ways they are also different; however, little, if anything, is known about these teachers-in-preparation and, in turn, little is known about the extent to which teacher-education programs are meeting their needs and expectations. This may generally be the case for NNES teachers-in-preparation in Britain, Australasia and North America (BANA, see Franson and Holliday, Chapter 4).

At the same time, as noted by Borg (2006: 26), there is a need to move beyond "monolithic" descriptions of NNES EFL practitioners. Specifically, it is to be expected that teachers working in different countries and continents will face different expectations and will be affected by beliefs and values that are unique to the setting in which they operate. Therefore, language teacher preparation programs should work to address how the local context contributes to affecting the teachers' instructional practices.

Finally, given that large numbers of NNES teachers-in-preparation are educated in BANA settings and then return to their countries of origin, there is a need to investigate how changes in status may affect the self-perceptions and identity of "transborder" teacher-in-preparation. This information would help BANA-based TESOL teacher education programs develop an understanding of how such programs need to be modified in order to meet the needs and wants of their students. Also in relation to transborder teachers, it can be argued that an area of work that has been neglected is how language teacher preparation programs in the Inner Circle are (or are not) preparing students to teach in EFL settings (a question that has been eloquently raised by Govardhan, Nayar, and Sheorey 1999).

To conclude, while there may be other important issues that need to be addressed when looking at the preparation of NNES teachers, the ideas presented here attempt to reflect emerging themes within teacher-preparation programs in EFL and Inner Circle settings. It

is to be expected that work in the above areas will contribute to the enhanced preparation of NNES teachers, thereby, positively affecting teachers' instructional practices and standing in the profession.

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CHAPTER 10

"Trainer Development": Professional Development for Language Teacher Educators

Tony Wright

INTRODUCTION

This chapter defines the scope of professional development for language teacher educators (LTEds) (or *trainer development* as I shall term it[1]), identifies what becoming a teacher educator entails, provides an overview of current practice in trainer development, and identifies issues in future trainer development activity. The chapter argues that trainer development is a vital aspect of language teacher education (LTE) because of teacher educators' central role in defining and disseminating ideas about pedagogy.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

Forty years ago, becoming a language teacher educator (LTEd) commonly came about in recognition of classroom teaching expertise. Good teachers thus progressed to become teacher educators, as models of good practice. In many public education systems, this typically resulted in transfer to the tertiary sector – to a training institution – and a concomitant change in status and role for the person involved from teacher to "lecturer" (or similar). Becoming a teacher educator did not at this juncture require any specific formal preparation for the role.

More recently, however, the idea has grown that teacher educators' work is sufficiently different from teachers' to require some form of professional development – formal and / or informal – to enable them to perform their roles effectively, and also to continue learning. I use the term *trainer development* to refer to the formal process of language teacher educators' professional development. The term also captures the developmental process of constantly "becoming" a language teacher educator, with or without the assistance of a trainer. Teacher educators can also, in less formal ways, undertake their own development (Russell and Korthagen 1995; see also Leung, Chapter 5).

Type of professional activity	"Teacher" role	"Student" role	Target roles for "Student"
LEVEL 3 Trainer development (Initial or continuing professional development for Language Teacher Educators)	(Trainer: TLTEd) Teaching language teacher education	(Teacher or Teacher Educator) Learning how to conduct language teacher education. Knowledge, skills, awareness, and other qualities as a teacher educator.	Special roles include: Teacher educator, mentor, teacher adviser (To work in Level 2)
LEVEL 2 Language Teacher Education (Initial or continuing professional development for Language Teachers)	(Language Teacher Teacher Educator: LTEd) Teaching language teaching	(Student-Teacher [Initial] or Experienced Teacher [continuing]) Learning how to do language teaching. Knowledge, skills, awareness, and other qualities as a teacher.	Language Teacher (To work in Level 1)
LEVEL 1 Language teaching	(Language Teacher) Teaching language	(Language Learner) Learning a language. Knowledge, skills, awareness, and other qualities as a language user.	Various

Table 1 Levels in professional activity in language teacher education

Trainer development is a further level, or layer, of the professional-development process in LTE in addition to the professional development for teachers.[2] Table 1 portrays three levels of activity in LTE. It maps the different roles and relationships in the different domains of language teaching, from trainer development (Level 3) through language teacher education (Level 2) to the classroom (Level 1), the ultimate target domain of the two preceding levels. In defining the scope of trainer development, we must focus on the work of the language teacher educator (LTEd). Loughran (2006: 2) contends that LTEds "teach teaching," and assist "students of teaching" – student teachers – in learning to teach. Thus in Level 2, the level of language teacher education, teacher educators (LTEds) teach student-teachers in initial teacher education (ITE), or experienced teachers in continuing professional development (CPD). This requires LTEds to have expertise in and knowledge of both the content and process of language teacher education, *and* of classroom teaching. In Level 3, trainer development, aspiring teacher educators learn to teach LTE in order to work at Level 2. The *trainer* in formal trainer development activities thus requires a further meta-knowledge of LTE in order to teach teacher educators in Level 3. A common contemporary example of Level 3 trainer development activity is mentor training (see Malderez, Chapter 26), in which language teachers receive specialized training as teacher educators in order to effectively tutor student-teachers during their school experience.

It is clear that trainer development entails a shift from teacher to teacher educator. New knowledge, skills, and awareness define the shift in content terms. In process terms,

becoming a teacher educator is also a process of transition from one way of working, even a transformation of perspective on the educational process.

Defining the nature of the transition, Lubelska and Robbins (1999) identify significant cognitive, emotional, and professional differences between teaching and teacher education. Teacher educators, they argue, need to both articulate and model their working principles. Teacher educators also need to be able to handle what they term the *intentional destabilization of teachers* (1999: 8) and the emotional upheavals that this can cause. A further issue regards time. The sort of transformation that is entailed by the shift may take far longer than a formal program can achieve in its own timeframe. This has implications for practice and process in formal trainer development, and for the potential role of informal professional development by LTEds.

Vilches (2003) also discusses the transition from teacher to teacher educator drawing on her experience in the Philippines. She describes a three-stage process of experiential learning of a trainer-development program she designed. Participants, first of all, experienced the training program they were ultimately to deliver, which they then deconstructed by exploring the content and training methods respectively in two further stages. Vilches's experience highlights two key issues in any formal program of trainer development concerning its explicit learning content and the training process itself. Resolution depends in part on whether a trainer-development program has broad goals in equipping people for a variety of LTE activities in initial and continuing professional development, or whether a more narrow and specialized LTEd role, such as a school-based mentor, is anticipated. The process issue is more complex – whether to model training processes explicitly in a trainer-development program as Vilches reports has been a central controversy throughout the growth of specialized trainer-development programs.

Overview

THE EMERGENCE OF TRAINER DEVELOPMENT

As we have noted, trainer development is a relatively new phenomenon in LTE, dating from the 1970s, in particular in the United Kingdom. The LTE literature dedicated solely to trainer development is thus relatively limited. Despite numerous trainer-development initiatives worldwide, few of these have been formally published for a wider audience. These accounts are characterized by a practical orientation and a relative lack of broad theorization on trainer-development practices, especially in formal programs. As such, they reflect the emergent, practice-focused character and roots of this activity. Two overlapping periods of activity in trainer development are discernible, however, from which several themes emerge. Current practice and debate about trainer development draws heavily on these initial endeavors.

EARLY DIRECTIONS: A HANDS-ON APPROACH

Trainer development appears to have two main roots: one in private TEFL in the United Kingdom and the other through British aid to English Language Teaching abroad. Both were grounded in the development and spread of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the period from roughly the mid-1970s to the mid-1990s. This was an era of rapid and often radical change in English language teaching (ELT) particularly. In both cases the emergence of a group of teacher trainers, conversant in the first place with the principles and practices of CLT, was of central importance. At first the group of teacher educators evolved from classroom practice, and often held a dual role of trainer and teacher, but later "training the trainers" started to become a planned aspect of the LTE process. This marked the beginning of trainer development.

1 Development of LTE in private sector TEFL

Davis and Worley (1979), discuss trainer development in connection with the Royal Society of Arts (RSA) training certification for EFL teachers. They report two initiatives: (a) apprenticeship of "trainee trainers" onto existing training courses, primarily to observe trainee teachers at work and be inducted into the practices of providing counseling and feedback; and (b) informal seminars in which LTEds exchange best practice and learn more about the processes of LTE. This informal practice soon developed into short (2–3 weeks typically) "training the trainers" courses. A further characteristic of this period was the ideal of "teacher-as-trainer," maintaining the link between classroom and training. The spread of the RSA training program outside the United Kingdom exported this approach through the activities of the British Council in particular, which in turn was very influential stakeholders in British ELT activity abroad.

2 British aid to English Language Teaching (ELT)

In the late 1970s and 1980s, British Aid to English Language Teaching in developing countries often focused on wholesale curriculum reforms.[3] These initiatives (later "projects") employed a broad cascade model of dissemination, often requiring the creation of a new group of trainers (or multipliers), typically teachers, to work with colleagues in the classroom, as well as retraining of LTEds at teacher training institutions. These activities and practices were highly influential in the ELT profession. Edge (1985) is a summary of the main activities of "training the trainers" in aid-driven work.[4] Later, Tomlinson (1988), for example, reports on his experience in Indonesia in the PKG project, and Hayes (2000) provides a critique of the cascade approach, drawing on experience in Sri Lanka.

Bamber (1987) describes trainer-development activity in a major ELT project in Egypt (CDELT). Teachers were trained to act as school-based teacher-counselors, and to run in-service training workshops for their colleagues in schools. The paper discusses the "hands-on" approach to trainer development. Bamber expresses this guiding principle when discussing the relationship between theory and practice on a trainer-development course.

> Theory . . . is necessary but by no means sufficient, and the practical component of the program should be a major rather than a nominal appendage. (1987: 127)

Not only did these early programs identify many of the key skills LTEds needed in order to conduct workshops for teachers, but they also modeled a particular view of the training process. Ramani (1987) describes typical in-service training practice in this period, which proceeded from practice (questions originating in the classroom) to theory. This view has directly and indirectly influenced practice in many contexts. Nevertheless, it is contested: The nature of trainer development and LTE methodology is still subject to sometimes fierce debate between practitioners.

An examination of the content for formal short training courses for trainers in this early period also reveals an emphasis on classroom observation and support for both novice and experienced teachers.[5] The skills, practices, and above all, attitudes required for successful classroom observation and supervisory practice were also the subject of numerous papers (e.g., Freeman 1982, King 1983). These blended theory of support with practical advice to teacher trainers and have now become part of the knowledge base for both LTE and trainer development practice. However, there was little explicit practical discussion of "training the observers." Later, both Sheal (1989) and Williams (1989) provide principled accounts of observer training programs. Again, the idea of building principles from an understanding of practice is prominent.

Current Approaches and Practices

As LTE came of age in the 1980s and 1990s, so trainer development began to attract more attention, and a definable community of trainer educators emerged in the United Kingdom from a blend of private sector and aid ELT activity traditions as influential personnel changed roles and sectors. Duff (1988) is a "state-of-the-art" collection from this period. A bootstrapped "curriculum" for trainer development also began to emerge, with three interconnected themes.

1 Published LTE and trainer development materials

Implicit trainer development

Beginning teacher educators have had access to a range of LTE materials that could act as the basis of their professional development. Published LTE material began to appear in the later 1980s; Doff's (1988) *Teach English* is probably the most well known. What is significant about this material was the view of LTEds' practices presented in accompanying trainer's guide material. The *Trainer's Handbook*, which accompanied the teachers' materials, set out an implicit trainer development curriculum.[6] Doff discusses some of the principles underlying his view of training and LTEds' roles and activities in the introduction. He mentions (1988: 8–9) principles such as the need for participants to experience new techniques explicitly in training and the relative unimportance of applied linguistic theory for teachers and their need for "common sense" explanations. This guidance for the trainer is the forerunner for subsequent sets of materials for trainer development, as it pinpointed specific trainer skills such as organizing sequences of training activity and providing "input." Ur (1996) sets out principles for teacher education based on "an enriched learning cycle" (after Kolb 1984) and exemplifies them consistently through the training materials, although there is no explicit trainer-development course in the package. The introduction of Kolb's ideas on learning by practitioners like Ur, and Schön's (1983) ideas on "reflection" by Wallace (1991) provided directions for LTE, both methodologically and philosophically. (See also Parrott 1993, and Tanner and Green 1998 for further examples of materials for LTEds underpinned by an implicit trainer development curriculum.) A constant theme of published LTE materials is the importance in training sessions of an activity- or a task-based methodology. This was emphasized further in the trainers' guides.

Trainer development as the focus

A key LTE trend in the 1990s was the migration of initial teacher education to schools, and the creation of mentoring schemes to support this move. A well-documented LTE example (Medgyes and Malderez 1996) took place in the Centre for English Teacher Training (CETT) at Eötvos Lorand University in Budapest. Experienced teachers were selected to take the major role in supervising student-teachers' school experience. A training program for the mentors was devised, subsequently the basis for Malderez and Bodóczky's (1999) "trainer training" manual for mentor training, to date the most comprehensive published trainer-development program, including an explicit guide for the trainer on training methodology (pp. 24–32). More recently, Randall (with Thornton 2001) defines clearly the trainer-development requirements for advisory and support personnel in initial and continuing LTE. Awareness-raising activities for use with groups of trainee observers are included.

2 An emerging pedagogy for trainer development

The strong practical orientation of earlier trainer-development initiatives has been noted. It has broad parallels with the hands-on, practice-to-theory principles which have developed in LTE. Wallace (1991) sets out a full curriculum for LTE, incorporating discussion

of broad approaches to teacher education, covering all aspects of initial teacher development, a curriculum that identifies key content areas and, in particular, methodologies that LTEds can draw upon. However, there is no equivalent training package for teacher educators. Similarly, Richards and Nunan (1990) features papers observing teachers, a focus on LTE methodologies (e.g., Ellis, Wright) and broader attempts to theorize language teacher education (Richards). However, there are no papers on trainer development, per se.

The intense activity in LTE did lead to further spread of trainer-development programs into Europe and beyond. McGrath (1997) is the first collection of papers on trainer development, and signifies the emergence of a new professional group – trainers of trainers. The contributions are grouped around three broad themes:

- trainer roles and competencies
- language and the language teacher educator
- design and evaluation of training programs for LTEds

It features papers on course design for trainer development (Wallace), process and methodology in trainer development (McGrath, Bolitho and Wright, Pozzo) and case studies (e.g., Gill [Slovakia], Kadepurkar [India], Dawson and Navratilova [Czech Republic]). Hayes (2004) carries these issues forward with case studies of teacher educator development. The issue of language and the language teacher educator (McGrath 1997: viii) is developed further in Trappes-Lomax and Ferguson (2002). Key issues identified in the McGrath collection include the problems of "cascade" training (Gilpin) (a line of argument that raises doubts about the effectiveness of the whole endeavor of trainer development) and training methodology. In the latter case, the difficulties of "participant-centered" training approaches and associated controversies such as the "hidden curriculum" of "progressive" methodology are raised. Maingay (1997: 122) in particular, argues for the need for trainers to be aware of their pedagogies, and to be prepared to change course if necessary. In addition to the explicit identification of the capacity to think on one's feet, Maingay also recommends more explicit discussion about training methodology on trainer training courses. Beaumont (2002) develops this theme provocatively and helpfully by advocating a "mixed diet" of methodologies on trainer-development programs, accompanied by an ongoing conversation about training methodology, the heart of any trainer-development program.

3 Toward a definition of content

McGrath's (1997) collection provided many pointers toward content in trainer development. Definitions of the content of trainer-development programs have drawn from sources as varied as management and counseling in addition to LTE, recognizing the complexity and breadth of the LTEd's task. Burns (1994) identifies knowledge, skills, and awareness (KSA) for teacher educators to be "taught" on a trainer development course. In broadly the same vein, Waters and Vilches (2003) have specified "training room skills" for both teacher education and trainer development. On the other hand, Thomas and Wright (1999), working within a framework they term *process competence*, maintain that a trainer needs KSA in three main areas that cover the specific activities of handling training sessions and the learning process that emerges from these activities – process management, group creation and organization, and implementation of change. There is some overlap with Burns's and Waters and Vilches's taxonomies, but process competence hints at a more transformational role for the teacher educator, or facilitator, and the need to focus on the psychology of the learning process for a teacher educator. The tension between the practical needs of trainers and the perception that a broader understanding of how adults develop and change has provided the impetus to other attempts to define trainer-development program content, or agenda.

Issues and Directions

Trainer development in LTE will continue to develop in the early part of the twenty-first century. Already it has become a fairly well-established element of LTE worldwide, typically as short "training-the-trainers" courses. Formal training of teacher educators now features in postgraduate courses (either as Masters or certificate awards in trainer development or LTE, or as a component of such programs). It is still an important element of aid-funded and other development activity. For example, a diploma course for teacher educators was set up as part of educational reform in Ethiopia in 2002; trainer development has also been a central aspect of British Council supported ELT projects in China from 2001 onward.

As trainer development continues to emerge as a separate professional activity, so it will continue to address several interwoven issues.

1 Defining the curriculum and content of trainer development

It is clear that defining the trainer-development curriculum in LTE is very much a work in progress. This volume is itself an exemplar of the background curriculum for LTEds' development. It joins Roberts (1998) and Malderez and Wedell (2007) as a broad definition of teacher educators' knowledge base and practice. These definitions of curriculum now underpin many of the formal trainer-development programs in existence. There is also a great deal of interest in more process-oriented definitions of trainer-development curriculum. An example of curriculum development for teacher educators in the Netherlands is Lunenberg (2002), which outlines key teacher educator goals for professional development in terms of competences in areas such as subject knowledge, pedagogy, communication, and personal development. These he sees as being acquired on three "learning tracks" – in the teacher educators' workplaces, on formal courses, and online.

The debate is amplified by the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (2005), which identifies the following main activities for teacher educators:

- explicitly modeling an educational role and activity
- initiating and guiding adult learning
- assisting in the establishment of professional identity – what the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE 2005) refer to as transition and professional / personal growth

(ATEE 2005: 5)

The ATEE's specifications for teacher educators listed above also include knowledge of pedagogy and psychology (or human learning and development) and the capacity to generate new knowledge about education and pedagogy [after Smith (2005)]. Smith (2005) further identifies the additional key requirements for teacher educators, based on small-scale research in teacher education:

- articulation of reflectivity and metacognition
- comprehensive, deep, and rich knowledge of capacities for teaching all types of learner
- a comprehensive understanding of the education system

(2005: 190)

This expanded curriculum for trainer development makes considerable psychological and emotional demands on the teacher educator, who is portrayed above all as requiring a high level of self-awareness and the capacity to make tacit pedagogic knowledge available (see Golombek, Chapter 15, and Borg, Chapter 16). Trainer-development programs for LTEds

can draw inspiration from these sources and expand their repertoire beyond the basic but necessary skills taxonomies, which have served practitioners well up until now.

2 Standards for teacher educators

Refining definitions of the capacities and standards expected of teacher educators is proceeding parallel to the exploration of appropriate content for trainer development programs and is playing a role in defining this content. Initiatives led by Koster and Dengerink (2001) in the Netherlands, for example, and Smith (2005) in Israel and Norway, have attempted to specify the capacities required for successful teacher education practice. At the same time, there has been work toward defining standards of good practice in teacher education. (The Association of Teacher Educators [ATE] online has produced an exhaustive definition of standards for teacher educators, for example.) Such developments have positive and negative aspects, and in LTE, contexts are so varied internationally that the adoption of universal standards may not always be beneficial. However, different systems can always benefit from examining others' practices and adapting them where appropriate to local conditions.

3 Developing a pedagogy of trainer development

Koster and Korthagen (2001) and Loughran (2006) among others have contributed to an emergent conceptualization of generic teacher education pedagogy, which trainer development in LTE can draw upon. Central issues include modeling and the trainer's "message" as the way they teach (Russell 1997), the role of participants' experience (past and present) in teacher education, and understanding the relational aspects of teacher and trainer education. This follows widespread international interest in the teacher education process, the role of reflection in professional learning, its links to classroom pedagogy and notions of transition and transformation implicit in professional learning. If LTE incorporates ideas from this discussion, it is likely to further reinforce the shift away from discussion of teacher education methodology and its technicist overtones to a broader development of process. In this context, (Wright and Bolitho 2007) is a contribution to the development of an understanding of process in trainer-development pedagogy. The role of apprenticeship is also likely to be revisited as teacher education increasingly becomes more school-based (see Legutke and Schocker-v. Ditfurth, Chapter 21). Learning to become a teacher educator is as multifaceted as the role itself, and a pedagogy of trainer development will reflect this reality.

4 Building a research tradition in LTE development

There is a limited but developing research tradition in LTE that explores trainer development. Key areas of interest are:

- the transition process from teacher to teacher educator (examining changes in mind-set; personal and professional growth and change)
- dealing with innovation in LTE (e.g., Choong 2001)
- teacher education processes (feedback and support encounters; LTE training sessions)
- personal / professional development, building on a tradition of self-study (Russell and Korthagen 1995). See Szesztay (2001) for an LTE example of self-study in trainer development.

5 Building the LTE community

Professional groups such as the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language Teacher Training (IATEFL SIG) and the Teachers of English Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) interest section for teacher educators set the pace for the strengthening

of the language teacher educator community, and thus its capacity to influence developments in LTE. The community may even be able to positively influence the resolution of status issues in LTE through the activities of professional groups, as IATEFL has already done through its conference and publication on trainer development.

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Notes

[1] Smith (2003) refers to "the professional development of teacher educators." In North America, this is commonly known as "training-of-trainers" (or TOT) (Freeman: personal communication).

[2] Woodward (1991: 5) refers to the various levels in LTE as "the stack."

[3] Many of the discussions and initiatives from this era are reported in the Dunford House Reports, based on an annual series of seminars sponsored by the Overseas Development Administration (ODA) and the British Council. See especially reports from the 1982 and 1983 seminars.

[4] The "Somali Oyster" he identifies is the inspiration for Figure 1 in this paper.

[5] The bulk of the Bamber's program followed this pattern.

[6] This was orginally prepared for the CDELT project (see Bamber 1987).

SECTION 3

PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

This section provides a variety of perspectives on key areas of pedagogical knowledge in second language teacher education (SLTE). They include discussion of the creation of components of an SLTE curriculum as well as some of the more specific areas of knowledge needed by language teachers that should be included in teacher education programs. Central components of any teacher-education program are knowledge about language, knowledge about language acquisition, and knowledge of professional discourse conventions; these areas are highlighted in this section.

The section begins with a discussion by Graves in Chapter 11 of what makes up the knowledge base of an educational program for language teachers. She offers a model for curriculum planning that takes its starting point from understanding the needs of teacher–learners and the kinds of contexts in which they will work. The questions of the *who*, *what*, and *how* of language teaching are critical elements of the framework as they form the foundations from which curriculum decisions can be made. She then looks at how conceptualizations of the knowledge base of teaching have changed so that the demarcation lines between content and pedagogy – in the case of language teaching, between language and teaching – have recently become blurred. She argues that an interconnected system of knowledge bases is now needed to create a comprehensive and effective teacher-development curriculum.

Bartels (Chapter 12) offers a broad definition of one of the most important areas of knowledge used by language teachers – knowledge about language (KAL). He offers valuable insights from the perspective of human cognition research into the cognitive challenges involved in processing and using knowledge in professional practice situations. He then considers how professionals reduce cognitive load by using knowledge that is

implicit, specific to activity, cognizant of factors affecting the immediate situation, and organized into dynamic networks. From this basis, he suggests ways in which second language teacher educators could assist teachers to develop "domain-specific, dynamically organized, implicit knowledge that is easily used for teaching." He concludes by appealing to teacher educators to focus more on contextually linked learning tasks rather than, as is more common, on abstract theoretical approaches.

Ellis in Chapter 13 turns to another of the central areas in second language teacher education preparation. He overviews the "relatively new discipline" of second language acquisition (SLA), pointing to some of the key areas of study that have emerged. Arguing that not all areas of study are applicable to language teaching, he considers different approaches that could be taken to introduce teachers to this field of research and to the major findings relevant to professional knowledge. In so doing he discusses the challenges in determining the content of SLA courses and then elaborates on three possible approaches teacher educators could take: discrete SLA courses, integration into other courses, and basing SLA in practitioner research. He concludes by referring to some of the criticisms recently directed at SLA and its relevance to teacher education programs, but arguing that, nevertheless, knowledge about learning and learners is inherent in second language programs.

In the final chapter in this section, Hedgcock raises the question of how teachers acquire the discourse conventions of second language teaching. Viewing it as an "apprenticeship" into a professional community of practice, he argues that novice teachers in particular are involved in a process of unfolding learning, where the gaining of multiple forms of knowledge leads to teaching expertise. He proposes a "socioliterate" model as a way of mediating the learning process in SLTE programs. In this model, subject knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge both involve knowledge of the discourses and genres of the "oral and written forms commonly transacted within communities of [language teaching] professionals." He offers a number of practical suggestions for equipping teachers in preparation with tools they can apply to the texts that are prevalent in course design, materials, instructional processes and learning tasks, and professional interactions.

CHAPTER 11

The Curriculum of Second Language Teacher Education

Kathleen Graves

INTRODUCTION

The second language teacher education (SLTE) curriculum is an interdependent, situated set of educational processes and tools whose aim is teacher learning. Studies of curriculum in SLTE have focused on analyses of the kinds of courses or activities that make up an educational program for teachers (e.g., Zhang 1990) or, more recently, on the knowledge base of teaching that underlies teacher education and the kinds of instructional practices that help teachers acquire it (e.g., Freeman and Johnson 1998; Richards 1998; Roberts 1998; see also Johnson, Chapter 2). This chapter will build on these analyses of the knowledge base of language teaching – what effective language teaching involves / what teachers know and are able to do to teach languages effectively – from the perspective of curriculum, that is, considerations for designing programs that enable teachers to acquire the knowledge base.

The chapter will first provide a framework for understanding curriculum planning. It will then explore how the different ways in which the knowledge base of language teaching has been conceptualized and have affected the SLTE curriculum. It will end with a brief discussion of issues that deserve further consideration.

THE SCOPE OF CURRICULUM PLANNING FOR SLTE

A FRAMEWORK FOR CURRICULUM PLANNING

Planning an educational program focuses on *who* will be taught, *what* will be taught, *how* it will be taught, and *how* what is learned will be evaluated (see Figure 1). In this chapter, *educational program* or *program* will be used to include the range of programs from those with multiple courses (e.g., a masters program) to short-term in-service programs.

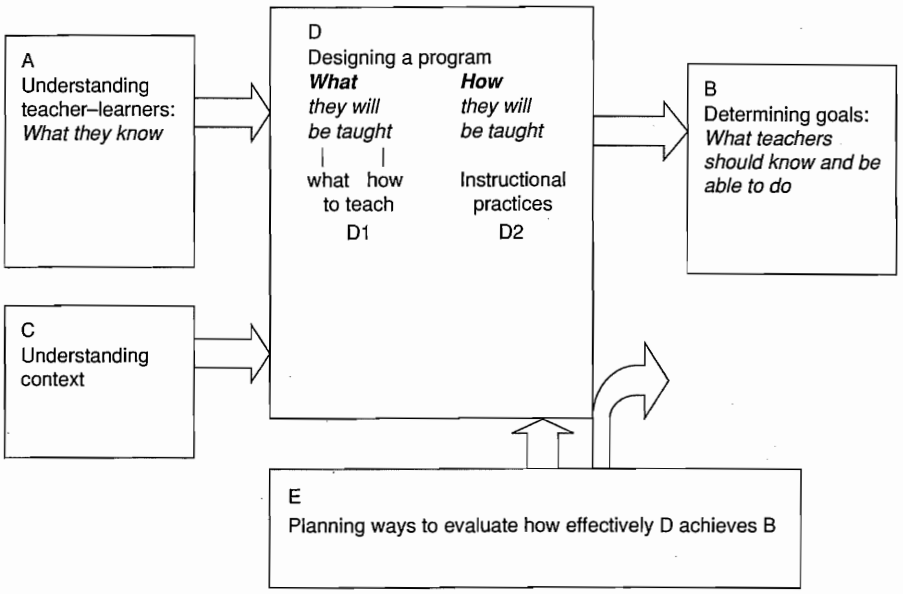


Figure 1 A framework for planning a curriculum

Sound curriculum planning is based on needs analysis. Broadly speaking, in needs analysis information is gathered from two perspectives: a starting perspective and an ending perspective. The starting perspective, A in Figure 1, gathers information about the learners who will experience the curriculum, who they are, what they know and know how to do, their expectations, and so on. For the SLTE curriculum, the learners may be both prospective teachers and practicing teachers. Both will be referred to as *teacher–learners*. The ending perspective, B in the figure, gathers information about what the teacher–learners should know and be able to do as a result of the educational experience. The information in B is expressed as goals for the program. The program, D in the diagram, is designed to bridge the gap between what the teacher–learners know when they enter the program and what they should know when they complete it. The SLTE program includes two components. The first, *what* teachers will be taught (D1), is directly linked to the goals of the program. The second, *how* teachers will be taught (D2), are the instructional practices through which teachers learn the content (Richards 1998). Curriculum planning also involves determining ways to evaluate the effectiveness of the program, that is, how well the teacher–learners were able to achieve the goals. This is represented by E in the figure. In order to design a program that is pragmatically feasible, context analysis, represented by C, gathers information about the available resources and existing constraints in the delivery of the experience. Curriculum contexts are multiple (e.g., educational institution, local community, state, and nation) and their importance cannot be underestimated in curriculum design (Graves 2008).

Taken together, all of the aspects of the SLTE curriculum – understanding teacher–learners, defining the goals for teacher learning, knowing what to teach them and how to teach them, evaluating the effectiveness of the teacher-education process – make up the knowledge base of SLTE. The knowledge base of SLTE is often confused with the knowledge base of language teaching. The former is what language teacher education involves and what language teacher educators need to know and be able to do in order to educate language teachers effectively (see Wright, Chapter 10); the latter is what language teaching involves and what language teachers need to know and be able to do in order to educate language learners effectively. The knowledge base of language teaching is *part of*

the knowledge base of SLTE because it is the basis for B, the goals of the curriculum. How the knowledge base of language teaching is defined affects all the other aspects of the SLTE curriculum. SLTE curriculum planning thus needs to start with defining the knowledge base of language teaching.

Overview of Changes in Conceptualizing the Knowledge Base of Language Teaching

Conceptions of the knowledge base of language teaching have historically separated the two components – language on the one hand, and teaching on the other – into familiar dichotomies: content / pedagogy, theory / practice, and knowledge / skills. Broadly speaking, until the 1970s, knowledge of language, both as proficiency in the target language and knowledge about its structure, phonology and so on, was considered sufficient for teaching it. Knowledge about teaching was gained through study of language teaching methods and / or training in discrete teaching skills. Little attention was paid to the contexts in which teacher–learners would teach. The assumption was that teachers would put together what they knew about content and what they knew about pedagogy into lessons in a practicum, if it was offered, or on the job (Freeman 1991).

The knowledge base of teaching was thus conceptualized as a content component and a methods / skills component. The role of teacher-education programs was to transmit the two-part knowledge base – knowledge about language, learning theories, the target culture and knowledge about methodology – and to train teachers to use skills. With the growth and diversification of language teaching as a profession, the content component of the knowledge base expanded beyond linguistic and cultural knowledge to include a variety of subject areas such as discourse analysis, second language acquisition, language testing, and so on (Richards 1998). Although this expanded the scope of the content component of teacher education, it did not substantially affect how teachers were taught or how teacher–learners were understood. The knowledge base remained highly compartmentalized. The content component was taught (and evaluated) separately from the practical component, and the practical component was taught separately from actual teaching practice (Freeman and Johnson 1998). There was little concern for understanding the teacher–learner or how teachers actually learn to teach.

Teachers' Prior Knowledge and How Teachers Learn

In the 1980s, research on teacher cognition and how teachers learn to teach changed ways of understanding teaching (see Borg, Chapter 16). It shifted attention from what teachers should know to who they are, what they already know, and what they actually do when they teach. It focused attention on how teacher–learners' prior knowledge and histories affect what and how they learn and how they make sense of experience. Lortie's "apprenticeship of observation" (1975) – the years teachers spend as learners in classrooms and the way they shape teachers' conceptions of teaching – became a touchstone for teacher educators. The research indicated that teacher–learners have strongly held conceptions of and tacit personal theories about teaching through which they filter input from educational courses (Johnson 1999; Roberts 1998).

The role of prior knowledge changed thinking about the knowledge base of teaching. It did not only include knowledge of a variety of subject matter content and skills in teaching; it also included a teacher's previous knowledge and conceptions. The implications for the SLTE curriculum were significant: Teachers were not empty vessels; the educational program was not a matter of filling them with knowledge of content and pedagogy. On the contrary, it was found that traditional transmission-based instructional practices have

little impact on what teachers learn (Crandall 2000). Teacher–learners must first recognize their existing knowledge and beliefs about teaching in order to transform them. The SLTE curriculum needed to take into account the teacher–learners' prior knowledge, and use it as the basis for further learning (de Abreu-e-Lima et al. 2008).

Research on teacher cognition focused on the ways teachers reason and make sense of practice (Johnson 1999). Teaching was not, as previously conceptualized, simply the exercise of skills or application of methods in a classroom. It was a complex cognitive process in which teachers negotiate and make sense of myriad factors before, during, and after teaching. Teachers engage in analysis and reflection that enables them to understand and change their teaching. Moreover, teachers have specialized knowledge about how to teach their subject matter, "pedagogical content knowledge" (Shulman 1987), that is, knowledge of what about language is "teachable" and how it can be represented to learners. In order to reflect on their teaching, teachers needed to have consistent and productive ways to talk about it – a discourse of teaching (Snow 2005). The "skills" part of the knowledge base was thus seen to include not only observable discrete teaching skills, but reasoning and reflective skills. An important role of the SLTE program was to initiate teacher–learners into such a discourse so that they could talk about it and to provide opportunities to develop reflective skills so that they could understand and improve practice. Further, the notion of pedagogical content knowledge began to blur the boundaries between "content" and "skills." Subject matter could not be divorced from how to teach it.

THE ROLE OF PRACTICE

Making subject matter relevant to teaching, although crucial, is not the same as learning from practice. In order to make sense of practice, teacher–learners need to engage in practice. Engaging in practice can be understood in two related ways. First, as classroom practice: opportunities to observe teaching, to prepare for teaching, to teach, to reflect on it, to analyze it, and thus to learn it / from it. The need for such practice as the basis for learning to teach seems self-evident, yet earlier views suggested that the knowledge base of teaching can be learned without actually teaching, that is, theory is learned in the context of SLTE and practice is gained outside the context. Engaging in practice can also be understood as participating in communities of practice (see Singh and Richards, Chapter 20). Teaching is an activity situated in complex cultural, social, and political contexts. These contexts are not just places where people teach (Freeman and Johnson 1998). They are communities of people, entrenched in social systems that operate according to tacit and explicit norms, hierarchies, and values. In order to participate in these communities, teachers need to understand why they are the way they are, how they are positioned in those contexts, and how to develop power to negotiate and change them. In addition to learning a discourse of teaching so that they can analyze and talk about it, teachers also need to learn multiple and often conflicting discourses of different communities in order to participate in them (Sharkey 2004).

LEARNING AS A DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS

Learning to teach is an ongoing, developmental process. There is no "terminal competence" for teachers. Because most teachers also change roles, institutions, or responsibilities at various points in their teaching lives, the curriculum needs to "provide a flexible foundation upon which our graduates can build as they progress through the different stages of their careers" (Crandall 1999: 1). There is also a discernible developmental trajectory. Novice teachers and experienced teachers need different things. Novice teachers, for example, are

Richards (1998) Domains of content	Roberts (1998) Types of language teacher knowledge
Theories of teaching (that guide SLTE program, teacher's personal theories)	**Content knowledge** (of target language systems, text types)
Teaching skills (essential general repertoire, LT specific repertoire)	**Pedagogical content knowledge** (how to teach / adapt content to learners)
Communication skills (general communication skills, target language proficiency)	**General pedagogic knowledge** (classroom management, repertoire of ELT activities, assessment)
Subject matter knowledge (specialized concepts, theories, and disciplinary knowledge)	**Curricular knowledge** (of the official curriculum and resources)
Pedagogical reasoning and decision-making skills (both when preparing and during teaching)	**Contextual knowledge** (of learners, school, and community)
Contextual knowledge (how society, community, and institution affect and shape teaching)	**Process knowledge** (interpersonal and team skills, observation and inquiry skills, language analysis skills)

Table 1 Two views of the knowledge base of language teaching

more concerned about controlling the classroom and so may be less able to focus on student learning. Experienced teachers have management routines that help keep learners on task (Roberts 1998: 68). The knowledge base of teaching is thus not a fixed set of knowledge, skills, and understanding, but an evolving one for each teacher. For the SLTE curriculum this means that content needs to be tailored to learners' needs; it also means that one aim of the curriculum is to help teacher–learners develop tools to continue their learning once the program ends.

Defining the Knowledge Base of Teaching: A System of Knowledge Bases

The last two decades of the twentieth century thus saw an increasing emphasis on understanding teacher–learners as active agents in the process of acquiring teaching competence and a more complex understanding of what it means to know how to teach.

Drawing on the work of researchers in general education, Roberts (1998) proposes that the knowledge base of teaching is actually a system of knowledge bases. He outlines six types of language teacher knowledge that make up that system. Similarly, Richards (1998) suggests that there are six domains of content that make up the knowledge base of language teaching that is the foundation of SLTE. These two views are summarized in Table 1.

These knowledge bases expand far beyond subject matter competence – competence in and knowledge of the target language – and general pedagogic skills. They include

pedagogical content knowledge, contextual knowledge – of the learners, the school, and community – and of how the context affects and shapes teaching. They include pedagogical reasoning and decision-making skills, skills in relating to and communicating with learners and colleagues, and skills in inquiry. Other models (see Velez-Rendon 2002) have also suggested that intercultural competence is a part of the system of knowledge bases (see Franson and Holliday, Chapter 4). For curricular purposes, Richards suggests developing goals for each of the domains of content. These goals become the basis of the SLTE program.

Current Approaches and Practices

LANGUAGE TEACHING SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE

The two views represented in Table 1 include knowledge of the target language and specific skills in teaching it. Clearly, how language is conceptualized plays an important role in what and how language teachers are taught (see Bartels, Chapter 12). What does one teach when one teaches language, and how does one educate teachers to teach it? From a curriculum perspective, three issues are salient. First, although there is consensus that language teachers need to know how the target language works, different conceptualizations of language mean that there is no clear consensus around what teachers need to know about language in order to teach it (Freeman and Johnson 2004). In particular, the role of English as the global language of access has raised questions about its role in creating a new global divide between "haves and have nots." This has implications for making teachers aware of "whose" English is taught and for what purposes (Graddol 2006). Second, there is also consensus that proficiency (however it is defined) in the target language is part of the knowledge base of teaching a language. This has created a distinction between two types of teacher–learners – those whose first language is the target language and those who, like their learners, learned the target language. The SLTE curriculum needs to build on the respective strengths of each type of teacher–learner while helping them to fill their gaps (Braine 1999; Snow 2005; see also Kamhi-Stein, Chapter 9). Third, a common rationale for inclusion of content such as sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, second language acquisition, or literature in the SLTE curriculum is its relevance to language teaching. The content of the SLTE curriculum varies widely, depending on who the teacher educators are, who the teacher–learners are, where they teach or will be teaching, who they will teach and so on. The issue is not *what* is relevant – almost anything can be made relevant to language – but *who* makes it relevant, how, and why. In other words, teachers themselves need to conceptualize and experience the relevance in their practice.

INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES IN THE SLTE CURRICULUM

As a system, the knowledge bases of language teaching are interdependent and contingent. Current instructional practices in SLTE – how teachers are taught – reflect this interdependency. A coherent curriculum is not simply a group of courses or activities that aggregate in the teacher–learner. How teacher–learners are taught must be congruent with how they learn. In order to help teachers develop the system of knowledge bases necessary for effective teaching, these practices:

- help teacher–learners understand, examine, and challenge their previously unexamined conceptions and beliefs about teaching
- provide them with concepts, frameworks, and theories to understand, talk about, and organize their thinking about language teaching and learning

- support their development of a repertoire of both general and language teaching-specific teaching skills
- help them develop intercultural awareness and communication skills
- contextualize their learning by providing opportunities to observe teaching, to practice teaching, and to develop skills in preparing, teaching, and evaluating lessons and curricula for real contexts
- scaffold their development of skills to inquire into and critically reflect on experience
- help them develop skills in becoming not only knowledge consumers and evaluators, but also knowledge-generators.

Examples of such practices are described in Crandall (2000), Johnson (2000), Richards (1998), and Tedick (2005).

COLLABORATIONS AND PARTNERSHIPS

The SLTE curriculum today is enacted in multiple contexts. In order to provide teachers with opportunities to observe and practice teaching and to learn from those experiences, partnerships with schools (i.e., teaching contexts) are essential. To be effective, these sustained opportunities for practice require ongoing planning and collaboration. Collaborations involve reciprocal learning among all parties including teacher–learners, teachers, and teacher educators (e.g., Cormany et al. 2005; Hawkins et al. 2008; Sharkey and Cade 2008). Such partnerships are important for the future of language teacher education for three reasons: They apprentice teacher–learners into the discourses and norms of schooling, they provide a "reality check" for teacher educators on the relevance of what they teach in the SLTE context, and they provide fresh perspectives for practicing teachers. Collaborative practice and research that include the perspectives of the classroom teacher, the teacher–learner and the teacher educator are vital to improving both teacher education and teaching.

EVALUATION AND CURRICULUM

Evaluation helps us to know whether our instructional practices have been effective in helping teacher–learners (begin to) acquire the knowledge base of language teaching. Evaluation in curricular terms has two focuses: participant learning and program effectiveness. Assessment of participant learning (see Freeman et al., Chapter 8) is based on the goals of the program – whether and how well the program participants are achieving and have achieved the learning targets. Program evaluation looks at how effective the program is or was in helping participants learn. Some key considerations for curriculum designers are how to integrate the parts and the whole: assessment of individual skills and courses and assessment of the participant's overall ability to teach. For example, what is the relationship between a teacher's linguistic knowledge as assessed on a linguistics test and her ability to teach language? A related consideration is the congruence between *what* is being assessed and *how* the participants will be assessed (Snow 2005). A final consideration is how to balance external criteria such as state licensing standards with internal criteria. (See Barduhn and Johnson, Chapter 6, for an analysis of the range of certification and licensing schemes in SLTE.)

ISSUES AND DIRECTIONS

This overview of the SLTE curriculum suggests three issues that require further exploration and research. The first is whether the teacher education curriculum is educating teachers to replicate practice or to challenge and change it. Over two decades ago Stern (1983: 350)

framed this as teaching for a status quo or teaching for change. Recent research suggests that it is imperative to educate teachers not as "servants of the system" (Shohamy 2005) or as "helpless subjects" (Lin 2004), but as professionals who are "responsible and involved leaders" (Shohamy 2005) so that they can have an impact on practices (such as testing) that de-skill teachers and are unhelpful to learners. The teacher education curriculum can equip teachers with these kinds of knowledge and skills.

Second, teacher educators themselves must guard against becoming "servants of the system," particularly in the area of evaluation. Teacher education has not been immune to the standards movement that currently dominates education. Creation of teacher standards is a double-edged sword. On the one hand, such standards help organize the goals of the SLTE curriculum and provide a basis for evaluation. On the other hand, such standards can constrain the curriculum. Standards, as products of bureaucracies, are neither locally created (by individual institutions) nor easily changed, thus forcing teacher educators to adhere to – or adapt to – ways of describing teaching that may not fit their teacher–learners. (See Katz and Snow, Chapter 7, for an overview and analysis of standards in teacher education.)

Finally, the knowledge base of SLTE is also a system of knowledge bases. Teacher educators also operate from unexamined conceptions of teaching that may make it difficult for them to teach in ways congruent with the goals of the curriculum. Lin (2004) describes a case in which teachers were being educated to critique the contexts in which they taught and yet were not initially consulted in the teacher education course about *how* they would like to be taught. Teacher educators must "practice what they preach" and hold themselves accountable to the same criteria to which they hold teacher–learners, for example adapting content to learners and inquiring critically and reflectively into their own practice.

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CHAPTER 12

Knowledge About Language

Nat Bartels

Introduction

This chapter seeks to question and clarify the role of knowledge about language (KAL) in second language teacher education (SLTE). It has long been assumed that SLTE programs should provide teachers with information about language and language learning, and traditionally this has been accomplished through courses on applied linguistics and Second Language Acquisition (SLA). However, research on actual use of KAL has consistently found that L2 teachers either do not or have great difficulty using KAL gained in SLTE programs for their teaching (e.g., Andrews 1997, 1999, 2003; Morris 1999, 2002; Pennington and Richards 1997). This chapter will explain why teachers find it so difficult to use academic KAL for teaching and will discuss what SLTE programs can do to provide their students with KAL, which can more easily be used for teaching.

Scope and Definitions

The term *KAL*, as used here, is a very broad category covering any kind of knowledge about language including not only grammar and orthography, but also knowledge of language modes (speaking, listening, writing, reading), how language is used (e.g., pragmatics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistic variation, etc.), and language learning (including ways of L2 language teaching based on conceptions of language such as communicative language teaching, task-based teaching, process writing, etc.). KAL, however, does not refer to the internalized knowledge used to actually produce and comprehend language.

Current Approaches

In contemporary beliefs (or folk theories) about L2 teachers' use of KAL, teachers are thought to consider all the explicit information they know relevant to a situation, use

general rules or knowledge to calculate the validity of a range of possible options for a specific situation, and chose the option with the best evidence supporting it (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford 1997; Widdowson 1990). In contrast, empirical theories of cognition suggest that cognition is maximized by *reducing* the amount of information we process explicitly (e.g., Anderson 1993; Ericcson and Lehman 1996). In order to *explicitly* figure something out (e.g., the ways in which a student utterance deviates from the target dialect of the language the student is learning), we need to do that in working memory (Kirschner 2002). However, humans are severely limited in the amount of information that can be processed in working memory – approximately 7 ± 2 items (Miller 1956) – which is referred to as the *cognitive bottleneck* (Bruer 1993). Thus, a possible reason that teachers were unable to use academic KAL for teaching is that this required higher levels of *explicit* information processing, or *cognitive load* (Sweller 1988), than was available.

Issues

If academic KAL is not very useful for language teachers, what kind of KAL could SLTE programs provide that teachers could use for teaching? Research indicates that in order to reduce cognitive load while increasing performance, people rely on knowledge that (a) is implicit, (b) is specific to the activity, (c) addresses a wide range of factors that effect the situation, and (d) is organized into a dynamic network.

Implicit knowledge

One way humans circumvent the restrictions of the cognitive bottleneck is to use implicit knowledge (things you know but cannot explain exactly to others, such as recognizing a face), rather than explicit knowledge (knowledge that you can explain to others), for cognition. Implicit knowledge may not be as accurate and easy to examine as explicit knowledge, but requires little processing in scarce working memory (Eraut 2000; Tomlinson 1999). For example, one function of implicit knowledge is to guide our attention. Because of the cognitive bottleneck, we maximize our cognition by *reducing* the amount of information we process explicitly. An important part of expertise is knowing what information to attend to and what to ignore (Haider and Frensch 1996). Experts are not those who consider more factors (which would require a high cognitive load) but rather those who notice which factors they do not have to think about, thus reducing the amount of information they explicitly process (e.g., Camerer and Johnson 1991). Thus, analyzing L2 students' knowledge of English articles using explicit academic knowledge and theories may be *impractical* and *inefficient* because it requires far more working memory than is available for the task, given the constraints on time that teachers normally face.

Specific, local knowledge

Another consequence of the cognitive bottleneck is that knowledge specific to the task and context is far more useful than general, abstract knowledge. Research has consistently shown that those who perform an activity at an expert level are different from less expert practitioners mainly because of the amount of task-specific (often referred to as domain-specific) knowledge they possess. This allows experts to simply *recognize* a problem and possible solutions rather than having to *explicitly define* the problem and explicitly *calculate*

the value of various solutions (for review see Ericcson and Lehman 1996). This explains why changing teachers' abstract conceptions does not change their practice (e.g., Chaves de Castro 2005; Pennington and Richards 1997). Although these teachers have gained new knowledge of how to engage in the activity of *talking about teaching*, their knowledge on the activity of *language teaching* has not changed. This suggests that the common tension between theory and practice is perhaps better understood as a conflict between two types of practice: the practice of academics (theory) and the practice of language teachers (practice). Each practice fulfills a practical purpose in our society, but the conflict comes when people are trained in one practice (academic practice) and then asked to perform a different practice (language teaching).

COMPLEX KNOWLEDGE

Research also indicates that teachers need knowledge that integrates a wider number of relevant factors than academic knowledge. For example, studies have found that teachers' knowledge is more sophisticated than academic knowledge because it takes a wider range of domain-specific factors into account (see Johnson, Chapter 2). For example, language teachers' conceptions of communicative language teaching (CLT) include many practice-specific factors not included in academic conceptions of CLT, such as the difficulty of integrating communicative activities, how it affected the students' motivation, and how CLT fit with other instructional objectives (e.g., Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, and Son 2004, 2005). If L2 teachers are to successfully use knowledge of the perfect aspect for giving students feedback, they need to possess knowledge of more relevant factors than universal grammar, acquisition orders, and other linguistic related factors. In addition, they must also understand how social, emotional, technical, and local factors in their particular classrooms aid or hinder students use of such feedback.

DYNAMICALLY LINKED KNOWLEDGE

In order to be easily used, KAL needs to be organized around the activities typical of L2 instruction. Studies have consistently found that, compared to nonexperts, experts' knowledge is tightly organized around the tasks they engage in (e.g., Chi, Feltovich, and Glaser 1981; Leinhardt and Smith 1985). This is cognitively efficient; when knowledge is organized, then information (such as a student response or a textbook activity) is automatically recognized as belonging to a particular category (i.e., as a type of student response or type of textbook activity), which triggers schemata explaining the response and suggesting possible courses of action. Such activation of schemata would not require working memory and, thus, avoids the cognitive bottleneck.

Given the importance of knowledge organization, it would be easy to argue that L2 teachers need to acquire the kind of well-developed, static models of language and language learning typical of academic knowledge. Teachers could then use such models, in a linear fashion, to figure out what to do in the classroom: If recasts are better than grammar explanations, then teachers should do the former and not the latter. However, given the complexity of teaching, such explicit reasoning would require far too much working memory capacity to be practical. Instead, research indicates that practitioners need implicit, practice-specific knowledge where multiple links between specific knowledge creates a flexible network that provides teachers with the "cognitive flexibility" (Spiro, Feltovich, Jacobson, and Coulson 1991) to quickly combine elements to form ad hoc conceptions of a particular problem or situation (Boshuizen 2003; Ericsson and Lehman 1996). Such knowledge is dynamic, rather than static (as are academic models), because different bits

of knowledge are continually being combined to form on-the-spot conceptions of what is going on in class and what the teacher could do next (Tudor 2003).

Future Directions

Based on the evidence presented here, in the future, SLTE programs should focus on helping L2 teachers develop the domain-specific, dynamically organized, implicit knowledge that is easily used for teaching. This can be done by providing educational opportunities in which teachers participate in activities central to teaching and the focus is on local details and issues germane to teaching, which allow teachers to link and organize their knowledge, and which help teachers to learn to engage in deliberate practice.

PARTICIPATING IN ACTIVITIES CENTRAL TO TEACHING

Implicit knowledge is acquired by actively participating in activities relevant and central to the practice being learned. The processes of participating in activities appears to force learners to pay attention to relevant cues, correlations, causes, and constraints, and that this attention aids the acquisition of implicit knowledge about that practice (e.g., Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993), a process Schön (1983) calls *reflection-in-action*. Engaging in a discussion about recasts as feedback for L2 learners does result in implicit knowledge, but implicit knowledge about *engaging in such academic discussions*. To gain implicit knowledge about using recasts in *actual teaching* situations, teachers need to participate in activities that require them to decide when and how to use recasts for instruction with the constraints similar to teaching contexts (i.e., lack of time, materials, feedback, cooperation from students) and to receive feedback on the accuracy of their decisions.

FOCUS ON LOCAL DETAILS AND ISSUES

SLTE activities need to incorporate details as similar as possible to language teaching because research has shown that both surface and underlying similarity between previous activities and new activity make knowledge transfer easier (e.g., Brooks, Norman, and Allen 1991; Novick 1988). For example, summer math programs for elementary teachers, who spent the majority of time working on what new ideas about math means in terms of actual classroom practice, were very successful in enabling teachers to use knowledge gained from the workshops in their practice (e.g., Carpenter, Fennema, Peterson, Chiang, and Loef 1989; Schifter and Fosnot 1993). This supports those who have called for task-based SLTE (e.g., van Lier 1992).

> I propose that we identify language-related themes from the teachers' own sphere of activity . . . it is inevitable that straightforward linguistic phenomena of phonology, syntax, discourse, etc, will need to be explored at some point. This exploration will necessitate a certain amount of linguistic study in the traditional sense, but it is very important that such study is now motivated by a real-life question that requires an answer . . . We do not teach linguistics "because it is there," but because it helps us to solve language problems in real-life tasks. (van Lier 1992: 96)

However, SLTE programs wishing to adopt a task-based approach should be careful not to assume that SLTE activities are similar to L2 teaching activities just because there is a superficial resemblance. Studies of medical programs have shown that problem-based tasks

are often little different from traditional tasks in terms of what cognitive work the students actually engage in (e.g., Prince, van de Wiel, Scherpbier, van der Vleuten, and Boshuizen 2000).

LINKING AND ORGANIZING LOCAL KNOWLEDGE

In order to acquire a dynamically organized network of KAL for teaching, teachers need to engage in activities in which they have multiple opportunities to link specific, situated KAL in different ways (e.g., Eilam and Poyas 2006; Gentner, Loewenstein, and Thompson 2003; Mason 2004). In such activities teachers should abstract more general concepts from concrete teaching-related examples, cases, or experiences (e.g., Guskey 1986; Kumaravadivelu 1999); research shows that people are good at abstracting more general ideas about a situation or course of action from examples in practice (e.g., Ross and Kennedy 1990), a process Tsui (2003) calls "theorising practice." It is true that teachers do need generalizable KAL, which they can use in a variety of situations. What the research suggests, however, is that such KAL is gained by having teachers compare knowledge (e.g., about Content Based Instruction, or CBI) situated in specific teaching situations so they can recognize similarities between these and new teaching situations, rather than providing them with general knowledge (i.e., about CBI), and hope they can figure out what this means in specific situations.

DELIBERATE PRACTICE

To acquire a sophisticated network of dynamically organized, practice-specific KAL, teachers must do more than participate in teaching activities. They must also engage in what is known as "deliberate practice": deliberately designing and participating in activities that help them learn more about a particular aspect of the activity (e.g., Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Römer 1993; Tsui 2003; see also Tsui, Chapter 19). Deliberate practice allows teachers to use their explicit cognitive capacities efficiently for learning.

> For experts, the mental resources freed up by the use of routines will be "reinvested" in the pursuit of new goals and problem-solving at a higher level, which they did not have the capacity to deal with earlier. Nonexperts, however, will simply have a diminished number of problems to solve as they develop routines to handle them (Tsui 2003: 19).

Deliberate practice has been shown to be important for the development and maintenance of expertise in a wide variety of fields (e.g., Hatala, Brooks, and Norman 2003; Jørgensen 2002; Sonnentag 1998, 2000).

Deliberate practice for KAL can involve working on skill while carrying out classroom activities, techniques, or routines (i.e., linking ideas with ways of doing this in different contexts), using student cues (i.e., making links between student behavior and their knowledge, learning, and motivation), and combining objectives and activities into coherent teaching agendas and curriculum scripts (Leinhardt 1988). One example of this is a series of activities suggested by Schocker-v. Ditfurth and Legutke (2002, 2005; see also Legutke and Schocker-v. Ditfurth, Chapter 21) where SLTE students explore issues relating to language learning (or language) when observing school-based teaching, compare this with their own language-learning experience and academic KAL, and then deepen their implicit, practice-specific knowledge by further exploring one aspect of this issue through continued observation, talks with the teacher, and reflection with their fellow SLTE students.

Deliberate practice, however, does not just happen whenever you engage in an activity. For example, regular teaching practice is not an ideal situation for deliberate practice and the acquisition of practice-specific KAL because (a) teaching requires such a high cognitive load that little is left for learning, (b) it rarely offers consistent exposure to the desired experience (students rarely exhibit the language problems you want to work on right at that moment), (c) little accurate feedback is available (e.g., on whether students understood a grammatical explanation or whether you guess as to the source of the problems a student has with the perfect aspect), and (d) the constraints of context and practice may not allow the teacher to design instruction so that she can best learn from it (Bartels 2006; Johnson 1994). Cases and hypermedia products would seem to be very promising for deliberate practice in KAL, but currently the few examples of these for L2 teachers focus on knowledge of language teaching in general and not KAL (e.g., Johnson and Johnson 1998; Richards 1998).

Conclusion

For L2 teachers to acquire KAL which they can use for teaching, SLTE courses need to stop focusing on academic practices, such as reading studies and discussing theories. Instead, SLTE courses need to provide learning experiences in which (a) L2 teachers use (or develop) KAL and local knowledge to engage in teaching-like tasks, (b) language teachers link and abstract from the knowledge acquired by participating in such activities, and (c) teachers learn to design and carry out deliberate practice activities that help them acquire the KAL that they feel they need. Such a change of focus will be difficult for academics working in SLTE because of the *curse of knowledge*, the tendency of humans to assume that the knowledge they have is most relevant for problems regardless of the actual usefulness of this knowledge (e.g., Camerer, Loewenstein, and Weber 1989; Nathan and Koedinger 2000). This is especially a problem in SLTE because so few SLTE teachers have professional training (Bartels 2004; see Wright, Chapter 10). For instance, only four of the 29 TESOL PhD programs surveyed by Christopher (2005) offered any course work in SLTE and only one offered more than one course.

Finally, it is vital that SLTE programs adopt an empirical approach to their field. This means, first of all, that theories, assumptions, and practices should be subject to rigorous empirical research rather than being assumed to be correct. Furthermore, questions of KAL center not only on questions about language and language learning, but also on questions of the nature of knowledge, knowledge acquisition, and knowledge use. Therefore, SLTE needs to engage with and learn from a much wider variety of research fields (e.g., cognitive psychology), which also engage in and investigate similar questions.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Carla Chamberlin Quinlisk, Llorenç Comajoan, the three anonymous reviewers, and the volume editors for their insightful comments on previous drafts of this chapter.

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CHAPTER 13

SLA and Teacher Education

Rod Ellis

INTRODUCTION

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a relatively new discipline, dating back only some 40-odd years. It seeks to describe and explain how learners acquire a second language (L2). In this sense, *second* refers to any language other than the learner's first language (i.e., it includes foreign as well as third or fourth languages).

Initially SLA was closely connected with language pedagogy as many of the early researchers involved were language teachers or teacher educators. Increasingly, however, SLA has become an autonomous field of study, drawing on a number of other disciplines – linguistics, psychology, sociology, as well as education. In its current form it constitutes a rich and far-reaching discipline, addressing a wide range of issues, not all of which are of relevance to teacher education. In recent years, a number of distinct branches of SLA have developed, one of which – instructed SLA – concerns the relationship between instruction and L2 acquisition. Arguably, it is this area of study that is of most immediate relevance to teacher education.

Language teacher education – the core topic of this book – embraces both pre- and in-service education in courses of varying lengths – ranging from a year or longer to a few hours. Thus, although most teacher educators would acknowledge that language teachers need an understanding of how learners learn an L2, there can be no single recipe for incorporating SLA into a teacher education course. In the following sections I will offer a number of different approaches for utilizing the findings of SLA in teacher education programs.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

WHAT DO TEACHERS NEED TO KNOW ABOUT SLA?

The main areas of inquiry in SLA are now well established. Widely used textbooks in language teacher education, such as Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), Ellis (1985, 1994,

1997, 2008), Towell and Hawkins (1994), and Gass and Selinker (2001), all cover the topics listed and described in Table 1, although they label them somewhat differently (e.g., where Ellis has a chapter on "variability" Gass and Selinker's corresponding chapter is called "interlanguage in context"). Judging from these standard textbooks, then, these are SLA topics that teachers need to know about. It can be argued, however, that not all of them are of equal relevance to language teachers. In particular, linguistic accounts of L2 learning, which draw on highly technical theories of linguistic competence and which view input as simply triggering innate knowledge would seem to have little to offer teachers, who must necessarily be primarily concerned with how they can best shape the learning environment to maximize learning.

Another approach to identifying the content of an SLA course for language teachers might be to identify the key findings of SLA. Long (1990a) proposed a number of key facts in an article entitled "The least a second language acquisition theory needs to explain." The problem here is that many of the "facts" he identified are controversial. Although researchers may be able to agree on broad generalizations (e.g., "age differences systematically affect how fast learners learn"), it is less easy to reach agreement on more specific statements (such as "there is a critical period for the acquisition of an L2, after which nativelike competence is not possible"). Even apparently well-established facts come to be challenged. For example, Lantolf (2005) has challenged the existence of universal acquisitional orders and sequences – a finding that has stood since the inception of SLA as a field of study.

Nevertheless, it is possible to identify a number of general characteristics of L2 acquisition that could serve as the basis for the content of a course for teachers. Towell and Hawkins (1994) offer the following list of "observable phenomena" that most SLA researchers would readily accept:

- L1 transfer
- Staged development
- Systematicity in growth across learners
- Variability in learner language
- Nativelike competence is rarely achieved

These constitute the broad "descriptive facts" of L2 acquisition and, as such, they are arguably what all teachers should be aware of.

A third approach to deciding on the content of an SLA course for teachers is to find out what topics teachers themselves find most useful. Brindley (1990) invited students on a postgraduate diploma in adult TESOL to identify the SLA topics they found most relevant to their concerns. Interestingly, he found that "order and sequence of acquisition" (a topic generally considered of central importance by researchers) at the bottom of the list. An obvious problem of this approach, however, is that teachers can only judge the relevance of SLA topics once they have developed an understanding of them.

A course for language teachers will need to go beyond descriptive facts to offer teachers a theoretical account of L2 acquisition. This is where the problem of determining content becomes even more acute. SLA is replete with theories, many of them oppositional. Although SLA researchers are more or less unanimous in dismissing behaviorist accounts of L2 learning (i.e., learning a language is not a matter of overlearning habits through intensive pattern practice drilling), they do not agree on the roles played by input and interaction in learning and, more seriously, they do not agree on what accounts as acquisition. Thus, where cognitive theories view L2 learning as like any other kind of learning, driven by internal processes that respond to input, linguistic theories see L2 learning as distinct from other types of learning, driven largely by innate linguistic knowledge. And whereas many SLA

Topic	Brief description
Learner errors	All L2 learners make errors, some of which are traceable to the learner's first language (L1) and some of which are universal (i.e., made by all learners irrespective of their L1).
Order and sequence of acquisition and "interlanguage"	L2 learners have been found to learn the grammatical structures of an L2 in a relatively fixed order. The process of acquiring a grammatical structure is a gradual one, often involving a number of stages of development representing relatively well-defined sequences of acquisition. The term *interlanguage* is used to refer to the L2 systems the learner constructs during the course of learning.
Variability	Learner language is inherently variable (e.g., learners sometimes make an error and sometimes use the correct, target language form). Much of this variability is systematic, reflecting the influence of linguistic, social, and psycholinguistic factors on learner production.
Input and interaction	Learners are exposed to input and interaction that differs from that experienced by native speakers of a language. SLA researchers have identified a number of characteristics of input and interaction that they believe facilitate L2 acquisition (e.g., the opportunity to negotiate meaning when there is a communication breakdown).
Language transfer	The learner's first language (L1) plays an important role in the acquisition of an L2. This role involves both negative and positive transfer. However, transfer of L1 features into the L2 is constrained by a number of factors (e.g., the learner's perception of the distance between the L1 and the L2).
Cognitive aspects of L2 learning	Cognitive theories view L2 acquisition as like any other kind of learning rather than as a special kind of learning. SLA has drawn extensively on cognitive psychology in distinguishing different types of L2 knowledge (e.g., implicit and explicit knowledge), different types of learning (e.g., incidental and intentional learning), and the cognitive processes involved in learning (e.g., "noticing"). Cognitive theories view L2 acquisition as a gradual and largely implicit process of skill development that requires massive exposure to the target language.
Linguistic aspects of L2 learning	Linguistic theories view L2 acquisition as a distinct type of learning. They examine the role that linguistic universals play in acquisition. According to the theory of Universal Grammar the learner is equipped with an innate set of linguistic principles that enable learners to acquire the rules of the L2 grammar even though the input they are exposed to is impoverished.
Individual differences	Although much of SLA is concerned with identifying the universal aspects of L2 acquisition, it is also recognized that learners will vary greatly in how quickly they acquire an L2 and in their ultimate level of success. Factors shown to result in these differences are age, learning style, motivation, and personality.
Learning strategies	Learners employ a variety of cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies to assist them in learning an L2. Autonomous learners are those who can use strategies independently and effectively to enhance their learning.
Instructed SLA	SLA researchers have examined whether instruction affects the natural route of L2 acquisition and also which type of instruction is most effective in promoting acquisition. Instruction is viewed as an "intervention" in "interlanguage development."

Table 1 Key areas of study in SLA

researchers view learning as something that happens inside the learner's head, sociocultural theorists see it as something that initially takes place externally in social interaction. What is the teacher educator to make of these controversies?

There are two possibilities. One is to introduce teachers to a range of different theories and allow them to judge for themselves which ones they find convincing. The other is to identify the theories that most directly address the concerns of teachers and address only these. The former approach is perhaps feasible in the context of a masters-level program, but the latter is surely advisable in shorter, preservice courses. But it requires a basis for deciding what theories should be covered. Given that teaching is all about creating an environment in which language learning can flourish, the theories that would seem most relevant are those that address how instruction can affect acquisition – that is, theories that explain the role of input and interaction in L2 acquisition and how direct language instruction (such as grammar teaching) influences interlangauge development. A further possible content area is the role of learning strategies, although, as Dornyei (2005) has pointed out this constitutes a particularly messy area of inquiry given the "lack of an unambiguous theoretical definition of the learning strategy construct" (p. 163).

Current Approaches and Practices

There are a number of different models for incorporating SLA into a teacher-education program:

1. A discrete course in SLA with pedagogical applications
2. Integrating SLA into other courses (e.g., a general methods or grammar course)
3. Utilizing SLA as a basis for practitioner research

Each has a number of advantages and disadvantages.

Many masters-level courses adopt the first model – what Weiss (1977) called a knowledge-driven model. Masters programs offer a discrete course in SLA, addressing the kinds of topics listed in Table 1. Two rather different educational ideologies underlie this approach. One is the traditional "transmission" view of teacher education, according to which teachers need to master the "technical" knowledge (Eraut 1994) relevant to their own subject. This view is reflected in Long's (1990b) proposal that language teachers need access to a common body of knowledge about how languages are learned in much the same way as doctors need to be familiar with the common body of knowledge about medicine. According to Long, only in this way can the prejudices and suppositions that he believes characterize most pedagogical decision-making be overcome. The second ideology assumes an "interpretative" view of teacher education. From such a perspective, the general goal of an SLA course is to help teachers develop their own theory of L2 learning and how instruction can assist it. This is the view I adopted in my 1985 book on SLA. While acknowledging that all teachers have a theory of language learning, I argued that this may not be explicit and that the purpose of a course in SLA is to help them make their theory explicit through the examination of learner-language and the processes that are responsible for it. By making their theory explicit, teachers are in a better position to examine the principles that guide their instructional practices. Thus, whereas in the transmission approach SLA is seen as a body of knowledge that tells teachers how they should teach, in the interpretative approach, SLA functions as a resource for promoting reflective practice in teachers.

SLA courses in masters programs are typically based on a textbook. Ortega (2001) identified the criteria that she considered should guide the selection of an SLA textbook. The two main criteria were "coverage" and "pedagogical value." The former concerns the completeness, accuracy, and currency of content and whether the treatment is balanced whereas the latter addresses the relevance of the content to teachers and readability. On the basis of these criteria, Ortega excluded a number of SLA texts on the grounds that they were "encyclopaedic" or "very advanced" (e.g., Ellis 1994) and a number of others on the grounds that they represented "personal" and "idiosyncractic" views of the field (e.g., Sharwood Smith 1994) or very specific approaches to SLA (White 1989). Ortega then went on to review what she called the "classics" (Gass and Selinker 2001; Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991), SLA texts designed for language teachers (Lightbown and Spada 1999) and texts that adopted a theories approach to SLA (Mitchell and Myles 2004). Ortega concluded by noting that all these texts were written by single, influential scholars and that the graduate textbooks of the future would more likely consist of a collection of chapters written by specialists in the different areas of SLA. Her prediction has proved correct. The *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* edited by Doughty and Long (2003) has become the standard current SLA reference work. It is doubtful, however, whether such texts can supplant the more reader-friendly single-authored texts written specifically for teachers.

SLA courses also employ a variety of tasks designed to help students apply what they have learned about L2 acquisition to language teaching. An excellent source of material for such tasks can be found in the samples of learner language that learners can be asked to analyze. Table 2 provides an example of such a task, which can help to make concrete what otherwise might appear a very abstract account of "acquisitional sequences" by inviting teachers to see for themselves how gradual and stagelike the acquisition of a specific grammatical structure can be. Brindley (1990) based his course for postgraduate diploma students on a series of tasks that invited participants to address specific classroom situations in the light of what they learned about SLA.

The second model takes issues in language pedagogy as the starting point, using SLA as a body of knowledge for commenting on them. A good example of this can be found in Pica's (1994) article – "Questions from the Language Classroom: Research Perspectives." Pica, an SLA researcher, began by listing a number of questions that teachers often asked her and then used her understanding of SLA to offer answers. Examples of the kinds of questions she addressed are:

- Which is more helpful to L2 learning: comprehension or production?
- How effective is group work as an aid to L2 learning?
- To what extent does error correction assist the L2 learner?

Pica's approach, then, was that of "responding to teachers" classroom concerns' rather than researchers "generating questions of their own" (p. 50). Such an approach could easily be incorporated into a general methodology course. That is, key methodological issues could first be identified and described and then examined from an SLA perspective. This "classroom-grounded perspective" on SLA would seem to be especially suited to shorter teacher-education programs where there is insufficient time for a full-blooded course on SLA.

The third model for an SLA course involves positioning teachers as researchers. This can be achieved in two ways – by training teachers to become SLA researchers (more especially classroom researchers) or by assisting them to engage in practitioner research. The first approach is the one I have followed in my own teaching on masters programs. Ellis and Barkhuizen's (2005) *Analysing Learner Language* reflects this approach.

The data below illustrate the spontaneous questions produced by a 10-year-old beginner ESL learner in a classroom context. The questions are divided into three periods, each covering approximately three months.

1. To what extent does this learner show evidence of acquiring L2 interrogatives?
2. To what extent does this classroom learner follow the same pattern of development for negatives as that reported for naturalistic learners? (You can answer this question by comparing the developmental sequence you have discovered with those reported by Cancino et al. 1978.)

Period

Utterance

Context

1. *My book?*
   House?

   Next week?
   What's wrong?

   T had asked another pupil to bring his book.
   Asking another pupil if her picture was of a house.
   Asking when the spelling test would take place.
   T had told him he was numbering his graph incorrectly.

2. *In the book?*
   What you mean?

   Drawing the picture?
   What you doing?
   What's she writing?
   Clock drawing?
   Tomorrow is coming to school?

   Checking if he had to write in his book.
   In response to another pupil who had said something he did not understand.
   Checking if he had to draw a picture.
   To another pupil.
   Pointing at a picture.
   Checking if he needed to draw a clock.
   Asking if he had to come to school the next day.

3. *Where is the concert?*
   What's this?
   What you say?

   Writing cookie, yeah?

   Who is writing there?
   Where is the train station?

   The pupils were going to a concert in the hall.
   Checking a word on the chalkboard.
   He had not heard what another pupil had said to him.
   Seeking confirmation he had to write the word *cooking*.
   Pointing at some writing on a desk.
   Referring to a map.

Table 2 Example of a data-based SLA task

It attempts to "bring together a substantive account of SLA as a field of inquiry through an examination of the methods of data collection and analysis that have informed research in this field" (p. 2). In other words, it invites participants to engage in "doing SLA" by giving them hands-on experience of how its findings have come about. Each chapter in the book provides the historical and theoretical background related to the different methods of analysis, provides an example of the method, summarizes a study that exemplifies the method, and finally provides students with data to carry out their own analysis.

The case for "practitioner research" in language teacher education has been forcefully made by Allwright (2003; see also, Burns, Chapter 29). Allwright views practitioner research as a form of "exploratory practice" directed at "trying to understand the quality of life in a given situation" (p. 120). It involves practitioners (learners as well as teachers) working to understand their "own agendas" using their normal pedagogic practices as investigative tools. Its goals are to enhance their own teaching and learning and their own (and others') professional development. Allwright argues that it should be directed at "puzzles" rather than "problems" and should be sustainable (that is, it should not be so effortful as to result in "burn-out"). Allwright argues that practitioner research can serve as a basis for inservice work with teachers, for masters' level work, and even for doctoral theses. Examples of practitioner research can be found in "Language Teaching Research," where a special section in each issue is devoted to it. The question arises, however, as to the role of SLA in practitioner research. At first sight, it would seem to have relatively little to contribute as the emphasis is on "local understanding." However, Allwright acknowledges that the starting point may be "putting some 'global' principles into practice" (p. 138) and, indeed, many of the published examples of practitioner research demonstrate this. SLA can serve as an important source of "global principles," as illustrated in Slimani's (2005) report of her practitioner research study of how the design of tasks influences the opportunities for negotiating meaning – an issue that has attracted the attention of a number of SLA researchers (Pica et al. 1993). Slimani's study is rooted in SLA, and she also makes use of the techniques of analysis employed by SLA researchers. Practitioner research can only benefit from the insights provided by SLA but, in accordance with its central principles, should not be driven by them.

Issues and Directions

I began by suggesting that most teacher-education programs recognize the importance of including material from SLA on the grounds that all language teachers need to develop a clear understanding of how an L2 is learned. This claim is perhaps less true today than a decade or so ago. Doubts have crept in about the value of SLA for teachers. SLA has been criticized for being too narrowly focused on the acquisition of grammar (although this is perhaps much less justified today as SLA researchers are increasingly attending to other aspects of language such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and pragmatics). More seriously, SLA has come to be viewed as affording little in the way of clear, undisputed findings. Borg (1998), for example, pointed to the "inconclusive nature of L2 acquisition studies of the best way to teach grammar" (p. 10) as a justification for his own preference for investigating "teachers' personal pedagogical systems." Indeed, there has been a notable shift in emphasis in language teacher education away from the focus on the learner so evident in the 1970s and 1980s to the current focus on situated teacher cognitions and teacher-learning (Johnson 2006). Nevertheless, it would seem to be self-evident that teaching (and teachers) can never to be effectively examined without close reference to learning (and learners). How teachers cognize must ultimately be considered in terms of the effects their cognitions have on learning. SLA, in some form or another, constitutes a body of technical knowledge that should find a place in any teacher education program, with the proviso, of course, that

like any other body of technical knowledge, it can only feed indirectly into the practical knowledge that informs actual acts of teaching.

However, if the case for including SLA in a teacher education is beyond dispute, it remains unclear how this can be best achieved. This suggests an obvious direction for future research – to investigate the various options for incorporating SLA into teacher education with a view to discovering how each option works out in practice and which option works best in which context and with which participants.

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CHAPTER 14

Acquiring Knowledge of Discourse Conventions in Teacher Education

John S. Hedgcock

Introduction

In recent years, the aims and means of L2 teacher education have been questioned, and it is perhaps fair to say that the profession has undergone – and is still undergoing – a paradigm shift of sorts. Traditional, transmission-oriented approaches persist in some pockets of the world (Poynor 2005), although many teacher educators appear to have converged in their emphasis on reflective practice as a means of promoting the autonomous skills of novice teachers (Richards and Farrell 2005; Richards and Lockhart 1994; Schön 1987; Waters 2005; see also Burton, Chapter 30). Contemporary teacher preparation likewise emphasizes the cultivation of diverse kinds of teaching expertise (Berliner 1995; Borg 2005; Tsui 2003; see also Tsui, Chapter 19), as well as the social construction of knowledge for teaching (Hawkins 2004; Franson and Holliday this volume; Williams 1996). This transformation has unquestionably yielded positive results, and although the aims of reflective, socioculturally grounded practice have taken teacher preparation in a productive direction, the methods by which teacher education might achieve these aims remain somewhat underdefined (Freeman 1996b; Tarone and Allwright 2005; Tsui 2003).

Scope and Definitions

This chapter examines the challenge of how teacher education might systematically apprentice newcomers to language teaching (LT) in a discourse-based framework. A useful means of engaging in such apprenticeship is to view LT as a diverse *community of practice* (Lave and Wenger 1991), defined by Wenger (1998) as "a kind of community created over time by the sustained pursuit of a shared enterprise." In a community of practice, learning unfolds collectively, resulting in "practices that reflect both the pursuit of our enterprises and the attendant social relations" (p. 45). To undertake this collective learning, I propose a sociolit-erate approach to teacher preparation, in which novice teachers are guided toward utilizing

and reproducing the field's discourse(s), including formalized means of knowledge construction and written communication (Hedgcock 2002; cf. Johns 1997). To illustrate how a socioliterate model might help teacher education bring newcomers into the LT discourse, this chapter first surveys socioliterate principles and then explores LT practices that support the appropriation of the profession's discourse conventions. The specific issues and directions examined include assigning value to the cultivation of candidates' genre knowledge and exploring the practical means by which teacher education can use written discourse as a tool for apprenticeship.

Overview

A socioliterate perspective views multiple knowledge sources as mutually supportive and interdependent in apprenticeship processes leading to teaching expertise. One such source of knowledge is subject matter knowledge, which consists of "the major facts and concepts in [the] discipline and their relationships" (Tsui 2003: 51). Subject knowledge also relies on "explanatory frameworks" and "canons of evidence [that] guide inquiry in the field" (Grossman, Wilson, and Shulman 1989: 29). In LT, subject matter knowledge would entail models of language instruction, theories of language development, and mastery of language structure, among other things. Closely linked with subject matter knowledge is pedagogical content knowledge – how teachers effectively and creatively represent the subject area to bring about the development of communicative competence among their learners (Tsui 2003; Wilson, Shulman, and Richert 1987). From a socioliterate perspective, expert teachers, novice teachers, and language learners engage in socially mediated interaction, which makes it possible to nurture and integrate subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge (see Graves, Chapter 11). Mediated interaction enables experts and novices to collaborate in the (re)construction of knowledge, practices, codes, and patterns of conduct. In doing so, participants adopt, shape, and reshape oral and written discursive forms commonly transacted within communities of LT professionals.

Current Approaches and Practices

Newcomers to LT often experience difficulties in their encounters with written sources on theory, research, and instructional practice. Novice teachers (see Farrell, Chapter 18) must somehow cultivate a new kind of literacy, which traditional teacher education sometimes assumes to emerge implicitly as candidates take courses, read the field's literature, complete projects, and accumulate practical experience. Reflectively oriented teacher-education schemes, on the other hand, may focus chiefly on developing practical skills, emphasising pedagogical knowledge and awareness more strongly than subject-matter knowledge. Teacher preparation informed by socioliterate principles embraces dimensions of both traditions by valuing content knowledge as well as reflexive praxis as complementary tools for developing teaching knowledge and operational skills. A socioliterate approach to teacher education further engages participants in examining, understanding, adopting, and even transforming LT discourses and textual practices.

In their apprenticeship to the LT community of practice, preservice teachers gradually claim membership in an LT Discourse, a "form of life" consisting of recognizable "thoughts, words, objects, events, actions, and interactions" that novices and experts alike (re)produce, sustain, and reshape over time (Gee 2005: 7). This apprenticeship leads to appropriation of the field's "little d" discourse, or "language-in-use" – coupled with "other stuff," ways of thinking, acting, and believing – which are tools enabling individuals to "enact activities and

identities" (Gee 2005: 7). More specifically, in apprenticing themselves to LT Discourses and crafting their identities as Discourse members, preservice teachers must somehow cultivate entirely new social language repertoires and literacies (Gee 2004; Hyland 2004).

Issues and Directions

To nurture emergent literacies and enhance novices' functional awareness, socioliterate teacher preparation can equip candidates with tools for grappling with the texts that pervade the LT community. Written texts offer a rich yet often underused array of socially constructed artifacts that reflect the beliefs, values, and strategies of the field's expert practitioners. Course designs, instructional processes, and learning tasks in teacher education can consequently acquaint candidates with the symbolic artifacts that epitomize the profession and the discursive operations at play in learning and teaching environments. The following discussion suggests practical means by which teacher educators might meaningfully engage newcomers in becoming aware of the layers of meaning in written discourse, making critical use of textual resources, and building genre knowledge all with the goal of assisting novice teachers to gain legitimate access to the LT profession and its discursive practices.

READING WITH CRITICAL AWARENESS: USING TEXTS AND GENRES TO ACQUIRE SHARED KNOWLEDGE

Novice language educators may not need or wish to become researchers or scholars, yet it has become increasingly valuable for them to become well-informed, critical users of the principles, empirical results, and collective knowledge embodied in the field's literature on language, learning processes, and instructional paradigms (Crookes 1998; Snow 2005). A vital skill for LT professionals entails interpreting the texts produced and consumed by legitimate members of the Discourse in order to develop content knowledge and pedagogical expertise – and to stimulate dynamic interaction between the two knowledge domains (Berlin 2005; Grundy 2002; Pennington 1995; Tsui 2003; Wilson, Shulman, and Richert 1987). Because they constitute linguistic and symbolic artifacts of social reproduction, written texts such as course books, journal articles, reviews, and so forth provide fertile ground for building expertise. These text sources exemplify identifiable genres that encode subject matter "in ways that conform to a discipline's norms, values, and ideology." Understanding any discipline's discursive norms and written genres is "essential to professional success" (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995: 1).

Professional success, of course, depends partly upon acquiring, processing, and applying "canons of evidence" and disciplinary content (Grossman et al. 1989). As Tsui (2003) concluded in her survey of teacher expertise studies, "teachers' disciplinary knowledge . . . has a decisive influence on the process, content, and quality of their instruction" (p. 55). Indeed, weak knowledge of a discipline undermines teachers' instructional effectiveness, seriously compromising their capacity to understand the discipline (Grossman et al. 1989). In LT and its allied communities of practice (applied linguistics and education, to name but two), disciplinary knowledge is inevitably expressed in terms of public theory, which some preservice teachers may regrettably view as monolithic, impenetrable, or (worse yet) irrelevant (Clarke 1994; Freeman 1996b; Grabe, Stoller, and Tardy 2000).

Public theory, of course, can transform teaching practice, provided that "teachers have multiple and varied opportunities to make sense of the theory" (Johnson 1997: 779; see also Bartels, Chapter 12). Theory and formal knowledge, which Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) characterized as "publicly represented" and "negotiable" (p. 62), enable novices

to theorize their implicit, practical knowledge so that it becomes "theorised practical knowledge" (Tsui 2003: 260). To facilitate such theorizing, teacher education can help novices view theoretical constructs and their representation in the disciplinary literature as supportive of their apprenticeship processes. In line with socioliterate principles, I recommend dramatizing research-practice interfaces by modeling the intellectual and discursive skills that preservice teachers must eventually display for their learners in the classroom (Hedgcock 2002; Snow 2005). For language teachers, a vital means of participation involves reading and acting on the field's literature with awareness. Preservice teachers can advance to high-level content knowledge and decision-making skills through "in-depth processing of information that leads to deeper understandings of the theory and practice, more consistent patterns of action, and more intricate interconnections among facets of their practice" (Pennington 1995: 719).

To guide students in a masters-level course on second language learning in their encounters with theory and research, I have developed a set of principles and strategies that is calculated to promote mindfulness and awareness, as well as to activate the high-level cognitive skills and deep understandings described by Pennington (1995). Congruent with socioliterate principles, the following outline of tools and strategies likewise endeavors to lay groundwork for building novice teachers' critical awareness of the LT discipline's rhetorical and discursive modes. These tools are further designed to provide novice teachers and teacher educators with an explicit apparatus for recognizing, articulating, and perhaps challenging the sociocultural and ideological dimensions of LT research and theory (Freeman 2004; Gee 2004; Hedgcock 2002).

A few of the socioliterate precepts that I share with pre- and in-service teachers are reflected in the following recommendations for engaging in critical reading:

- Approach reading with your own questions about second language learning (SLL) in mind. Much SLL research emerges from a problem or unanswered question, such as "Does error feedback truly enhance SLL?" Your own questions and speculation may help you decide what is important.
- Adopt a critical stance when reading SLL research, accepting nothing at face value. "Do not accept one-on-one causal relationships because they do not exist and do not blindly accept all results reported" (de Bot et al. 2005: 92).
- Question everything! By "everything," I mean definitions, variables, measures, scales, analyses, validity and reliability claims, conclusions, and implications. In short, apply the research principles that you encountered in courses in research methods, language assessment, and so forth.
- Question what is *not* written. Remember that researchers can seldom report on as much as they would like; they may also selectively omit information that could undermine their claims or the strength of their empirical conclusions.

Although I have found such global principles to be valuable for me and for many students, newcomers to the profession may understandably seek more specific guidelines for making sense of expert literature that sometimes seems highly opaque. In response to this need, I recommend the following set of literacy strategies that I learned first as a student and subsequently as a teacher of second language reading:

- Read intentionally. Before reading a challenging text, identify your purposes, perhaps by formulating your own prereading questions. Ask yourself why and how the text is related to topics in the syllabus and your own learning. Try adopting a simple but systematic approach to reading, such as SQ3R (Skim-Question-Read-Recite-Review).

- Follow up. If you take notes on your readings or follow the SQ3R approach, keep a written record of your thoughts to refresh your memory later. As you move from one text to another, look back at your notes to make comparisons and draw connections (some experts call this process *schema-building*).
- Test and use successful mnemonic tools. For instance, if you are a text-oriented reader and thinker, careful note-taking might be a productive technique. If you are a field-independent learner (i.e., one who can easily separate important details from a complex or confusing background), capturing details might be an effective procedure for reassembling the pieces of the puzzle reflected in a text. If you are a field-dependent learner (i.e., one who easily sees how the parts of a complex whole fit together), you might gain more by capturing your understanding globally, in prose, or even in the form of a visual image.
- Keep an electronic or handwritten log of new terminology and definitions.
- Read critically and selectively. As de Bot et al. (2005) wrote, "it is better to read a smaller number of articles carefully than to browse quickly through masses of publications" (p. 89).
- Share your questions, conclusions, and frustrations with fellow readers. Reading doesn't need to happen in a vacuum. Becoming a reader and writer in a discipline isn't always a solitary activity: When you feel confused or need clarification, share your questions and concerns with classmates and your instructors. Likewise, share your epiphanies with others.

Developing Genre Knowledge

As a discipline, LT constitutes a distinct academic and professional literacy with its own unique codes of communication that socialize new members into its literate practices. A socioliterate, genre-oriented approach to expert LT texts can prereveal their discursive patterns, enabling candidates to predict and understand the contents, agendas, and conventional structures of the materials they read as part of their courses and apprenticeships. More broadly, genre analysis can highlight the relationships among participants in the LT community of practice, exposing domain content that teachers can appropriate for use in their own practices (Bhatia 2004; Geisler 1994).

As a means of helping newcomers to the LT community become "a part of that community as it engages in the activity of literacy" (Purves 1991: 62), teacher-preparation courses can engage candidates in genre-analytic tasks that explore textual conventions as "conventional acts" of the LT community. An activity with which my students have had success involves instructing them to select an article or a chapter from the course syllabus that addresses a topic of personal interest. Working jointly with a like-minded peer, students analyze their reading selection by following a set of simple steps:

- Scan the text carefully, noting your best guesses about its purposes and audience.
- Identify textual clues that led you to draw inferences. These clues might include the topic, the genre, or text category (e.g., review article, essay, research report).
- Describe the text's rhetorical structure. Identify the textual signals that told you something about the selection's internal structure. These signals or elements might include the abstract, headings, topic sentences, tables, figures, sidebars, and so forth.
- Determine how the text informs and appeals to its audience, considering specialized terminology, references to the field's literature, the style sheet followed, and so on.

After students have collaboratively generated an analysis or at least a list of key text features, they may organize and lead a class discussion in which they summarize what they learned and share their discoveries. In pooling these analytic results and making comparisons with the work of their peers, students can be encouraged to explain how their new genre knowledge might be important for them as language professionals-in-training.

In a similar manner, teacher educators can use tokens of common written text types in the LT Discourse to alert newcomers to generic features. For instance, whereas pre- and in-service teachers are familiar with the textbook as a common genre, they may lack schemata for the linguistic, rhetorical, and lexical conventions of scholarly texts that address LT subdisciplines (pedagogy, curriculum design, language acquisition, assessment, etc.). Novices may similarly lack experience with commonplace genre categories such as abstracts, literature reviews, research articles, monographs, proposals, and the like. To reduce barriers to comprehending and valuing such texts, teacher education should use them to guide newcomers as they build subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge. This development process requires appropriation of the formal components of professional texts. A text offers "clues to its own meaning, so when we anticipate a text's genre, we begin to know how to interpret it" (Kent 1993: 127). To adopt repeated formal conventions and to learn how they work, newcomers to the Discourse must engage with and reproduce products and performances that approximate those generated by experts (Bhatia 2004; Gee 2004; Snow 2005).

Teacher education can therefore cast light on prototypical genres by constructing tasks that are explicitly grounded in a socioliterate context. The primary aims of the procedures described include spotlighting recurrent patterns in the written discourse of LT and explicitly revealing methods for incorporating repeated conventions into novices' active repertoires. By interacting dynamically with written texts and with their peers, newcomers can build and apply their field-specific schemata and vocabularies, engaging in productive processes of social mediation (Scollon 2001). Freeman (1996a) noted that appropriating the "jargon" helps teachers claim membership in "the group that thinks about and acts upon things in a particular way" (p. 236). By working collaboratively and inquisitively with fellow novices on similar, professionally authentic tasks, preservice teachers come to know options for participating in disciplinary practices and professional dialogue, shifting their status from that of peripheral participants to legitimate members of the LT community of practice (Lave and Wenger 1991; Nyikos and Hashimoto 1997; see also Singh and Richards, Chapter 20).

In outlining a sociocultural perspective on language and literacy development, Gee (2004) suggested that "we make both ourselves and our students more aware of how language works in terms of social languages, Discourses, situated meanings, cultural models, situated identities, and situated activities" (p. 27). Constructing a view of the LT profession and its knowledge base as embedded in socioliterate practices offers a teacher-preparation model that links internal schemata with external artifacts (texts), discursive practices, value systems, and "ways of being in the world" (Gee 2005: 7). This mediational orientation strengthens reflective approaches to teacher development and to LT praxis by involving novices in scrutinizing, reshaping, and renaming the beliefs, expert knowledge, and practices that they themselves will contribute to the profession. Teacher candidates can more effectively make sense of the LT discipline by understanding and reflecting on how the formal, conventional patterns of language, discourse, and genres construct beliefs, ideologies, and identities.

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SECTION 4

IDENTITY, COGNITION, AND EXPERIENCE IN TEACHER LEARNING

The role played by language teachers' personal theories and understandings of teaching as well as how teachers learn from the experience of teaching, has received growing attention within Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) in recent years and is the focus of the chapters in this section.

In Chapter 15, Golombek points out that the complexity of teachers' understandings of teaching has been captured in several constructs, including personal practical knowledge, images, principles, and maxims, terms that seek to show how teachers' beliefs, thoughts and words about teaching are reflected in and shape their actions in the classroom. These understandings reflect teacher's personal histories and sense of identity as well as the contexts in which they work. This interaction between practice and belief – one which is strongly influenced by the contexts in which teachers work – is the source of the teacher's developing knowledge about teaching. Such knowledge may be revealed through reflective practices including writing, narratives, observation, and case studies.

Borg, in Chapter 16, surveys research in the field of language teacher cognition, which focuses on what has been called the "mental lives" of teachers. Since much of what happens in SLTE programs at both the preservice and in-service level has to do with exploring teachers' beliefs, often with a view to "replacing" them with disciplinary-based beliefs, the study of teachers' beliefs is central to our understanding of SLTE. An important theme emerging from this research is the role played by prior teaching and learning experiences in shaping teachers' views of teaching, particularly preservice teachers, and identifying and reflecting on these beliefs can be a powerful source of learning in SLTE programs. The difficulty of putting beliefs into practice, particularly new understandings acquired in preservice programs, can be a source of frustration and anxiety for novice teachers. Borg

also reviews the research methods that have been used in studies of teacher cognition and emphasizes the limitations of some forms of qualitative analysis in researching teacher cognition.

Miller, in the next discussion in this section (Chapter 17), surveys the role of language teacher identity in SLTE, and points out how a focus in teacher identity marks a shift from a cognitivist view of teacher learning – one which presumes that learning is a private thing taking place in the head of an individual teacher – to a sociocultural view – one which views learning as contingent upon social processes and in which identity plays a key role. The words *teacher* and *learner* assign specific identities to the participants in learning. However, identities are not fixed but emerge through the social processes of the classroom and are shaped by many other factors than institutionalized roles, including workplace conditions, cultural differences, gender, language, and ethnicity. As Miller points out, identity is viewed as "relational, negotiated, constructed, enacted, transforming, and transitional." For language teachers, teacher-learning is about developing identities within a social and institutional context. Understanding of the nature of identity is crucial to our understanding of the processes of both teaching and learning.

The last two chapters in this section examine the notions of novice and expert. Farrell (Chapter 18) focuses on the experiences of teachers in their first year of teaching and highlights the influences of previous schooling experiences, the teacher's teacher education experience, and socialization experiences in the first year. The first year of teaching is often a challenge for new language teachers, and mentors can play a crucial role in helping novices make the transition from the campus program to the classroom. Farrell suggests that SLTE programs could better prepare teachers for their first year of teaching by building a preparatory course directly into the curriculum.

In Chapter 19, Tsui turns to the notion of expertise in teaching, and unravels the issues that are involved in arriving at a definition of an expert language teacher. She points out that views of expert teachers are culturally specific, but that most often expertise in teaching is identified with number of years of teaching experience. Different approaches to identifying differences between novices and experts are surveyed, and compares two views of expertise – one that sees it as a state, attained through experience, and others that view it as a process.

CHAPTER 15

Personal Practical Knowledge in L2 Teacher Education

Paula Golombek

Introduction

In this chapter I will first define and then situate teachers' personal practical knowledge (PPK) in the broad scholarly landscape and in the cognitive turn in teacher education. Next, I will review the literature on PPK for second language teachers. I will describe several significant research agendas and teacher education practices that PPK has helped to generate. Finally, I will compare two key studies in order to highlight the need for detailed explanations of the assumptions and constructs of PPK, and suggest future directions for research using PPK.

Scope and Definitions

Teachers tell stories. Ask a teacher about the value of journal writing, and she might tell a story about a quiet student in class discussions who writes cogently about course readings. The teacher might frame the story around the image of students finding their voice. Ask a teacher about the meaning of student-centered instruction, and he might narrate his journey from beginning to experienced teacher, describing how superficial his conception was early in his teaching career. These stories are expressions of a dynamic and complex kind of knowledge – teachers' personal practical knowledge.

Clandinin (1992) has described personal practical knowledge as follows:

> It is knowledge that reflects the individual's prior knowledge and acknowledges the contextual nature of that teacher's knowledge. It is a kind of knowledge carved out of, and shaped by, situations; knowledge that is constructed and reconstructed as we live out our stories and retell and relive them through processes of reflection. (p. 125)

Clandinin and Connelly (1987) have further characterised PPK as a "moral, affective, and aesthetic way of knowing life's educational situations" (p. 59). These descriptions

highlight the experiential, situational, dynamic, and *storied* dimensions of teachers' knowledge alongside its emotional and moral dimensions.

Another significant component of PPK that has expanded our understandings of teachers is the construct of *image*, which unites the teacher's personal and educational lives in its origin and the function it serves. Image is expressed through a teacher's words and in his or her classroom practice. The unity and flow of these dimensions can best be understood through Clandinin's (1986) words: "The emotional and moral dimensions of image are the glue which binds together the educational and personal private sides of an individual's life" (p. 131). In brief, images originate in a person's past experiences, and are reconstructed to meet the demands of a particular situation, reordering her professional and personal experiences, and pointing to future hopes and experiences.

Overview

In the 1980s, scholars in general education sparked what would become a revolution of sorts by addressing the mental lives of teachers (see Borg, Chapter 16). The field of teacher cognition surfaced, in part, as a result of work on teacher decision making (e.g., Shavelson and Stern 1981), exploring the thinking processes of teachers as they planned and implemented their lessons. Because this research conceptualized teacher cognition as behaviors associated with a teacher's pre-active (before teaching) and post-active (after teaching) mental processes, others sought to broaden our understanding of teacher thinking by examining what teachers know, where that knowledge comes from, and how they use it in the classroom. Elbaz's (1983) construct of *practical knowledge* and Clandinin's (1986) of *personal practical knowledge* were coined from rich, descriptive case studies of teachers that provided holistic accounts of individual teachers' practices in classrooms over time.

PPK became part of a robust scholarly tradition that has challenged the separation of knower and knowledge, experience and science, and subjectivity and objectivity. The theoretical underpinnings of PPK have most commonly been identified with Dewey (1938), because of his focus on the value of the experiential, and his distinction of habits and educative experiences. Schön's (1983) writings on the *reflective practitioner* presented a discourse in which teacher educators and researchers alike could discuss the teacher as a thoughtful knower, whose knowing could be found in his or her doing, and, as Freeman and Johnson (1998) note, brought on the reflective teaching movement (see Burton, Chapter 30). Other scholars, too numerous to mention, from cultural anthropology, narrative psychology, educational philosophy, feminist theory, and postmodern theory, challenged positivistic conceptions of knowledge, contributing to the epistemological shift in teachers knowledge that has transformed research and practice in second language teacher education.

A review of published manuscripts reveals few studies that have PPK in the title or operationalize PPK as the principle construct (Golombek 1998; Tsang 2004). Why does a highly visible concept in general educational research appear to have scant visibility in published manuscripts in second language teacher education? This question is misleading, however, because although most of the L2 teacher cognition has not used PPK as its defining construct, L2 researchers have used conceptions similar to PPK.

Golombek (1998) examined the PPK of two preservice ESL teachers in an American university by exploring the tensions (Freeman 1993) these teachers faced in their classrooms. Each teachers' PPK was articulated through the narratives told to help make sense of a tension faced in a particular teaching context. Both teacher's tensions were morally and emotionally charged as they considered the repercussions of their practice on students For example, one teacher, Jenny, used the image of "the balance" to describe the competing objectives of fluency and accuracy caused by what she perceived as institutional pressure

to correct students to improve their oral comprehensibility and her own painful experience of being corrected as a learner of Russian. Golombek (1998) argues that PPK serves as a kind of framework through which teachers make sense of their classrooms: "It filters experience so that teachers reconstruct it and respond to the exigencies of a teaching situation . . . In this way, L2 teachers' personal practical knowledge shapes and is shaped by understandings of teaching and learning" (p. 459). Furthermore, the teachers' concerns for the emotional well-being of their students and the morality of their actions highlight that PPK is a consequential way of knowing.

Tsang (2004) investigated how the PPK of three preservice English as an additional language teachers of ESL in Hong Kong affected their interactive decision making. The results showed that the teachers referred to their PPK in describing their interactive decision making in the classroom in approximately half of the instances. On the other hand, teachers more frequently called upon their PPK while describing their post-active decision making, enabling changes to be made in future lesson plans and future online teaching, and new understandings of their teaching philosophies. For example, one teacher, Anna, made interactive decisions as a result of classroom management issues, time limitations, and a lack of student cooperation. Tsang summarizes Anna's interactive decision making by noting that her "other decisions were often guided more by her personal practical knowledge than by new philosophies emerging during the lesson" (p. 180). Tsang concludes that some parts of a teacher's PPK may be competing among themselves. Furthermore, PPK may be conditional in that teachers have limited access to their PPK in interactive decision making because of the materialization of certain classroom variables in a particular teaching context.

Current Approaches and Practices

The impact of PPK has been notable on L2 preservice education, L2 teachers' professional development, and research on L2 teachers' learning and teaching. Freeman (2002) suggests that the research on and development of the concept of PPK has led to a reassessment of the role of prior knowledge in L2 teacher education, professional development, and research on teachers. We now recognize that teaching is socially constructed out of the experiences and classrooms of teachers as students and as teachers (Freeman and Johnson 1998; see also Hawkins and Norton, Chapter 3). As a result, we have a dynamic body of research that has looked at how language learning experiences influence teaching theory and practice (Bailey 1996; Sendan and Roberts 1998; Ellis 2006); how beliefs and knowledge inform teachers (Urmston 2003); how previous experience and knowledge affects understandings of subject matter knowledge (Andrews 1994, 1997, 1999, 2003a, 2003b; Farrell and Lim 2005); the role of knowledge in introspection and reflection (Scarino 2005); and the role of knowledge in studies of expertise (Tsui 2003). These studies substantiate changes in teacher education practices, such as the use of language learner autobiography, personal narratives, reflective journals, and classroom-based research.

The use of story in L2 teacher education is another area of inquiry partly inspired by PPK. Scholarship in general educational research, known as "new scholarship" (Schön 1995; Zeichner 1999), or "practitioner research," (Anderson and Herr 1999) has sought to articulate an epistemology of practice that characterizes teachers as legitimate producers of knowledge. This idea has taken shape in L2 teacher education through the concept of the "teacher as researcher" (Allwright and Bailey 1991; Nunan 1989) and the advocacy of various forms of teacher research, such as action research (see Burns, Chapter 29) and classroom-based research (Allwright 1988; van Lier 1988; see also McKay, Chapter 28).

The construction and reconstruction of PPK, as Clandinin and Connelly (1992, 1995, 2000) stress, is accomplished through teachers living their stories and retelling them through

conscious reflection, what they call *narrative inquiry*. PPK is expressed through story, image, and metaphor. Teachers use story to make sense of their classrooms, to express their knowledge and understandings of teaching, and as a tool to reflect on particular teaching events and students, beliefs and understandings.

Language teacher educators and researchers have, likewise, made teachers' stories essential in articulating and legitimizing teachers' ways of knowing. They have used stories to encourage teachers to frame and reframe their PPK and their classroom experiences. Stories are used to organize, articulate, and communicate what we know about ourselves as teachers, about our teaching, about our students, bringing together past, present, and future. The place of story in L2 teacher professional development and research has gained prominence in varied ways. The storying and restorying of knowledge through reflection and writing have been an underpinning of teacher research, such as narrative inquiry (Golombek and Johnson 2004; Johnson and Golombek 2002). The narrative expression of knowledge has been used as part of the theoretical framework in studies about the professional development of working ESL / EFL teachers (Johnston, Pawan, and Mahan-Taylor 2005) and even asserted as professional development (Johnson and Golombek 2002). Incorporating the idea that stories are an important source of insights into professional development, Borg (2001) has recommended that researchers use journals in their own scholarship as possible sources of learning for other researchers. In the Master of Arts in the Teaching of English as a Second Language (MATESL) classroom, Golombek (2000) has advocated the narrative expression of PPK to initiate students in the reflective processes of sense making they will need as teachers. In sum, stories have become tools for teacher reflection and development, a technique for collecting data, and a legitimate form of teachers' knowledge.

Issues and Directions

The juxtaposition of Golombek's and Tsang's studies reveals several important issues in the integration of PPK into L2 teacher research. In the 1990s, studies on second language teacher cognition blossomed, as did terminology about what teachers know, what influences that knowledge, and how knowledge and classroom practice interact. In his concise overview of studies on L2 teacher cognition, Borg (2003) suggests that this "multiplicity of labels" has produced a "superficial diversity" (p. 83). The studies reviewed appear to have a focus on the highly personal and narrative nature of teacher knowledge; the interplay of experiences as learners, teachers, and people; and the dialectical relationship between knowledge and practice. Some examples of the terms used in research on L2 teacher cognition include the following: personal pedagogical systems (Borg 1988), pedagogical principles (Breen et al. 2001), theories for practice (Burns 1996), background knowledge (Dahlman 2006), conceptions of practice (Freeman 1993), pedagogical knowledge (Gatbonton 1999; Johnston and Goettsch 2000; Mullock 2006) practical knowledge, (Meijer 1999; Meijer et al. 1999; Meijer et al. 2001) maxims (Richards 1996), personal theories (Sendan and Roberts 1998), and beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge (Woods 1996). This proliferation of terms is hardly surprising given that researchers were writing at approximately the same time, had an abundance of terminology from general education from which to choose, and were seeking to legitimate this line of research within L2 teacher education scholarship.

A deeper examination of these terms would show similarities as Borg (2003) notes, and would show particular aspects of teacher knowledge that researchers may choose to highlight, for example background knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Still, a deeper examination would uncover essential differences. For example, according to Tsang's findings, some decisions made by the teachers were guided more by PPK than by new philosophies

emerging during the lesson. If PPK is operationalized as teaching maxims that are accessed, then PPK is assumed to be a kind of explicit knowledge that teachers actively call on in their practice. Shulman (1987) noted almost 20 years ago that tacit knowledge is characteristic of much of teacher knowledge. Although this may be a goal of teacher-education programs, teachers do not always externalize their knowledge easily or completely. The operationalization of PPK as teaching maxims seems to be a partial representation when compared to Elbaz's (1983) seminal concept of practical knowledge as differing dynamic and interacting levels – images, principles, and rules of practice. In a sense, teaching maxims as a discrete category run the risk of reductionism. At an extreme, teachers who cannot access their PPK could be portrayed as deficient. Conceptions of PPK must embody that dynamic, holistic complexity resulting from teachers' interactions between making sense of their particular teaching context and students at a particular time, the images that anchor their teaching, and the pedagogical choices they make.

This example suggests that using terms interchangeably and glossing over differences may not be productive in the long term. Each of these terms has a historical precedent that may or may not be compatible in its assumptions. Furthermore, decomposing terminology exposes just how messy constructs of the mind are. In this sense, fewer terms are not necessarily better, but terms with more transparent assumptions and explanations are necessary to ground our discussions in teacher knowledge more fruitfully.

This chapter has demonstrated how the concept of PPK is embedded within L2 teacher education and research. While there is more to investigate concerning PPK, there is more to advocate for. Miller (Chapter 17) draws attention to the fact that teachers' thinking, knowing and doing, and identity formation, are enacted in classroom contexts, yet remain disconnected in the literature. Further study should explore how teacher knowledge shapes and is shaped by identity. The studies reviewed by Tsang (2004) and Golombek (1998) focus largely on the personal histories of teachers and how teachers understand their activities. Further studies must extend the teachers' personal factors to include the students' personal, along with historical, cultural, social, and institutional factors.

Finally, the centrality of values in language teaching has been exhorted in what Johnston (2003) calls the morality of the classroom and the morality of teaching English as a second / foreign language in a postcolonial and global context. The political, economic, and social competition underlying English language use evolving in a shifting global context absorbs English teachers in practical, personal, moral, and emotional dimensions of their knowing. At the same time, mandated educational reforms from above are imposing objectives, curriculum, and assessments on teachers and students in unequally resourced institutional settings throughout the world. Such reforms question the existence of teachers' personal practical knowledge, and privilege more discrete and supposedly objective knowledge bases for teachers. The challenge remains for L2 teacher educators and researchers to reaffirm the value of personal practical knowledge.

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CHAPTER 16

Language Teacher Cognition

Simon Borg

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the study of language teacher cognition and to highlight issues in this domain of research that are of particular relevance to teacher educators. I will also outline the research methods that have been used in studying language teacher cognition and identify directions for continuing work in this field.

Scope and Definitions

The study of teacher cognition is concerned with understanding what teachers think, know, and believe. Its primary concern, therefore, lies with the unobservable dimension of teaching – teachers' mental lives. As a tradition of research in education, the study of teacher cognition stretches back over 30 years (see S. Borg 2006, Chapter 1, for a historical overview); and although some early work in this field did focus on first language education (particularly reading instruction in the U.S.), second and foreign (L2) language teacher cognition research – which is my focus here – is a more recent phenomenon, which emerged in the mid-1990s and has grown rapidly ever since.

A key factor in the growth of teacher cognition research has been the realization that we cannot properly understand teachers and teaching without understanding the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that influence what teachers do. Similarly, in teacher education, we cannot make adequate sense of teachers' experiences of learning to teach without examining the unobservable mental dimension of this learning process. Teacher cognition research, by providing insights into teachers' mental lives and into the complex ways in which these relate to teachers' classroom practices, has made a significant contribution to our understandings of the process of becoming, being, and developing professionally as a teacher.

Overview

As noted above, a substantial body of research of L2 teacher cognition is now available (A detailed analysis of this can be found in S. Borg 2006.), and here I will focus on a number of themes that are of particular interest to language teacher educators in both preservice and in-service contexts.

PRIOR LANGUAGE LEARNING AND PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

One key theme highlighted in language teacher cognition research is the impact that prior language learning experience has on preservice teachers. A key idea here is Lortie's (1975) notion of the "apprenticeship of observation." This refers to the way that prior experiences as learners shape the beliefs about teaching, which prospective teachers have (see Farrell, Chapter 18). At the start of teacher education, then, preservice teachers will already have strong beliefs about teaching, and there is much evidence that these ideas have a persistent influence on trainees throughout their initial training and beyond. Bailey (1996), for example, illustrates how the beliefs about teaching held by a group of teachers in training had been influenced by their own language learning histories. Johnson (1994) and Numrich (1996) provide evidence of how teachers' prior language learning influenced their classroom decisions during the practicum. Further evidence of the impact of prior experience on preservice language teachers' cognitions appears in Farrell (1999), Urmston (2003), and Warford and Reeves (2003). Overall, this research suggests that the initial conceptualizations of teaching and learning that preservice teachers bring to teacher education are shaped by their prior language learning experience. If we accept the contemporary constructivist position that teacher learning occurs through interactions between prior knowledge on the one hand and new input and experience on the other, ignoring preservice teachers' prior cognitions is likely to hinder their ability to internalize new material. This is particularly true when these prior understandings of teaching are inappropriate, unrealistic, or naive. For this reason acknowledging, making explicit, and examining trainees prior cognitions is an important part of preservice teacher education.

PRESERVICE TEACHER COGNITION DURING THE PRACTICUM

Some form of practicum (i.e., practice teaching) is a component of many preservice teacher-education programs (see Gebhard, Chapter 25). Studies of language teacher cognition have been valuable in shedding light on teachers' practicum experiences and in particular on their concerns and thinking during these early encounters of teaching. Numrich (1996) studied the diaries kept by teachers during a practicum and found that the teachers' reported ongoing frustrations with a number of issues; those mentioned most frequently were managing class time, giving clear directions, responding to students' individual needs, and teaching grammar effectively. Two further studies examined in detail the cognitions of individual preservice teachers. Johnson (1996) illustrates the tensions a trainee experienced between her vision of what she wanted to be like as a teacher and the way she actually taught during the practicum. For example, although the teacher wanted to be student-centered, her initial practices were actually teacher-centered. For this trainee, learning to teach thus became a process of understanding the social and pedagogical context her classes presented and learning, within that context, to create the conditions that would allow her to put into practice her vision for teaching. In another study of an individual preservice teacher during their practicum, Farrell (2001) examined experiences of a trainee in Singapore. In this case, the focus was on the socialization processes new teachers experience and how these can influence their conceptions of what it means to be a teacher. In this study, the

preservice teacher's negative experience of the practicum stemmed mainly from the lack of positive working relationships with other staff; he also felt belittled in the way his superiors treated him, and this hindered his efforts to establish any credibility with the learners.

A different perspective on the study of preservice language teacher cognition during the practicum is illustrated in Johnson (1992a) and Tsang (2004). These studies focus on the kinds of interactive (i.e., during lessons) decisions teachers make and the reasons behind them. As a tradition in the study of language teacher cognition, a focus on decision making has been criticized for not capturing the process of teaching in a suitably holistic manner (e.g., Mitchell and Marland 1989, who say that decision making accounts for only about 25 percent of the thinking a teacher does during lessons). Another criticism of decision-making studies (in education generally) is that often they do not examine the reasons behind the decisions teachers are making. Tsang's study, though, illustrates how the analysis of preservice teachers' decisions can be usefully combined with an analysis of the rationales behind them. She first examined the actual practices of three preservice teachers in Hong Kong, identified the decisions they made during lessons, and then examined these to identify the maxims (i.e., principles) these decisions were based on. One interesting finding to emerge here was that only about half of the interactive decisions identified in the trainees' work seemed to be guided by explicit maxims. We are not told what accounted for the other half, but contextual factors, such as lack of time or student ability, must have also been influential. This is an important point in the study of teacher cognition generally: What teachers do cannot be satisfactorily understood with exclusive reference to what they think, know, and believe; an understanding of the context they work in and of the impact of this on their teaching is also necessary.

Collectively, studies of preservice language teachers' cognitions during the practicum have provided insight into trainees' early classroom experiences, the challenges these pose, how trainees cope with these challenges, and the pedagogical principles they draw on in making instructional decisions. Insight into such issues is valuable to teacher educators and can facilitate their task of providing preservice teachers with support during the practicum, a time that can be stressful for many new teachers.

THE IMPACT OF PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

A number of studies have examined the impact that preservice teacher education has on trainees. One important issue highlighted in this work is the distinction between cognitive change and behavioral change. The study by Gutierrez Almarza (1996), for example, showed that a group of trainees did adopt during their practicum the specific teaching method they were taught on their teacher-education program. This suggested that the program had impacted on their teaching. Interviews with the trainees, though, showed that some of them did not believe in this method and would not persist with it once the practicum was over. This finding indicated that the observed changes in these teachers' behavior may have reflected the assessed nature of their practicum rather any deep-rooted change in their views about teaching.

In assessing the impact of preservice teacher education, then, caution is required as observable changes in behavior may not be indicative of any meaningful and lasting cognitive impact on teachers. This is particularly the case when trainees are being assessed and therefore are under pressure to conform with the principles and practices promoted by those assessing them.

A second issue I would like to highlight here relates to how evidence of the impact of preservice language teacher education on trainees' cognitions is collected. Several studies have examined impact by using questionnaires to compare trainees' beliefs about language

teaching and learning at the start and end of their programs (e.g., MacDonald et al. 2001; Peacock 2001; Urmston 2003). MacDonald et al. (2001), for example, used a questionnaire to examine the impact on participants' beliefs of courses in second language acquisition. By comparing responses to the same questionnaire before and after the course, the authors found evidence of change in participants' beliefs about second language acquisition. A key question here for teacher educators, though, is whether the differences in the pre- and postcourse questionnaire responses are indicative of any real cognitive change. There is, for example, a possibility that at the end of the course, participants' answered the questions in a way that they felt matched the ideas promoted on the course and of which they felt their tutors would approve. It is difficult to rule out such alternative explanations for apparent cognitive change. For this reason pre- and postcourse belief questionnaires should be interpreted cautiously if they are the sole source of evidence about the impact of preservice teacher education on trainees' cognitions.

A number of studies have, alternatively, analyzed the impact of preservice teacher education on trainees' cognitions qualitatively (e.g., M. Borg 2005; Cabaroglu and Roberts 2000; Richards et al. 1996). In contrast to the generally negative findings of questionnaire studies, much of this research has highlighted the complex ways in which trainees' thinking, beliefs, and knowledge do change during their initial training. Richards et al. (1996), for example, studied five preservice teachers and found changes in their cognitions in relation to issues such as their conception of their roles in the classroom and their knowledge of professional discourse. Of interest too was the finding that these trainees did not change in a homogeneous way; there was variability in the extent to which each of the trainees mastered the principles underlying the course, with each interpreting these in individual ways. This suggests that teacher learning in preservice teacher education is a complex process that varies even among individuals on the same program. Given this complexity, it is likely that an element of qualitative analysis – involving, for example, trainees' journal writing, interviews, and observations – is desirable (perhaps complemented by quantitative measures) if meaningful conclusions about the impact of preservice teacher education are to be reached.

THE COGNITIONS AND PRACTICES OF IN-SERVICE TEACHERS

Teacher cognition research has also been widely used in the study of the cognitions and practices of in-service (i.e., practicing) language teachers (e.g., Bailey 1996; Breen et al. 2001; Burns 1996; Gatbonton 1999; Mullock 2006; Meijer et al. 1999; Richards 1996). In this body of work there is a shared concern with understanding the beliefs, knowledge, and thoughts, which underpin teachers' instructional practices. Beyond this common goal, however, this research is defined above all by its diversity, in particular its conceptual diversity. Golombek (Chapter 15) has already illustrated this point by listing a number of different labels that have been used to conceptualize aspects of teacher cognition. (See also S. Borg 2006: 36–39, for an extensive list of concepts used in the general educational literature on teacher cognition.)

The aim of these studies of practicing teachers is to understand what language teachers do and what cognition – beliefs, knowledge, thoughts – underpin these behaviors. Collectively, the results of these studies provide strong support for the uncontested view today that there is a strong relationship between cognition and practice in language teaching. We also know, however, that this relationship is complex and that teachers' actions are not simply a direct result of their knowledge and beliefs. Rather, thought and action in language teaching are mutually informing (and so, action and experience shape, and are not only shaped by, teachers' cognitions). Also, as I have already stressed, context is a fundamental variable in understanding teaching; research into language teachers' cognitions and

practices that does not attend to the context in which these cognitions and practices unfold is, I would argue, conceptually flawed.

COMPARISONS OF LANGUAGE TEACHERS' COGNITIONS AND PRACTICES

One recurrent area of interest in studies of practicing language teachers' cognitions and practices has been the extent to which what teachers believe is reflected in what they do. In an early example, Johnson (1992b) identified teachers' theoretical orientations to reading instruction, then compared these to what teachers did in the classroom. Her conclusion was that teachers who possessed clearly defined theoretical beliefs about reading taught reading in a way that reflected these beliefs. Collie Graden's (1996) study of reading generated similar findings, though in this case instances where teachers' stated beliefs and their classrooms practices did not match were identified. These were explained with reference to contextual factors in teachers' work, most notably the ability and motivation of the learners. Influenced by such factors, teachers did on occasion teach in ways not consistent with their stated beliefs. Further examples of mismatches between teachers' stated beliefs and observed practices are provided by Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) and Karavas-Doukas (1996), both of which focus on communicative language teaching.

Collectively, studies that compare what teachers say and do raise a number of important conceptual and methodological issues for teacher educators. One fundamental issue is that a lack of congruence between teachers' beliefs and their practices should not be seen as a flaw in teachers. Teacher cognition research has provided insights that allow us to interpret, in more sophisticated ways, results that show that teachers' beliefs and practices are not aligned. We know, for example, that the social, institutional, instructional, and physical settings in which teachers work often constrain what they can do. The result of such constraints may be teaching that does not reflect the teacher's ideals. Another issue we must bear in mind is that a teacher will hold a complex set of beliefs that may not always be compatible with one another; thus, although what teachers do may appear inconsistent with a particular belief, further analysis can often show that there is an alternative, more powerful belief that is influencing classroom practice.

From a teacher education point of view, then, mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices should not be a focus of criticism; rather, they present exciting opportunities for deeper explorations of teachers, their cognitions, their teaching, and the contexts they work in.

RESEARCH METHODS IN STUDYING LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION

Before highlighting some future directions for language teacher cognition research, I would like to comment briefly on the research methods that have been used in this field (see S. Borg, 2006, Chapters 6–9 for a detailed discussion). Teachers' cognitions are not observable. They thus need to be made explicit, and a number of methodological tools are available for this purpose. The four major methods that have been widely used are:

1. *Self-report instruments* such as questionnaires and tests
2. *Verbal commentaries* elicited through structured and semistructured interviews, repertory grid interviews, stimulated recall interviews, and think-aloud protocols
3. *Observation*, of simulated or real classroom practices
4. *Reflective writing* in the form of journals, autobiographical accounts, retrospective accounts, and concept maps

Self-report instruments, semistructured and stimulated recall interviews, and observation are the strategies most commonly used in the study of language teacher cognition. There are a number of advantages and disadvantages associated with any one method and, therefore, it is often the case that different methods are combined. For example, observations on their own can tell us nothing about what teachers think, believe or know; thus, they are typically used in conjunction with interviews; questionnaires, on the other hand, can provide no direct evidence of what teachers do (only reports of what teachers say they do); a study aiming to shed light on what happens in classrooms would therefore also want to incorporate an element of observation.

Reflective writing, particularly through journals, merits a specific comment here as it is commonly used in the study of teacher cognition in preservice teacher education contexts (for example, Johnson 1994; Numrich 1996)[1]. One reason for this is that journal writing, as a data collection strategy, can be easily incorporated into teacher education in the form of assigned coursework. Although this may seem a neat way to collect data, it raises a number of challenging questions for teacher educators. For example, at what point are trainees informed that you would like to analyze their journals as research data? If they are told at the start of the process, what precisely do you tell them about the purposes of the research and how might this information influence what they write in their journals? Irrespective of the methods used, we must acknowledge, as I suggested earlier, the possible limitations of data about teacher cognition that have been collected in the context of a program environment where trainees are being assessed. This is particularly true where the researcher is also the teacher educator and trainees have a clear idea of this individual's beliefs and expectations.

Issues and Directions

Several areas of development for continuing research on language teacher cognition can be identified:

1. In terms of the contexts in which the work to date has been conducted, there is much scope for expansion. A number of studies have emerged from the United States, Hong Kong, the United Kingdom, and Australia, but there remain many L2 education contexts where the study of language teacher education has yet to make an impression. Similarly, much of the existing research has taken place in university settings and / or in private institutions. Much more work is required in, for example, primary and secondary schools in the state sector.
2. The range of curricular areas in L2 teaching that have been studied from a teacher cognition perspective remains limited. Grammar, reading, and writing have received a certain level of attention. This contrasts with the scarcity of work into the teaching of speaking, listening, and vocabulary.
3. The evidence currently available suggests that prior learning experience, practice teaching, and early teaching experience may exert a more powerful influence on the development of teachers' cognitions than input from course work on formal training programs (preservice and in-service). Continuing research into these issues is required, in particular into the relative impact of the experiential and theoretical components of language teacher education on what L2 teachers know, believe, think, and do.
4. There has been much interest to date in the extent to which teachers' cognitions change over time, particularly in preservice contexts. Although this work has focused on what teachers think, know, or believe (i.e., the *content* of change) our understandings

of the *processes* of cognitive change remain limited. Longitudinal research focusing on these processes is thus needed to advance of our understandings of teacher learning.

5. Much more attention has been paid to the study of language teacher cognition in preservice contexts than in in-service teacher education. We thus know little, for example, about the factors that promote cognitive change in practicing teachers, whether novice (see Farrell, Chapter 18) or more experienced.
6. It is important, too, to acknowledge that teaching has a powerful affective dimension and that this plays a part in shaping what teachers think, believe, know, and do (Zembylas 2005). The relationship between affect and cognition in becoming, being, and continuing to grow as a language teacher deserves greater attention.
7. Finally, a major issue that remains unaddressed is the relationship between teacher cognition and student learning. Although our understandings of the relationships between teachers' cognitions and practices are now quite sophisticated, investigating whether particular cognitions lead to more effective student learning poses a number of conceptual and methodological challenges. My view is that these challenges may be best addressed through collaboration among second language acquisition researchers and researchers with expertise in the study of language teacher cognition.

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Note

[1] Studies that use journal writing as a key method in the study the cognitions of practicing language teachers are rare (for example, Sakui and Gaies 2003).

CHAPTER 17

Teacher Identity

Jennifer Miller

INTRODUCTION

In the TESOL field for over a decade, identity has been used as a concept to explore questions about the sociocultural contexts of learning and learners, pedagogy, language ideologies, and the ways in which language and discourses work to marginalize or empower speakers. Although there is also a substantial body of research on learner identity, studies on language teacher identity represent an emerging field (Cross and Gearon 2007; Singh and Richards 2006). This chapter aims to bring insights from identity theory as it is used in the TESOL field to a discussion of language teaching and teacher identity, and to provide an overview of recent research in the area. Such research reflects a theoretical and methodological shift from traditional cognitivist SLA perspectives on language teaching to a more nuanced critical and sociocultural framing (see Hawkins and Norton, Chapter 3), which place identity and discourse at the heart of language teaching and learning. In TESOL additional layers of complexity arise from the internationalization of language education and the globalization of English. A consideration of teacher identity and teacher education must therefore take account of issues such as the role of discourse in self-representation, the salience of sociocultural contexts, diversity and ethnicity, the native / nonnative binary, and beliefs about standard language.

Qualitative research into language learning and teaching using interdisciplinary and socially informed perspectives draws on a highly eclectic theoretical and epistemological base (Block 2003; Roberts 2001; Zuengler and Cole 2005). The range of theoretical approaches includes neo-Vygotskian sociocultural theory, language socialization theory, post-structuralist feminist theory, and critical applied linguistics. These interpretive social paradigms have much in common, including an interest in identity, agency, discourse, diversity, social interaction, local context, and lived experience. Gee (1996) brings these notions together in his introduction to *Social Linguistics and Literacies*. He writes, "It's not

just what you say or even how you say it, it's who you are and what you are doing while you say it" (p. viii). How does this relate to teacher identity?

Where teachers were once viewed as technicians, defined by particular behaviors, knowledge, or language teaching methods in classrooms characterized by identifiable variables, teachers and their work are constructed in increasingly complex ways in recent research. Current work on teacher identity highlights that language teaching cannot be separated from social language use in classrooms, and the centrality of situated meanings within repertoires of social practices, involving specific social and institutional contexts and memberships. Gee's point means that in any teacher's communication to their students, the *what*, the *how*, the *who*, the *who to*, and the *what's happening* all come into play. Identity in these terms is "enacted," or achieved, but it is also ascribed by the hearer, who has the power to accept and legitimate or to deny both the message and the identity of the speaker. It is important to keep these two aspects in mind, namely that identity is a way of doing things but is inflected by what is legitimated by others in any social context. All teachers have their "ways of being" in language classrooms, yet most would attest to the power of their students to grant or refuse a hearing. In exploring teacher identity, issues of agency and power can therefore not be ignored, and increasingly a critical edge using sociological theory has been added to sociocultural research.

Scope and Definitions

Many contemporary researchers have conceptualized identity as a process of continual emerging and becoming. Unitary labels are replaced by notions of fluid, dynamic, contradictory, shifting, and contingent identities, or "points of temporary attachment" (Hall 1996: 6). The literature uses a diversity of terminology, including *social identity*, *ethnic identity*, *cultural identity*, *linguistic identity*, *sociocultural identity*, *subjectivity*, *the self*, and *voice*. Although there are competing frameworks and discourses around the notion of identity (McNamara 1997), the general move has been away from identity in terms of psychological processes towards contextualized social processes. Peirce (1995) laid important groundwork for the understanding that identity is multiple and a site of struggle, as well as continuously changing over time. Duff and Uchida (1997) present some of the elements that are key to understanding language teacher identity.

> Language teachers and students in any setting naturally represent a wide array of social and cultural roles and identities: as teachers or students, as gendered and cultured individuals, as expatriates or nationals, as native speakers or nonnative speakers, as content-area or TESL / English language specialists, as individuals with political convictions, and as members of families, organisations, and society at large. (p. 451)

In addition, the critical role of discourse in the construction of identity has been continuously highlighted by many researchers in the field (Gee 1996, 2004; Goldstein 2003; Hawkins 2004; Miller 2003; Norton and Toohey 2004; see also Hedgcock, Chapter 14).

Definitions of Identity

There are many definitions of identity within the field. Table 1 presents some of these. Identity is:

"how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how that person understands possibilities for the future"	Norton 2000: 5
"a constant ongoing negotiation of how we relate to the world"	Pennycook 2001: 149
"relational, constructed and altered by how I see others and how they see me in our shared experiences and negotiated interactions"	Johnson 2003: 788
(Re: teacher professional identities) "defined here in terms of the influences on teachers, how individuals see themselves, and how they enact their profession in their settings"	Varghese 2006: 212
(Re: professional and personal identities) "instantiations of discourses, systems of power / knowledge that regulate and ascribe social values to all forms of human activity"	Morgan 2004: 173
"transformational, transformative, context-bound, and constructed, maintained and negotiated via language and discourse"	Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson 2005: 21
"being recognised as a certain 'kind of person'; identity is connected not to internal states but to performances in society. It is also 'an important analytical tool for understanding schools and society.'"	Gee 2000–2001: 99

Table 1

A brief analysis of these definitions reveals a pattern of key words and concepts. Identity is viewed here as *relational*, *negotiated*, *constructed*, *enacted*, *transforming*, and *transitional*. Note also the central role of discourse in identity processes, and of the role of the "Other" in negotiating and legitimating one's *identity work*. Some recent research on language teacher identity specifies particular relationships that have emerged in research data. These include identity-in-discourse (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson 2005), identity-in-practice (Singh and Richards 2006; Varghese et al. 2005), and identity in activity (Cross and Gearon 2007).

Although these researchers are working in a second language field, which has a long history of individualist and cognitivist theory and experimental methodology, their new definitions require that we look at the individual teacher or learner in more complex ways, and that we add context, contradiction, and often conflict to the mix.

Overview

Teacher identity, context and conflict

A growing body of recent research recognizes a serious hiatus between language teacher education courses and the lived experiences of teachers (Duff and Uchida 1997; Flores

2001; Johnson 1996; Morgan 2004; Tsui 2003). The nature of identity means that it is continuously co-constructed in situ, using many resources including personal biography, interactional skills, knowledge, attitudes, and social capital. That is, preservice teachers have a repertoire of resources they can deploy and "test" as they negotiate and build their professional identities in social and institutional contexts. The previous definitions indicate that identity itself needs to be viewed as a resource in process.

However the negotiation of teachers' professional identities is also powerfully influenced by contextual factors outside of the teachers themselves and their preservice education courses. These include workplace conditions (Flores 2001), curriculum policy (Cross and Gearon 2007), bilingual language policy (Varghese 2006), cultural differences (Johnson 2003), racism (Miller 2007), social demographics of the school and students, institutional practices, curriculum, teaching resources, access to professional development, and many other things. The implication is that the identity resources of the teachers may be tested against conditions that challenge and conflict with their backgrounds, skills, social memberships, use of language, beliefs, values, knowledge, attitudes, and so on. Negotiating these challenges forms part of the dynamic of professional identity development. Norton (2006) argues that transition is "a recurring theme throughout much research on identity and language learning" (p. 24). Clearly we must acknowledge that this also applies to language teaching and teacher education.

Critical sociocultural studies draw attention to the fact that identity also involves an often problematic positioning by the "Other," while learning to work in "a complex sociopolitical and cultural political space" (Pennycook 2004: 333). This means that all language teachers are subject to mainstream discourses around languages, teachers, and teaching, which implicate them in power relationships. The situation of many nonnative English-speaking TESOL teachers and their striving for legitimacy in a sometimes hostile globalized TESOL market is a case in point (see Kamhi-Stein, Chapter 9).

Current Approaches and Practice

Constructing Teacher Identity: Current Conceptualizations

Recent research in teacher identity reveals several consistent themes, along with the overarching conceptualization that identity is relational, interactional, constructed, and performed in context. Because of this, identity is not viewed as an *entity*, but in relation to discursive, social, cultural, and institutional elements. In what follows I illustrate just three strands within a growing and increasingly complex literature on teacher identity. The first two are identity and knowledge, and identity and practice. These are interrelated and context-embedded. The third strand concerns identity and the nonnative language teacher.

Identity, Knowledge, and Context

Borg's (2003) review of research on teacher cognition contains no mention of teacher identity. Yet thinking, knowing, believing, and doing are enacted in classroom contexts in a way that can not be separated from identity formation. What teachers know and do is part of their identity work, which is continuously performed and transformed through interaction in classrooms. By contrast, context features in many of the studies reviewed by Borg and he concludes, "The study of cognition and practice without an awareness of the contexts in which these occur will inevitably provide partial, if not flawed, characterisations of teachers and teaching" (p. 106; see also Borg, Chapter 16).

Clandinin and Connelly (2004) argue that practical knowledge is gained via experience, and is "personal, context-bound, and includes implicit knowing" (p. 1305). It is akin to

what Cooper and McIntyre (1996) call teachers' professional craft knowledge, which arises from and informs what practitioners do in classrooms. Another mainstream research term is *personal practical knowledge* (see Golombek, Chapter 15). Like Golombek and Borg (Chapter 16), Johnston and Goettsch (2000) found that teacher knowledge was powerfully inflected by the continuously changing contextual dynamics of classrooms.

IDENTITY AND PRACTICE

In their important theory-building article on language teacher identity, Varghese et al. (2005) present three case studies of teachers. These include a nonnative TESOL masters student, a group of bilingual teachers, and a teacher self-study in a community-based ESL program. The cases provide evidence of identity as both agency and positioning by others. The authors use a combination of social identity theory, community of practice theory, and the notion of identity as pedagogical performance to illustrate their conclusion that "any one theory limits one's perspective on language teacher identity, its formation and its contexts" (p. 38). They stress that in classrooms, contexts can sometimes become *texts*, and that teacher identity is both an individual and a social matter. It includes a psychological self-image but practice is "a social process taking place in institutional settings such as teacher education programs and schools" (p. 39). They identify four critical issues for future teacher identity study, namely marginalization, the position of nonnative teachers, the professional status of language teaching, and teacher-student relations.

In contrast to a social "community of practice" perspective, Varghese (2006) found in her study of four bilingual teachers that individual expectations, personal histories, and enactment of agency meant that there was no coherent "community of practice" among these teachers or among the broader bilingual teaching community, although the practice of all four was strongly influenced by "structural and institutional concerns" (p. 212). Personal histories were also a critical dimension of identity work in Duff and Uchida's (1997) ethnographic case study of four EFL teachers in Japan. They found that the two critical dimensions of identity formation were personal histories (in terms of past learning, teaching, and cross-cultural experiences) and contextual factors, which included classroom and institutional culture, the textbook and curriculum, the timetable, gender, and societal expectations. In terms of identity through practice, their study highlighted "the biographical / professional and contextual basis for the foregrounding, backgrounding, and transforming aspects of teachers' sociocultural identities" (p. 479).

The relationship between identity and practice is perhaps most productively framed in the work of Jim Cummins (2000), primarily in regard to the identities of marginalized students. Cummins highlights the nexus between transformative pedagogical practice, and the identities of students and teachers. He stresses that all classroom interactions need to be understood in relation to the ways in which they generate knowledge and to "the identity messages and options for future identity choices that educators reflect back to the students" (p. 253). He emphasizes the "centrality of identity negotiation" (p. 154) and "identity affirmation" (p. 268) in effective practice, while claiming these have been consistently ignored in mainstream educational research. For minority students particularly, he argues that practice must be grounded in the lives of the students, using their identities (and presumably those of their teachers) as a primary resource (see also, Cummins 2003). Morgan's (2004) self-study illustrates the organic interactional identity work that occurs between teacher and students in a continuously dialogic and developmental process. He writes, "As I learned new things about my students, I was compelled to learn new things about myself through their processes" (p. 183).

IDENTITY AND THE NONNATIVE TEACHER

The vast majority of English language teachers around the world are now nonnative users of English (Matsuda and Matsuda 2001) and numerous scholars have begun to rethink

the terminology, theory, and principles of research involving such teachers (Braine 1999; Davies 2003; McKay 2003). It seems no accident that the contestation of concepts such as native speaker and standard language has occurred at a time of unprecedented mass global movements of people and the internationalization of English. Although Pennycook (2001) claims that dichotomies between Western and Eastern cultures, identities and practices are deterministic and unproductive, a number studies indicate that nonnative English speakers do not have the status and power of native speaker teachers, and struggle to achieve legitimacy within the field (Duff and Uchida 1997; Miller 2007; Pennycook 2001; Varghese et al. 2005). Although the traditional SLA native-speaker / nonnative-speaker binary and assumptions about native-speaker competence have been contested for some years, (Leung, Harris, and Rampton 1997; Lippi-Green 1997; McKay 2003), institutions and teachers are often complicit in promoting a standard language ideology, which rejects or marginalizes certain varieties of English.

In the TESOL workplace, nonnative speakers can face discrimination based on accent and credibility problems (Maum 2002). Such teachers often face identity crises in their search to be accepted as legitimate teachers. Johnson's case study of Marc (in Varghese et al. 2005), a young Hispanic woman, highlighted the conflicting and evolving identities of nonnative teachers who become English teachers. Marc pinpoints the role of the "Other" in defining some of the boundaries of possibility in identity formation for young teachers. She lists some of the labels or ways she has been constructed since leaving Mexico. She states:

> Here I was / am an ESL learner, Latina, Mexican, woman, single, Catholic, student of colour, NNEST, minority, Hispanic, bilingual, and I don't know what else . . . people just label me. (p. 27)

Johnson (2003) makes the point however that notions from social and psychological identity theory such as ingroup and outgroup identities are too oppositional and static, categories that do not explain "the *evolution* of Marc's teacher identity and the moment-to-moment production of that identity" (p. 27). This continuous trajectory of negotiation and development is also inherent Johnson's (2003) study of a mentoring relationship between a NS teacher and a NNS preservice teacher.

In 1998, a professional organization for nonnative English speakers in TESOL (NNEST; nnest.moussu.net/) was formed. The term *NNEST* is also used to represent nonnative English speaking teachers. However Maum (2002) identifies a division between those who support such a nomenclature, highlighting the differences of these teachers as strengths, and those who oppose it, believing that such a term reinforces the dichotomy between native and nonnative, and could reify discriminatory practices. McKay (2003) also critiques the separation of TESOL teacher identities in this way, arguing, "Such an approach is not productive in examining the benefits of bilingualism and biculturalism in the teaching of EIL" (p. 9). The problem with understanding identity is that terms such as *bilingualism* and *biculturalism* seem to indicate that some people have *two*, rather than multiple, continually evolving and contingent identities negotiated through interaction and context.

ISSUES AND DIRECTIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Researchers have often drawn attention to the hiatus between teacher-education programs and the realities of classroom language teaching (Flores 2001; Freeman 1996; Johnson 1996; see also Farrell, Chapter 18). Flores stresses the low impact of preservice programs and the high impact of workplace conditions in shaping identities and practices. Recent research also emphasizes that issues of identity, discourse, and power are mostly positioned

outside the core business of teacher education (Morgan 2004). How are we to move beyond this in teacher education programs? Following, I suggest four directions that tie key issues of teacher identity to understanding, knowledge, and practice. They concern the nature of identity itself; the importance of context in teaching; the need for critical reflection; and the integration of identity with pedagogy.

a. **A focus on the nature of identity**
Teacher education students need to understand identity as a complex and multiple individual and social phenomenon, which has critical links to power and legitimacy. People do not *have* fixed identities, but construct them through membership, context and language use (Gee 1996). And as Gee, Lippi-Green (1997) and many other discourse analysts have shown, these identities are highly consequential in terms of agency and power.

b. **Understanding the complexity and importance of context**
Classrooms and schools are loaded places. As Morgan (2004) writes, "There are no neutral spaces in schooling, no ways to insulate oneself from the social consequences of one's activities" (p. 176). Singh and Richards (2006; see also Singh and Richards, Chapter 20) stress that context and identity play crucial mediating roles in all classroom interactions and teacher work, and that the course room itself is a "complex ecological site in which unfolding events and processes . . . shape the way in which participants think, feel and act" (p. 154). Knowing the school, the possibilities of the classroom space, the students, their neighborhoods, the resources, the curriculum and policy, the supervising teacher – these are all critical elements that affect what teachers can do and how they negotiate and construct identity moment to moment.

c. **The need for critical reflection**
The call for critical reflection during preservice and inservice teacher training is neither new nor radical. In the TESOL field, a number of researchers have stressed the role of reflection in making sense of experience and practice (Freeman 1996; Hawkins 2004; Singh and Richards 2006; see also Burton, Chapter 30). The shift now, however, is to critical sociocultural reflection, which takes account of identity and related issues, of individuals in specific contexts, and of the role of discourse in shaping experience. Duff and Uchida (1997) suggest tying reflection to collaborative inquiry as a means of exploring identity and context further. The ongoing development of professional teacher identities therefore hinges on reflecting on what seems personally, institutionally, and socially doable in classrooms, how change is effected, and how knowledge, pedagogy, and identity intersect.

d. **Identity and pedagogy**
In Cummins's (2000) framing of transformative pedagogy, identity is a nonnegotiable keystone. We need teachers whose starting point is the learners' identities, who begin where students are at, and who treat the students' lives as primary resources for learning. Cummins's (2003) work on pedagogy and difference, and specifically on marginalized students, can be extended to all language students and their teachers. He urges us to add to our focus on strategies and techniques the "lens of identity negotiation, which is represented by the messages communicated to students regarding their identities – who they are in the teachers' eyes and who they are capable of becoming" (p. 51).

Suggestions for further reading

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CHAPTER 18

The Novice Teacher Experience

Thomas S. C. Farrell

INTRODUCTION

Many teacher educators, teachers, students, administrators, and even novice teachers themselves assume that once novice teachers have graduated, they will be able to apply what they have learned in teacher-preparation programs during their first year of teaching. However, the transition from the teacher-education program to the first year of teaching has been characterized as a type of "reality shock" (Veenman 1984: 143); the ideals that novice teachers may have formed during the teacher-education program are often replaced by the realities of the social and political contexts of the school. One reason may be that teacher-education programs are unable to reproduce environments similar to those teachers face when they graduate. Consequently, many novice teachers are left to cope on their own in a "sink-or-swim" situation (Varah, Theune, and Parker 1986). This chapter examines the challenges that novice second language teachers face in their first years in the classroom and outlines how these challenges can be addressed in language teacher education to better prepare novice teachers for the delicate transition from the teacher-education program to the first year of teaching. It first defines what is meant by the novice teacher and then discusses the topics of learning to teach, and the influences and challenges novice teachers that face during their first year.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

Novice teachers, sometimes called newly qualified teachers (NQTs), are usually defined as teachers who have completed their teacher-education program (including the practicum) and have just commenced teaching in an educational institution. More than any other time in their careers, they are involved in the process of learning to teach, or as Doyle (1977) puts it "learning the texture of the classroom and the sets of behaviours congruent with the environmental demands of that setting" (p. 31). In the first years of teaching,

their experiences are also mediated by three major types of influences: their previous schooling experiences, the nature of the teacher-education program from which they have graduated, and their socialization experiences into the educational culture generally and the institutional culture more specifically. Their schooling experiences include all levels of their education, from kindergarten, elementary, and high school, to university, and involve what Lortie (1975) refers to as an "apprenticeship of observation." The nature, content, length, and philosophical and theoretical underpinnings of their language teacher preparation program (see Barduhn and Johnson, Chapter 2) will also impact on early teaching. Teacher socialization in the first year, defined as "the process by which an individual becomes a participating member of the society of teachers" (Bliss and Reck 1991: 6), includes how novice teachers are mentored (see Malderez, Chapter 26) and the levels of collegial support they receive. Mentoring, which is known to affect how a novice teacher adjusts to teaching, is defined as a situation where "a knowledgeable person aids a less knowledgeable person" (Eisenman and Thornton, 1999: 81).

Novice language teachers face many challenges as they learn how to teach in their first year. Essentially novice teachers are developing conceptions of "self-as-teacher"; they are formulating teacher identities (see Miller, Chapter 17) related to institutional, personal, and professional conceptions of the role of the novice teacher.

Overview

For the novice teacher, the first year of teaching has been called an unpredictable and idiosyncratic activity (Johnson 2002), an anxiety provoking experience that involves a balancing act between learning to teach (i.e., furthering the professional knowledge and skills that were initiated during the teacher-education program) and attempting to take on an identity as a "real" teacher within an established school culture. During this first year, as Calderhead (1992) has remarked, "The novice becomes socialised into a professional culture with certain goals, shared values and standards of conduct" (p. 6). A novice second language teacher entering the classroom to teach for the first time, has already accumulated an array of tacitly held prior assumptions, beliefs, and knowledge about teaching and learning. While it was long assumed that the educational experiences of being a student would enable a novice teacher to adapt easily to his or her new role, as Urzua (1999) has observed, much of the empirical research in general education has long since changed this view. This research reveals that the change in role from student to teacher is not a simple transition; rather, beginning to teach is now seen as a difficult and complex task that can have a major impact on the professional development of first-year teachers (Featherstone 1993). Indeed, prior assumptions, beliefs, and attitudes built up during student years are often "buffeted and challenged as they learn about teaching" (Loughran, Brown, and Doecke 2001: 9). Consequently, language teacher educators need to consider how the prior assumptions and beliefs, which often serve as a lens through which novice teachers view teaching, can be examined during the language teacher education program. If left unexamined, they may override the new content, processes, and skills in pedagogy that the novice is acquiring.

Considering the formidable influence of prior beliefs and the relatively weak impact of language teacher education programs on the actions of novice teachers, Freeman (1994) cautioned language educators and novice teachers alike that what is presented in language teacher education programs may be washed away by the first-year experiences. This point was reconfirmed through research studies undertaken by Richards and Pennington (1998) and by Farrell (2003), which are discussed further in the next section. In addition, Tarone and Allwright (2005) maintain that language teacher education programs may not be delivering

relevant content that novice language teachers can implement in real classroom settings; as Tarone and Allwright (2005) argue "differences between the academic course content in language teacher preparation programs and the real conditions that novice language teachers are faced with in the language classroom appear to set up a gap that cannot be bridged by beginning teacher learners" (p. 12). Learning to teach in the first year is thus increasingly seen as a complex process for novice teachers (Bruckerhoff and Carlson 1995; Featherstone 1993; Solomon, Worthy, and Carter 1993). There is evidence that they are faced with specific challenges that must be addressed if they are not to abandon the profession after only a short period of time (Varah, Theune, and Parker 1986).

Fuller and Brown (1975) identified a sequence of emerging concerns and challenges that novice teachers face during their first year. They describe two general stages of developmental challenges. The first stage is characterized by *survival* and *mastery*, and the second stage presents an either / or dichotomy that involves either settling into *a state of resistance to change* or *staying open to adaptation and change* of practice. In the early stage, novice teachers are mostly concerned about their own survival as a teacher (Johnson 1992; Tsui 2003). Novice teachers' idealized concerns (the ideal of teaching before experiencing the reality of teaching) are abruptly replaced by challenges of survival in the classroom. They are also concerned about class control (classroom management) and the content of instruction. In the later stage, novice teachers become more concerned about their teaching performance, and this includes noticing their perceived limitations and the frustrations of the teaching context. Following this stage but later in the first year, as Fuller and Brown (1975) argue, novice teachers become more concerned about their students' learning and the impact of their teaching on learning. Research by Kagan (1992) who reviewed of 40 "learning-to-teach" studies, affirms the stages of development outlined by Fuller and Brown (1975) although Bullough and Baughman (1993) caution against the assumption that teachers move smoothly and neatly through each stage.

As a result of the various challenges associated with the developmental stages outlined by Fuller and Brown (1975), when novice teachers begin their first year of teaching, they require assistance and support as they attempt to navigate through their experiences. Both teaching skill and emotional support may come formally or informally, through mentoring by school authorities or colleagues within the school, or externally. Research has indicated that novice teachers who are mentored in a formal manner tend to be more effective teachers in their early years, since they learn from guided practice rather than depending on trial and error alone. They also tend to leave the teaching profession at a rate lower than nonmentored novices (Little, 1990). In the TESOL field, Malderez and Bodoczky (1999: 4; see also Malderez, Chapter 26) describe five different roles that mentors could play in order to provide on-site support and assistance to novice teachers during their first year of teaching: (1) Models (who inspire and demonstrate); (2) Acculturators (who show them the ropes); (3) Sponsors (who introduce them to the "right people"); (4) Supporters; and (5) Educators. However, recent research also cautions that the mere appointment of a mentor is no guarantee that the novice teacher will be successfully socialized into teaching within the school (Farrell 2003). Farrell's case study of the socialization and development of one English language teacher into the profession, for example, revealed that even though a mentor was officially appointed by the school, the novice teacher had no further contact beyond the initial introduction on the first day.

This brief overview suggests that it is important for language teacher education programs to be able to explore, identify, and address the various influences and challenges that novice teachers face during their first year so that they can be directly incorporated into the curriculum (see Graves, Chapter 11) and thus assist novices to socialize successfully into the profession.

Current Approaches and Practices

Although the socialization experiences of novice teachers have been well researched in the field of general education, few such studies exist in the field of second language education (Freeman and Johnson 1998). Among those that do exist, two in particular (Farrell 2003, 2006; and Richards and Pennington 1998) are important because they report on the socialization and development of novice English language teachers in their first year in different international settings and also provide useful implications for second language teacher education programs.

Richards and Pennington (1998), using a combination of questionnaires, classroom observations, and analysis of discussions during monthly teacher meetings, discovered that when novice teachers graduated from a teacher-preparation program in Hong Kong, their primary concerns during their first year of teaching were to establish a relationship with their students and to cover the prescribed curriculum. Furthermore, Richards and Pennington (1998) observed that these first-year teachers seemed to completely abandon or ignore many of the principles from their teacher-education program that were "regarded as central to second language teaching" (p. 186). Richards and Pennington (1998) concluded that among other reasons, the context may have played an influential role in the teachers' preferences for "familiar routines and practices" (p. 187) rather than trying new approaches they had learned in the teacher education program. As a result of their findings, Richards and Pennington (1998) proposed that teacher education should "explicitly align itself with local practices or . . . work to change those practices" (p. 190).

Farrell (2003, 2006) details a case study of how a first-year English language teacher in Singapore balanced a delicate, and sometimes conflicting, role between learning to teach and learning to become a teacher within an established school culture in Singapore. In the later study (Farrell 2006), he uses narrative and descriptive data from the earlier study (2003) to superimpose a *story structure framework*, that follows a pattern of setting – complication – resolution. The purpose of the framework was to impose some order on the experiences of the first-year teacher, and thus attempt to give them coherence so that they could be examined by the novice teacher in the study, other novice teachers, and language teacher educators. The analysis reveals that the novice teacher faced three main complications during his first year: his learner-centered approach to teaching (derived from his teacher-education program) versus the school's established teacher-centered approach, the conflict between the novice teacher's desired curriculum and the school's required curriculum, and various complications related to collegial relations.

Issues and Directions

The unknown of a new context of teaching (Brock and Grady 1997) and the challenges and anxieties that novice teachers face during their first year may lead to feelings of inadequacy or isolation if they are not addressed (Kuzmic 1993). Unfortunately, anecdotal evidence from teachers in their first years, and findings from the limited number of research studies that have been conducted suggest that these issues are not adequately addressed in language teacher education programs. It is pertinent, therefore, to ask how second language teacher education programs could more effectively prepare novice teachers for the challenges they may face in first-year teaching.

Two approaches can be suggested: the introduction of specific courses dedicated to first-year teaching and the development of school-teacher educator partnerships.

The first approach addresses the issues of transition raised above by making direct linkages to teaching in the first year in teacher preparation courses. Although some language

teacher educators may well include such references in their individual courses, currently there seem to be few courses devoted explicitly to this area. An alternative to this current hit-or-miss approach would be the addition of a course, perhaps entitled Teaching in the First Year, which deals directly with the experiences, challenges, and needs associated with novice teaching. As Farrell (2006) suggests, course content might include the development of skills in anticipatory reflection where novice teachers have opportunities to discuss and thus become more aware of what the transition from the teacher-education program to the real world of the classroom might mean. Specific activities could involve analysis of written case studies from different contexts (see Farrell 2008) that follow the story structure framework outlined in Farrell's (2006) study. Teachers in preparation could also be asked to create a profile of the school in which they intend to teach, discuss their teaching issues with the current teachers, and observe classes before they take up full-time employment. Where this is not possible, practicing language teachers could be invited as guest speakers to discuss and respond to questions of practice, or videos of classroom practice could be used for analysis of teaching approaches. Farrell (1999) suggests that language educators give preservice teachers reflective assignments that assist them to unlock and articulate prior beliefs about language learning and teaching, some of which may be the result of the "apprenticeship of observation" mentioned earlier. In this way, novice second language teachers can become more aware of the origins of their underlying beliefs and how they can influence the approaches to learning and teaching they adopt during their first year.

Research on novice teachers shows that most problems of classroom management result from limited procedural knowledge, knowledge of students, and differences between teacher and student expectations about learning (Richards and Pennington 1998; Farrell 2006). Thus, techniques for classroom management, including the maintenance of discipline, and how to deal with the needs of different types of students could also be addressed in a specific course.

The second approach involves building school-teacher educator partnerships. With a reduced teaching load, and the assistance of teacher educator mentors, novice second language teachers would have time to absorb and reflect on the various challenges they face during their first year as teachers. Consequently, it would be valuable for teacher-education programs and schools to collaborate on designing teacher-induction programs to support novice teachers during the transition from preservice education to first-year teaching. Monitoring their graduates' development during the first year(s) would also enable teacher educators to develop and share case studies of teaching experiences that could inform the curriculum of SLTE programs (see Graves, Chapter 11). School-appointed mentors and teacher educator mentors could work together to nurture the novice teacher and to ensure that learning to teach can be, as Johnson (1996) proposes, "less like 'hazing' and more like professional development" (p. 48). Establishing school-teacher education partnerships is important, because developing an effective knowledge base for language teacher education requires teacher educators to have an adequate understanding of schools and schooling and the social and cultural contexts in which learning how to teach takes place (Freeman and Johnson 1998; see also Franson and Holliday, Chapter 4). As Freeman and Johnson (1998) have pointed out:

> Studying, understanding, and learning how to negotiate the dynamics of these powerful environments, in which some actions and ways of being are valued and encouraged whereas others are downplayed, ignored, and even silenced, is critical to constructing effective teacher education. (p. 409)

Finally, although it is difficult for preservice second language teacher-education programs to create an environment that equates with the reality of full-time teaching, language educators

can better prepare novice teachers for the transition from preservice to first-year teaching by seeking answers to the following important questions:

- What aspects of the teacher-preparation program do first-year language teachers implement and what do they ignore or abandon and why?
- What aspects of language teaching specifically related to novice teachers' subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge should be emphasized in language teacher education programs from the evidence reported from first-year teacher studies?
- What can best be learned through structured induction support during the first year, and how can teacher-preparation programs become more involved in the design and implementation of such induction programs?

Conclusion

The central point in this chapter has been the challenges and changes novice teachers experience in their first year that are directly related to the transition from teacher-education programs and their socialization into new teaching contexts. Suggestions were made about how these challenges could be addressed through the introduction of courses enabling novice teaching to reflect on this transition and the establishment of school-teacher educator partnerships. Documentation of first-year teaching experiences either by novice teachers themselves or by teacher educators and mentors would provide case studies that would add greatly to the current stock of knowledge in SLTE in order to more effectively educate future second language teachers.

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CHAPTER 19

Teaching Expertise: Approaches, Perspectives, and Characterizations

Amy B. M. Tsui

INTRODUCTION

Since the 1980s, there have been a growing number of studies on expertise in teaching. These studies, inspired by investigations of expertise in other domains, have been motivated by the need to understand the special form of knowledge held by teachers as well as the need to demonstrate that experts in teaching possess skills and knowledge that are as complex and sophisticated as experts in other professions (Berliner 1994).

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS OF TEACHING EXPERTISE

This chapter outlines the approaches and perspectives adopted in studies of teaching expertise and the corresponding characterizations produced. In addition, it explores the possible reasons for the apparently conflicting images of expert teachers presented and the significance of research on teaching expertise for the education and professionalization of teachers. As teaching expertise is a relatively new area in the field of TESOL, this review covers studies on teaching expertise in other subject disciplines that have been drawn on.

Studying expertise in a specific domain necessarily involves investigations of the ways of knowing, acting, and being of experts in that domain. There are as yet no established common criteria for identifying expert teachers. This is not only because teaching is situated and, therefore, it would be difficult to have a set of objective criteria that can be applied across all contexts (Leinhardt 1990; Turner-Bisset 2001). It is also because there may be certain dimensions of excellence in teaching that are culture-specific (Ferrari 2002; Mieg 2001). As pointed out in Tsui (2005), in the Japanese culture, close interpersonal relationships (referred to as *kizuna* or *kakawari*) are considered a prerequisite for teaching and learning. Developing *kizuna* with students is more important than developing teaching competence (Shimahara and Sakai 1995). In the Chinese culture, *master teachers* (a term used for expert teachers) must possess two qualities: commitment to students and commitment

to the subject of teaching. Although commitment to students is common to all cultures, commitment to subject of teaching is probably distinctively Chinese. It embraces both a cognitive dimension, which entails a profound knowledge of the subject matter (Ma 1999), and an affective dimension, which entails a genuine interest in the subject matter (see also Tsui and Wong, in press). In many Asian cultures, expert teachers are those who can maintain discipline in the classroom; noisy classrooms are signs of incompetence. The study of cultural differences in teaching expertise, however, is still largely virgin soil in the teacher-education literature.

For the previously listed reasons, various criteria have been used to identify expert teachers. The most commonly adopted criterion is the number of years of teaching experience; recommendations from principals or school district boards, usually in conjunction with awards given at state or national levels (Turner-Bisset 2001); peers and students (Sanchez, Rosales, and Canedo 1999); and students' achievement scores, which has become increasingly important because of the emphasis on accountability and outcome-based learning by governments and funding bodies (see Katz and Snow, Chapter 7). Each of these criteria on its own is problematic. For example, experience does not entail expertise, as a number of researchers have pointed out (for example, Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993); the assumption that there is a linear causal relationship between teaching performance and student's performance in examinations ignores the mediating role of the assessment tools. Therefore, most studies have tried to overcome these potential problems by using a combination of the above criteria. For example, in Tsui (2003), the expert teacher was identified by the author's own observations of the expert teacher's teaching in conjunction with the latter's achievement scores in professional education courses, comments from her course tutors, her school principal, peers, and students.

Overview

EXPERTISE IN TEACHING – APPROACHES AND PERSPECTIVES

Following studies of experts in other domains, such as chess playing and problem solving in physics, much of the early work on teaching expertise took the form of novice–expert comparisons. (For a comprehensive overview of studies of expertise, see Tsui, 2003; see also Johnson, 2005.) Adopting an information-processing approach, these studies examined teachers' cognitive processes in pedagogical decision making. A number of studies were conducted in quasi-laboratory conditions in which teachers were asked to respond to video recordings of authentic classroom teaching or to perform simulated pedagogical tasks (Carter, Cushing, Sabers, Stein, and Berliner 1988). These studies suggested that compared to novice teachers, expert teachers were better able to respond to pedagogical situations or problems in a principled manner because they had a highly organized and coherently structured knowledge base, which was easily retrievable, and they had better self-monitoring and metacognitive skills. More recent studies of teacher expertise, however, have adopted a sociocultural approach in which teacher knowledge has been conceived as situated, and teachers have been studied as "the whole person in action, acting with the settings of that activity" (Lave 1988: 17). Naturalistic studies have been conducted that examine novice and expert teachers' pedagogical acts as well as their reflections and narratives on teaching (Leinhardt 1989; Smith and Strahan 2004; Turner-Bisset 2001. (For a brief overview of the major research methodologies adopted, see Johnson 2005).

The above investigations, irrespective of their approach, have studied expertise as a *state* reached after years of experience and the characteristics associated with it. Another strand of research, also adopting a view of teaching as situated and expert knowledge as constituted by

teachers' participation in practice, however, sees that expertise is a *process* rather than a state (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993) and have investigated teachers' development of expertise over time (Bullough and Baughman 1995, 1997; Tsui 2003). The different perceptions of expertise as a state and as a process have yielded different characterizations of teaching expertise (see Tsui 2005, for a more elaborate discussion).

CHARACTERIZATIONS OF TEACHING EXPERTISE: EXPERTISE AS A STATE

Earlier studies of teaching expertise largely took the form of comparing expert and novice teachers. Most of them adopted an information-processing model of the mind and investigated teachers' cognitive processes in the interactive and pre- and postactive phases of classroom teaching (Clark and Peterson 1986). These studies drew heavily on studies of expertise in other domains, mostly the work of Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986), which has given so far the most comprehensive account of the characteristics of the different stages of expertise. The findings resonated with those proposed by Dreyfus and Dreyfus and the following characteristics have been identified in the preactive (that is, planning) phase of teaching. First, expert teachers are able to *exercise autonomy in decision making* whereas novice teachers tend to follow procedures, rules, and curriculum guidelines with little regard to the specific context in which they operate. Expert teachers are also more ready to take responsibility for their decisions (Borko and Livingston 1989). Second, expert teachers respond *flexibly* to contextual variations such as student responses, disruptions, and available resources. They are able to anticipate difficulties, and they have contingency plans to deal with them. Novice teachers, by contrast, are much less able to anticipate problems, and they are much less flexible (Borko and Livingston 1989). Third, expert teachers are more *efficient* in lesson planning, and their lessons plans are usually brief. Yet, their planning thoughts are very rich, and they often rehearse their lessons mentally and reflect not only on what happened in similar lessons in the past but also on how they could improve them. They typically make longer-term plans on instructional objectives and content (Sadro-Brown 1990). By contrast, novice teachers spend a great deal of time preparing lessons, and their lesson plans are much more elaborate and detailed. Because of this, they have little spare capacity to do longer-term planning (Borko and Livingston 1989; Kagan and Tippins 1992). Finally, expert teachers' planning thoughts show a much more *integrated knowledge base* (see Johnson, Chapter 2). They are able to relate their lessons to the entire curriculum and to other curricula and to establish *coherence* between lessons. Novice teachers, by contrast, see individual lessons as discrete units rather than as units in an organized curriculum. Expert teachers are able to draw on a wider range of knowledge domains. In particular, they have a profound knowledge of their students not only as groups but also as individuals, including their prior learning and their learning difficulties, and they have corresponding strategies to deal with them (Calderhead 1996). They always start their lesson planning with their knowledge of the students. Novice teachers, however, tend to focus on what they want to do as a teacher and give relatively little attention to how students will respond to their teaching. Similarly, in the postactive phase, novice teachers tend to reflect on their own performance whereas expert teachers tend to focus on what students have learned and what they can do to enhance student learning (Huberman 1993).

During the interactive phase of teaching, the characteristics that distinguish expert from novice teachers pertain to the complexities of classroom teaching, which are typified by multidimensionality, simultaneity, immediacy, and unpredictability of classroom events (Jackson 1968). First, like master chess players and expert radiologists, expert teachers are able to *recognize patterns in classroom events* very quickly, and they are able to interpret these patterns in *meaningful ways* because of the hundreds of hours that they have

spent in the classroom (Berliner 1986). Novice teachers, on the other hand, tend to be overwhelmed by the multiple simultaneous events and they are unable to interpret them in relation to each other (Carter et al. 1988). Second, expert teachers are more *selective* about what they attend to in the classroom. They are able to identify information that is critical to pedagogical decisions and relevant to learning objectives. They can also distinguish between events that must be attended from those that can be dealt with later to avoid derailing the lesson. Novice teachers, however, attend more to classroom events that are related to disciplinary problems and less to those that are related to learning objectives (Sabers, Cushing, and Berliner 1991). Third, expert teachers have better *improvisational skills*: They have established a repertoire of routines that they can draw on in response to unpredicted events, and they can generate examples, illustrations, and explanations with *automaticity and effortlessness*. By contrast, novice teachers have difficulty responding to students' questions without losing track of the general direction of the lesson. Their coping strategy is to ignore the students' needs and focus on the task that they have at hand (Westerman 1991). Fourth, expert teachers are able to interpret classroom events, provide a deeper analysis of problems, and justify their practices in a *principled manner*. By contrast, novice teachers are not able to justify their actions or their comments (Kagan and Tippins 1992).

Besides the studies reviewed previously, there are a relatively smaller number of studies that focused on the knowledge of expert and novice teachers. They have been inspired by the work of Shulman (1986), who points out that there is a missing paradigm in the research on teacher knowledge, that is, how teachers effectively represent subject matter to students. He refers to this kind of knowledge as pedagogical content knowledge, which is grounded in a deep understanding of subject matter. Motivated by Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge, a number of studies have compared the knowledge of expert and novice teachers across different subject disciplines. These studies have found that expert teachers not only have a comprehensive overview of the curriculum but are also aware of the different ways of structuring the curriculum and their advantages and disadvantages. They have a good grasp of the critical points in content learning and are skilled in representing subject matter in multiple ways to facilitate student understanding. Their explanations of content are clear and well structured. By contrast, novice teachers do not have a coherent overview of the curriculum, and their lessons are often fragmented with ambiguous pedagogical goals. Their explanations are usually not well connected and often contain mistakes that cause conceptual confusion to students (Gudmundsdottir and Shulman 1989; Leinhardt 1989). These findings have been reaffirmed in a more recent study by Turner-Bisset (2001), which found that the expert teachers' teaching act is underpinned by the use of the fullest form of pedagogical content knowledge.

In the TESOL teacher-education literature, although not much has been done on *expertise* in ESL / EFL teaching as such, a number of studies have examined the cognition and practices of experienced teachers (Breen et al. 2001; Woods 1996; see also Borg, Chapter 16) through investigating their classroom decision making and their personal practical knowledge (see Golombek, Chapter 15). Many of the characteristics of experienced teachers identified in these studies were similar to those found in expert teachers of other subjects. For example, Nunan (1992) found that experienced ESL teachers focused more on language, that is, subject matter, than novice teachers who paid more attention to classroom management. Richards (1998) found that experienced teachers were better able to respond to students' needs and improvise than novice teachers. Richards, Li, and Tang (1998) identified the characteristics of experienced ESL teachers as having a deeper understanding of subject-matter knowledge, being able to present subject-matter knowledge more appropriately and from the students' perspective and to integrate language learning with other curricular goals.

CHARACTERIZATIONS OF TEACHING EXPERTISE: EXPERTISE AS A PROCESS

The study of expertise through expert-novice comparisons has been criticized for not being able to accurately reflect teachers' work. Among these critiques is the insightful work of Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993), which also draws on studies of expertise in a number of domains and professions. They question the characterization of experts as efficient, effortless, and automatic. In their study of novice and expert writers, the latter were found to be much more hard-working than the former and they produced much higher quality writings. Similarly, Wineburg (1991) found that novice historians were quicker in making historical interpretations whereas expert historians were much more cautious in making interpretations, and they labored over the conclusions that they drew. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) point out that some of the characteristics of expertise outlined in the literature in fact result from experience, for example, the use of routines in practice, which enables experts to perform with automaticity and effortlessness. They argue that one of the critical differences between experts and novices is their willingness to reinvest the resources freed up by the use of routines to tackle more advanced problems and to problematize what appears to be the unproblematic and routine. Another critical difference is the kinds of problems that experts and novices solve and the way they choose to solve them. Experts typically "work at the edge of their competence" (Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993: 34) and solve problems at a deeper level. By contrast, experienced nonexperts rely more and more on routines as they become more experienced and they solve problems at a superficial level. By doing this, they minimize opportunities for developing expertise. Bereiter and Scardamalia identify these two characteristics as "reinvesting mental resources" (p. 94) and "progressive problem solving" (p. 96), which are two aspects of the same continuous developmental process.

Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1993) work provides a new perspective on expertise, which has led to a much more profound understanding of what expertise is about. As far as the author is aware, there are two major studies that have adopted this perspective: Bullough and Baughman (1995, 1997) and Tsui (2003). The former is a longitudinal study of a teacher who became recognized as an expert teacher after five years. The second one is case studies of the developmental paths of four teachers in the same school, three being experienced teachers and one being a novice teacher. The study focused on why one of them became an expert teacher whereas two remained experienced nonexperts. The characteristics of expertise that emerged from these two studies include the following: First, the continuous renewal of teacher knowledge through the interaction between theoretical knowledge and teachers' personal practical knowledge is crucial. Second, the capability to transcend contextual constraints, to perceive situated pedagogical possibilities and exploit them for student learning is another distinguishing characteristic. Third, in line with Bereiter and Scardamalia's observation, the capability and propensity to problematize what appears to be unproblematic and to tackle problems at a deeper level is characteristic of the expert teachers. Fourth, the ability of the expert teachers to reinvest their mental resources to tackle problems that require them to work at the edge of competence or to push their boundaries enable them to develop skills in new areas, thereby increasing their expertise as teachers (see Tsui 2005, for a more detailed discussion of these two studies).

ISSUES AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

CONFLICTING IMAGES OF EXPERTISE IN TEACHING

We can see from the previous discussion that different perspectives on expertise have produced conflicting images of expertise in teaching. As teachers and teacher educators,

we probably find the characteristics identified by both perspectives instantiated in the expert teachers we have come across. Sternberg and Hovrath (1995) have tried to reconcile these conflicts by proposing a prototype view of expert teaching in which they outlined clusters of features under three critical differences between novice and expert teachers: first, rich, integrated, and organized knowledge base; second, availability of routines that enable them to devote their energy to higher level tasks; and third, ability to integrate information effectively in order to solve problems in novel ways. The features belonging to each cluster vary according to different contexts and cultures. This prototype has been used for establishing professional standards for certification and has been adopted to study expert teachers (Smith and Strahan 2004). Tsui (2003), however, suggests that the conflicting images of expertise could be due to the characterization of expertise as *a state of expert performance* as opposed to *a process that mediates superior performance*. The former is a state reached after thousands of hours of practice whereas the latter is a process of hard work, constant reflection, and setting higher and higher goals to extend one's level of competence. As Ericsson's study (2002) of competitive sports and musical performance shows, it is the resistance to automaticity and continuous learning that distinguish the expert from the nonexpert.

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the study of expertise in teaching has been motivated by the professionalization of teachers. We need to demonstrate that expert teachers, like other expert professionals, possess sophisticated knowledge and skills, and we need to set standards for the teaching profession. For teacher-education purposes, understanding the processes that facilitate the development of expertise in teaching helps teacher educators and mentors to ensure that teachers are adequately challenged and supported so that more teachers will become experts rather than experienced nonexperts.

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SECTION 5

CONTEXTS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

A recurring theme in many of the papers in this collection is the role of context in teacher learning. Current views of teacher learning emphasize learning as situated social practice, which includes mediation, discourse, social interaction, and participation structures within specific teaching-learning contexts. The papers in this section survey different contexts for teacher learning – the course room, the school, distance learning, and technology-mediated learning.

In the first discussion (Chapter 20), Singh and Richards focus on the language teacher education course room as a learning context. Drawing broadly on sociocultural perspectives of Lave and Wenger and Vygotskian models of sociocognitive apprenticeship, it considers how to design the course room as a learning environment. It presents the case for the course room as a community of practice where teachers learn through engaging in activities and discourses, mediated through cultural artifacts. A community of practice is also shaped by larger systems of power, which are reproduced in the microcontext of the course room. Teacher learning is a site of struggle over activities, discourses, tools, and identity because of its situated nature within institutional, historical, and cultural contexts. A revised role for teacher educators in shaping an emerging course room culture is presented, acknowledging the realities of power and ideology that influence the daily practices in the course room.

Legutke and Schocker-v. Ditfurth, in Chapter 21, examine school-based experience as a learning context and argue that, since for many teachers the school is the setting for their professional lives, school experience should be a strong focus in designing SLTE programs. They propose three principles for designing a teacher-education program that gives the school experience a central role. One is to develop a research approach to learning, incorporating a multiperspective view of the second language classroom. The second is

to employ experiential learning, developing action-oriented models for second language classrooms. The third involves experimental learning, developing context-related competencies through cooperation in cross-institutional projects. They give examples throughout to illustrate how these principles can be applied in SLTE programs.

Chaper 22, by Hall and Knox, examines distance learning as a context for teacher learning. Distance learning is defined as learning where there is no or little requirement for students to physically attend the institution providing the course. Although they report that this is an underresearched and underreported field in SLTE, issues they identify that distance learning raises include the ways in which technology mediates learning and teaching, the nature of online discourse and its impact on identity construction, the nature of online learning communities and the types of interaction and learning they can facilitate, and the role of materials and teaching resources.

In the last chapter (Chapter 23), Reinders examines the role of technology in SLTE, first examining the extent to which technology should and can feature in SLTE programs and the extent to which teacher education processes can be technology-driven contexts. He then turns to the question of how technology courses can be taught in an SLTE program and considers the different options available. He reminds us that there is rapidly expanding access to technology worldwide as well as considerable sophistication in knowledge of its use on the part of second language learners. As blended learning becomes more commonplace in language classes around the world, so teacher educators need to face the challenges and opportunities it creates in the design and delivery of SLTE programs.

CHAPTER 20

Teaching and Learning in the Course Room

Gurmit Singh and Jack C. Richards

Introduction

The focus of this chapter is twofold: What do we understand by "learning" in the context of postgraduate in-service courses in language teacher education (LTE), and what do we understand by "teaching"? Drawing broadly on the sociocultural perspectives of Lave and Wenger and Vygotskian models of cognitive apprenticeship, it considers how to design the course room as a learning environment.

Scope and Definitions

Lecturers on LTE courses spend much of their professional lives in *course rooms* (lecture theaters, classrooms, seminar rooms), seeking to provide a quality educational experience for their students (henceforth, *teacher-learners*) through a repertoire of course-room practices that include lectures, discussions, simulations, case studies, and so on. Whereas conversations about the content of LTE courses are common, discussions about LTE pedagogic practices in the course room are much less frequent. In general, LTE has been grounded in the dominant technical-rational discourse of teacher education, which maintains that language teaching expertise can be acquired through content-based courses followed by a practicum or school attachment. Focusing on designing courses however has ignored how human learning is emergent through social interaction, and where context and identity play crucial mediating roles (see Franson and Holliday, Chapter 4; Miller, Chapter 17). For LTE courses, this means understanding how teacher learning emerges in the life of the course room, which this chapter sets out to explore. From this perspective, the location – the course room – is contingent on teacher learning, as its life unfolds over time, as events and processes interact, and shape the way participants think, feel, and act.

Sociocultural theories of teacher learning center on the concept of learning as situated social practice, which includes mediation, discourse, and participation structures. However,

sociocultural theories need to be complemented by understanding learning as identity construction. Relating the microprocess of the course room to the larger macro context in which LTE is situated, we conceptualize teacher learning as the appropriation and resistance to skills and knowledge for the purpose of remaking identity.

Overview

We take as axiomatic that before learning, there must be engagement, which includes the atmosphere and the climate of course room life (Wright 2005). The course room is also viewed as a site for social participation structures that can enhance or inhibit learning opportunity. These include both the discourse and the activities of course room life, which affect how meaning is made and knowledge constructed (Wenger 1998, Hawkins 2004, Lantolf 2000). Learning in the course room is also tied to artifacts, identities, and the cultural space in which it is situated. An LTE course is more than the content, syllabus, and assignments teacher–learners produce.

These perspectives reconfigure the course room as a complex ecological site in which unfolding events and processes shape the way participants think, feel, and act. A teacher–learner has to navigate these multiple layers in order to be able to participate in course-room life, which is a precursor to learning. Central to understanding these processes of teacher learning are learning as situated social practice, induction to a community of practice, development of a new identity, acquiring a professional discourse, and developing a personal theory of pedagogy. Taken together, this can be represented diagrammatically as follows:

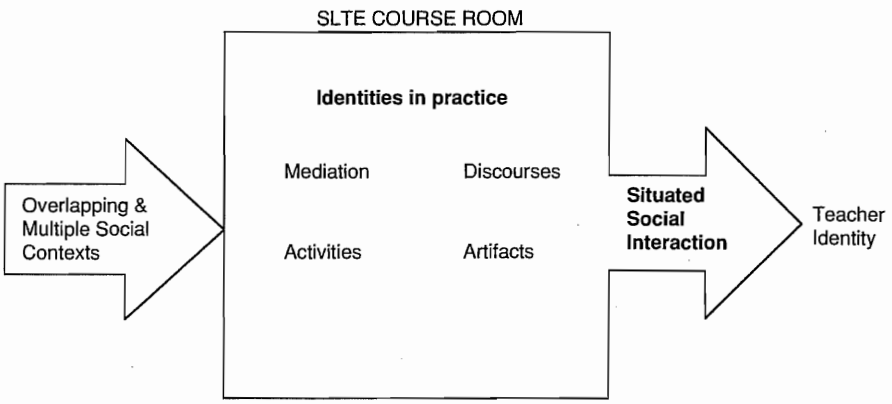


Figure 1 The course room as a community of practice

From a situated social perspective on learning, an LTE course can be conceptualized as an emerging "community of practice" (Lave and Wenger 1991). This shifts the focus to people jointly engaged in a mutual enterprise, with a shared repertoire of actions, discourses, and tools (Wenger 1998). While negotiation of meaning, knowledge, and understanding are core to all of these, communities of practice grant a primary place to the social activities being engaged in. Knowledge is distributed across the community and not possessed individually. In the course room participants are encouraged to try out new identities, for example as mentor, action researcher, or curriculum developer. Working collaboratively with peers creates social relationships in the course room, both formal and informal, that condition participants' relative success in learning.

Teacher learning on LTE courses involves not only discovering more about the skills and knowledge of language teaching but also what it means to be a language teacher. The difficulty or impossibility of changing teachers' practices through INSET courses has been noted (Bailey 1992; Lamb 1995), and is often described in terms of resistance to change (Hayes 1995, 2000). Issues such as teachers' internal motivations and emotional attitudes to change, as well as the contextual conditions for change, make the processes of initiating and sustaining change difficult to capture, track, and analyze. However what is often missing from this literature is an acknowledgment of the internal struggles and dilemmas teachers are confronted with when challenged to take on new practices, which may require the teacher to assume new identities and a changed mind-set. There is thus an intricate relation between teacher identity and teacher knowledge. In a course room, teacher-learners negotiate their identity through the unfolding social interaction of a particular situated community in relation to its specific activities and relationships, as is highlighted by Miller (Chapter 17).

In LTE courses, learning to teach can pose special struggles for nonnative-speaking teacher-learners (NNSTL), particularly when they are in the same learning community as native-speaker teacher–learners. These struggles include the feeling that the NNSTLs may have a sense of inadequate language knowledge (Johnson 2001; see also Kamhi-Stein, Chapter 9), language competence that may impede participation in group-based collaborative learning favored by the course lecturer, and the clash of cultures of learning. Such factors may hinder them from taking on the dispositions needed to participate as active learners in the LTE course room. Teacher–learners from traditional cultures of learning may have long, prior experiences of passive learning, of not seeing themselves as "educated," thereby perpetuating their sense of dependency on Western experts. Their embodied sense of intellectual dependency created through previous hierarchical learning experiences frequently make them uncomfortable with the work attempted by trainers to promote active learning. In such cases, the emerging community of practice in the course room may reproduce top-down, didactic practices despite a trainer's best efforts.

The process of acquiring a new set of discourses (see Hedgcock, Chapter 14) and becoming a member of new, wider professional communities is hence inherently conflictual. This is because the LTE course room is not a neutral location, but a complex small culture (Holliday 1999), with overlapping personal agendas and course agendas, which include teacher–learners' own perceptions of how to learn, based on their "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie 1975), teacher–learners personal agendas, course aim and agendas, trainers own beliefs about learning, knowledge, assessment, or their roles, as well as institutional, country, professional-academic, and course-specific cultures. However, although sociocultural theories about communities of practice focus on their social interactions and activities, they fail to connect to larger systems of power in which the community is nested. Taken together, the micro and the macro focus make the everyday processes of teacher learning both situated in discourse communities and shaped by power relations, which are reproduced and contested in the course room.

The identity of teacher–learners is thus tied to the social practice in the cultural world of the LTE course room. While teacher–learners may initially enter this world at a marginal position, they acquire the agency to challenge this negative social position through interacting with cultural and social artifacts. The ethnographic work of Singh (2004) on Chinese teachers on a British INSET course shows how the social construction of identity in the LTE course room offers an opportunity for teacher change, albeit one person at a time. As teachers adopt the cultural artifacts of a world that is new but gradually becomes their home, and then rehearse them in a community of practice, they develop a sense of agency as the practice becomes meaningful.

The LTE course room is also a site that develops its own discourse. Acquiring this discourse is essential for effective participation in the course room. By Discourse (Gee

1996) we include acquiring the dominant discourse of TESOL (e.g., learner-centeredness, learner autonomy, authenticity, genuine language, accountable learning, and some version of communicative methodology and the four skills); ways of acting and interacting, acquiring the appropriate cultural practices in the course room, and enacting the identity of a teacher–learner. Multiple discourses have to be navigated by the learner.

In teacher-education research, there are many theories of the nature of teacher knowledge and the part in-service courses play in developing it. Instead of viewing teacher education as transmitting theories and practices from one context to another, we regard LTE as aligning a teacher's theory of pedagogy with the curriculum goals for students' learning. In the course room, teachers construct this theory from questioning assumptions about language and learning, through action research and reflection in a professional community of learners (Cochran-Smith 2000; see also Burns, Chapter 29 and Burton, Chapter 30). Teachers develop their own theory by exploring classrooms and language (language awareness) through the cultural artifacts and social practices in the course room. Further, they are not simply seen as passive absorbers of such issues as functional knowledge about syntax, stylistics, and semantics, but are actively engaged in developing their own understanding of grammar through inductive study by looking at corpuses of authentic textual data. Lecturers can model and demonstrate how to make students aware of the discourse features of a newspaper article, a business report, an advertisement, and also sensitivity to issues of power, gender, and linguistic imperialism (Hedgcock 2002; Philipson 1992). To counter teacher passivity and dependency, LTE courses must engage notions of what a "language teacher" looks like and elaborate the discourses and practices of such an imagined identity and world.

Current Approaches and Practices

Given the view of learning from the critical sociocultural perspective outlined previously, the role of the teacher educator is to manage the life on the course room as a space where learning is possible and sustained. The aim is to scaffold opportunities for learning, rather than transmitting preset theories. Central to this role are modeling good instructional practice, dialogically organizing instruction, encouraging participation in multiple discourses, and setting up collaborative learning.

A challenge for anyone teaching LTE courses is how well the trainers' and the course's instructional practices model the kinds of learning opportunities and dispositions that teachers are encouraged to create in their own classrooms. Hedgcock (2002) discusses a technique for using assigned readings in an LTE course in which tasks model the same reading strategies which teachers are expected to develop in their own students. Johnston (2000) describes a self-study project in which he examined dialogic features of his teaching in an MATESL methods course as he sought to implement a student-centered nontransmission approach to teaching. Data sources on his teaching included a teaching journal, audio recordings of class sessions, teacher–learners' journals and assignments, and other classroom data. Through investigating his own teaching, he sought to demonstrate a professional development activity to his teacher–learners.

Many teacher–learners report that one of the most obvious benefits of attending an LTE course is not what the instructors say, but conversations and networking with other teachers. Dialogic teaching (Alexander 2004) is at the heart of a teacher's repertoire in the twenty-first century. Danielewicz (2001: 146) describes her use of letter writing as a dialogic activity. Teacher–learners write letters both to their peers and to their teacher, "focusing on issues and ideas related to teaching, drawn from the readings, discussions, and experiences in the course." However, dialogic teaching can create a dilemma for teacher–learners who come

from cultures where a transmission-oriented mode of teaching is the norm and where the lecturer is expected to lecture and the students to listen and recite (see Johnston 2000; see also Johnson, Chapter 2). Dialogic modes of teaching thus raise issues of identity, power, and agency.

A critical sociocultural view sees learning as the remaking of identity in a particular space, through the mediation of new discourses, and knowledge as the ability to use-in-practice (Hawkins 2004: 89). During LTE course-room interaction, teacher–learner roles are largely shaped, if not assigned, by the roles the lecturer assumes through setting up activities, the questions asked, and the responses to learner answers, tests, and assignments. If teacher–learners are not to be merely passive empty vessels into which knowledge is poured, then they need to be able to shape the course of the talk. When they assert their agency, they remake their identity as they compete for access and control of the course room. Dialogic discourse is less predictable because it is negotiated, but all the more invaluable for teacher–learners. As Danielwicz (2001: 168) argues, the course room should be a site where teacher–learners create and experience different representations of themselves. Changing the talk, as well as the physical arrangements of people and spaces within the course room, helps redefine teacher and student roles.

The discourses a teacher–learner participates in within the course room are diverse: as an experienced teacher, teacher–learner, group member, peer, researcher, and a unique individual (Hawkins 2004). The language and behavior participants exhibit, for instance, toward lecturers and their peers in the course sessions are very different.

Wenger (1998) has written about how successful members "take on" the practices of a community of practice in their everyday life. But what he left out was how there is also a discourse attendant to participation in communities, as Gee (1996) points out. If we think of teachers as "taking hold" of theories of language and education and also as acquiring pedagogical repertories, then LTE needs to be constituted accordingly. That is, rather than "teaching knowledge, skills and awareness" for transfer to classrooms in schools located in other countries, it is the behavior, attitudes, tools, and ways of engaging that participants will need to successfully demonstrate at the end of the course. These can be learned through their apprenticeship into an identity of a successful member of a course community of practice.

Taking a Vygotskian approach, Johnson and Golombek (2003: 730) have defined teacher learning to be "cognitive development," that is, a "socially mediated activity." Key concepts here are the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and mediation. These two constructs present a view of learning as a process of "apprenticeship," where apprentices collaborate in social practices with teacher educators as well as mentors (see Malderez, Chapter 26), critical friends, and peers to acquire and construct new forms of interaction and thinking (Vygotsky 1978). Crucial to the process is the role of mediating artifacts in constructing new meanings. In the LTE course room, these include handouts, worksheets, technology, video, as well as the physical course-room layout (Singh 2004). For example, the course might make use of videoed lesson segments or lesson transcripts to raise awareness of issues such as action zones, group dynamics, turn-taking, corrective feedback, teacher's role, and so on. When discussing a new concept such as focus-on-form, through a video analysis participants think about what they see, then share and discuss it with colleagues. Through such discussions teacher–learners reveal their implicit understandings of the importance of grammar, acquisition versus learning, focus-on-form, and so on.

An important decision has to do with how much collaboration versus how much individual work and how much trainer-led teaching will constitute the course (Johnston 1994). The balance will take different forms with different groups and with different content.

Again, we cannot assume that more collaboration, more inductive "discovery"-based instruction will lead to "more" learning as compared to lecturing and telling. We need to

realize that whatever the chosen form of instruction, the course room is a contested domain, mirroring the tensions and complexities of society. Part of the learning process is the conflicts and bargaining teacher educators and teacher–learners engage in to enable learning to take place. For example, some teacher–learners from a traditional culture of learning may overtly accommodate collaborative, active learning tasks while covertly opposing them. They may feel that they do not have the competence to do what is asked of them, and it may take time for them to negotiate the rules and practices of a new community of practice.

Issues and Directions

Hawkins (2004: 6) poses the challenge that faces teacher educators in view of the shifts in beliefs about learning and teaching in the TESOL field. It means:

> A change not only in the content of what teachers learn through teacher education, but also in the process. For teacher educators, it becomes crucial to engage in critical, reflective practices as well, and to envision their work as creating learning communities within which they also participate as teachers and collaboratively negotiate new understandings of their profession and practices. Teacher educators, too, must establish new practices and take on new roles.

In this chapter, we offered a nuanced reappraisal of teaching and learning in LTE, tying it closely to the space and practices of the course room world we live in, and where we develop our sense of self. Previous studies have situated LTE in the sociocultural framework that includes concepts such as apprenticeship, mediation, and modeling. A lot has also been written about how to foster a more inquiry-oriented developmental approach, and which tools and activities can do so. The concept of teacher-identity construction both expands the sociocultural model and augments our understanding of situated social practices. We argue that teacher identity is formed in relation to, and teacher learning embedded in, socially organized and complex ecological spheres of activity in the course room. Teacher learning is about how teacher–learners, as social actors, learn the meanings of certain practices and reposition themselves socially through the use of artifacts, and with the assistance of experts, thus creating a community of practice.

If an LTE course in a course room is to work – to have its life survive and prosper to result in any transferable impact – we need to understand not only the individual components but the ways in which the patterns and the ebb and flow of contacts and engagement result from and contribute to the whole. To achieve the objective of guiding EFL / ESL teachers into becoming critical language professionals in a "TESOL learning community" through in-service courses requires more research on the conditions for supportive dialogic learning in the course room, recognizing the struggle teacher–learners encounter as well as the systems of power in which meaning making takes place on a daily basis. Managing an ecology of learning, its interactions and activities, and the related epistemologies to create a rich space conducive for teacher learning and identity construction is the challenge for LTE lecturers and course designers.

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CHAPTER 21

School-Based Experience

Michael K. Legutke and Marita Schocker-v. Ditfurth

INTRODUCTION

Among the disciplinary challenges of L2 teacher education programs at the undergraduate and graduate level, few seem more difficult to meet than the systematic integration of school-based experience. Although it has received continued attention since the 1990s, and although it is claimed to be an integral part of many programs, current practice often lacks consistent and convincing models; school-based experience not only appears to be incompatible with academic curricula, but also seems difficult to implement in view of institutional constraints and cross-institutional incompatibility. The notion of the importance of school-based experience is grounded in a growing awareness that although the core components of traditional teacher education programs (such as literary and cultural studies, applied linguistics, research in second language acquisition, and teaching methodology) contribute to the knowledge base for teaching, they must not be confused with the activity of language teaching itself (Freeman 1989; Freeman and Johnson 1989). As a consequence, any academic subject matter in applied linguistics and language learning pedagogy has to be understood "against the backdrop of teachers' professional lives, within the settings where they work, and under the circumstances of that work" (Freeman and Johnson 1989: 405). This is why school-based experience must be an integral part of teacher education.

In this chapter, referring to relevant research, we will briefly discuss the rationale behind this assumption and elaborate on three design principles for teacher education, which have emerged from a continuous critique of established practice. An illustration of different ways of integrating school-based experiences into teacher education programs will conclude the chapter.

Scope and Definitions

Rationale for Integrating School-Based Experience

Focus on the Person Who Teaches

Various learning-to-teach studies have demonstrated that student-teachers begin their education with images of teaching that they have acquired during their own (language) learning experience as students (Appel 2000; Kagan 1992; Johnson 1994; Kennedy and Kennedy 1996; Kennedy 1998). Lortie (1975) has termed this process "the apprenticeship of observation." This apprenticeship shapes both student-teachers' views on what they consider to be appropriate teaching and their disposition to act in the classroom (see Farrell, Chapter 18) with no regard to whatever they may have learned from studying the relevant disciplinary knowledge. Unless student-teachers encounter practice situations that allow them to experience convincing alternative practices and experiment with new ideas, these imprints are very resistant to change (see results in Schocker-v. Ditfurth 2001; Kennedy 1997, 1998). The same is true for practicing teachers who may find readings on new approaches to teaching persuasive, with regard to their theoretical rationale, but not credible because they cannot imagine how to put them into practice. This is why Fullan (1993) is right in assuming that the "main reason for the failure of teacher education programs is that they are based on extremely vague conceptions. Having an ideology is not the same as having conceptions and ideas of what should be done and how it should be done" (1993: 109).

Humanistic approaches to teaching maintain that learning is facilitated through attitudinal qualities that foster a positive interpersonal relationship between the teacher and her students. These qualities have been described as emphatic understanding, valuing, realness, and autonomy (Rogers 1967; Underhill 1989). It is only by "experiencing the other side" that student-teachers become aware of how their personalities affect the learning of their students. Therefore, teacher education needs to focus on the relationship between the teacher, the learning environments she creates, and how this affects her students' learning.

Focus on the Activity of Teaching

Since Schön's publication on the nature of professional action in dynamic situations of practice (Schön 1983), we have become aware that teachers have to cope with situations of uncertainty, complexity, uniqueness, instability, and value conflict. Candlin is therefore correct when he says that constructing the communicative classroom means "working out the relationships among the participating persons and their positions and identities, their stance towards topics, processes, roles, values and ideologies which (. . . are) to be negotiated through a process of constant, creative, and useful exploratory struggle" (2003: 41). Teachers need to become aware of the multiplicity of factors that create the conditions of learning. This is yet another reason why teacher education needs to focus on the activity of teaching and on the contexts in which it is done. Classrooms are not just backgrounds to teaching but define the very nature of teaching and learning (Breen 1985).

Focus on the Multitude of Perspectives that Inform the Quality of Learning

The interpretive paradigm of the sociocultural turn (see Freeman, Chapter 1) defines human learning as a dynamic social activity that is situated in the contexts within which teachers work (Johnson 2006). These contexts shape how and why teachers do what they do. Knowledge does not just develop by accumulating information, but is shared, negotiated and coconstructed through experience in the communities of practice in which the individual participates. Therefore, teacher education must create opportunities for future teachers to make sense of theories (on knowledge of pedagogical content, on language acquisition, on

language) in the contexts where they work, so that site-specific knowledge may develop in the process of reconsidering and reorganizing direct experience. Teacher education must provide opportunities to develop locally appropriate responses.

THREE PRINCIPLES FOR DESIGNING TEACHER-EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Drawing on international research in (second language) teacher education since the 1990s, scholars have repeatedly put forward a number of principle-based design features for programs that qualify professional development as self-directed, collaborative, inquiry-based, and directly relevant to teachers' classroom lives. Therefore, an approach to learning-to-teach that conceptualizes teachers as investigators seems appropriate (see Johnson 2006, for review and state of the art). In keeping with these demands, delineated from the results of learning-to-teach studies and from studies on how professionals develop, the scenarios we will discuss later, therefore, follow the three most salient principles.

1. **Research approach to learning: developing a multi-perspective view of the SL classroom:** In order to help student-teachers understand the complex dynamics that determine language learning in SL classrooms, they learn to develop a research approach to SL learning (see McKay, Chapter 28). In doing so, they learn to integrate the relevant perspectives that determine the quality of learning in a classroom. These perspectives include three domains of knowledge: relevant published knowledge, student-teachers' own perspectives on language learning, and the perspective of the practical context.
2. **Experiential learning: developing action-oriented models for SL classrooms:** Teacher development courses are organized in a way that allows student-teachers to experience the very processes that they are supposed to initiate with students in their future classrooms. The way learning is organized in these courses corresponds with the conditions for learning they are supposed to create in their future classrooms. For example, when a course explores the potential of project work for SL learning, the learning experience for student teachers is organized in a project format: They cooperate in teams, choose a research question, use various resources to do their research, discuss and publish the results of their projects, use the target language as their language of communication, and evaluate selected aspects of the process and the product of their cooperation according to mutually negotiated criteria (see also Burns, Chapter 29). In this way they experience the advantages and the drawbacks of cooperative learning, and they will gradually acquire the multiple skills needed to construct and manage complex SL learning environments themselves.
3. **Experimental learning: developing context-related competencies through cooperation in cross-institutional projects:** The tradition of language teaching at schools often follows a course-book-based routine sequence of presentation, practice, and production (PPP), which clashes with less controlled task-based and learning-centered approaches that student-teachers encounter in their courses. To be able to successfully implement innovations in classrooms requires student-teachers to develop dynamic qualifications, such as an appreciation of problems as starting points for development and learning, the ability to develop an experimental attitude to practice, and the ability to cope with controlled risks. Research has identified the ability to identify and define problems and then to tackle them as a characteristic of the expert teacher (Tsui 2003; see also Tsui, Chapter 19). In this way teacher preparation may contribute to overcoming the traditional separation of the institutions of school and university.

Current Approaches and Practices

Scenarios for the Integration of School-Based Experience

Although the learning-to-teach environments will differ considerably according to curricular parameters, local educational policies and, of course, according to learner target groups (ESL, EFL in the primary and secondary school, CLIL) the following two types of scenarios, which again need to be tailored to the local contexts, can be proposed. In each of them different forms of participation structure will help to foreground particular sites of teacher learning.

Type 1: Indirect Classroom-Based Learning

This type comprises mini-scenarios interspersed in all levels of the ongoing coursework (e.g., helping students to explore their preknowledge at the introductory level, as well as fostering multiperspective views in specialized graduate seminars, where students explore research-related issues). School-based experience is approached indirectly and may take the form of the following activities:

- **Researching documents from the classroom.** Built into the discursive practice of the course work, video- and audio-recorded sequences of classroom action in combination with lesson plans, teachers' accounts of work and learner texts can provide powerful stimuli for awareness raising and reflection (cf. Candlin's notion of retrospective syllabus accounts, Candlin 1984: 36).
- **Studying teachers' reports.** Closely related to the preceding activities are scenarios that focus on "critical incidents" in teachers' reports, bringing to the fore locally acquired insights and allowing for the development of a multiperspective view of the language classroom (Appel 1995; Bailey and Nunan 1996; Tedick 2005).
- **Exploring task-based learning experience.** Although teacher-education classrooms must not be confused with school L2 classrooms, they are, nevertheless, sites of learning. As such they provide a productive ground for the exploration of tasks that structurally resemble classroom learning tasks, as Bartels has shown in an extensive review of current research (Bartels 2007). Since student-teachers will use the knowledge gained from exploring these structurally similar processes, teacher-education programs need to be careful that at least some of their tasks and activities involve similar kinds of cognitive work and organization to those that are central to L2 teaching. Student-teachers learning to teach in the primary school might, for example, engage in storytelling activities that are linguistically challenging and appropriate for their peers, instead of retelling stories they might use with children. Or, student-teachers might collaboratively engage in searching the Internet for culturally relevant topics, selecting data, preparing a presentation, presenting their findings, and in dialogue evaluating the complete working process within their small group as well as with the teacher educator and the rest of the course. In both examples the experience is reflected with reference to possible applications to specific school contexts (Legutke and Thomas 1991: 259–285). A major challenge for teacher educators is, no doubt, the designing of a wide range of tasks that are appropriate for the academic course work while simultaneously allowing for the exploration of such structural similarity.
- **Experiencing teacher educators as teaching models.** Whereas in the previous scenario the students focus on learning tasks as part of their learning environment, activities in this scenario are concerned with observing and exploring

the teacher educator's professional behavior, including her presentation style and techniques, her management of content and tasks, her feedback, her use of negotiation and dialogue (cf. Johnston 2000). One of the key issues for investigation is the question of whether her teaching practice is compatible with and true to the principles of her theories on teaching and learning. This form of ongoing inquiry in the here-and-now of the university classroom may indeed offer a chance for students in which conceptions about teaching can be tied to concrete and possibly new "ideas of what should be done and how it should be done" (Fullan 1993: 109). The challenge of this scenario is obvious because it requires a teacher educator who is willing and able to engage with the students in the inquiry into how the (visible) practice and the theory interact at a particular site of learning.

- **Engaging in microteaching**. This scenario uses a well-established tool emphasising a "teach; review and reflect; re-teach approach" in which student teachers act as L2 school learners while each student takes his or her turn as teacher. Such scenarios run no longer than five to ten minutes and follow clear rules for giving and receiving feedback. They are embedded in a sequence of preparation and evaluation allowing for a discursive reflection on what and how the student-teacher has taught. Structured in this way, microteaching sessions raise student-teachers' awareness of knowing and doing, increase an emphatic understanding of students as learners, and teach observation and feedback skills (Allen and Ryan 1969; McIntyre, McLeod, and Griffiths 1977; Wabha 1999).

All the scenarios mentioned here need to be carefully integrated into academic course syllabi in order to develop their potential as learning experience that helps students to understand better the complex processes of classroom life. The scenarios of the first type reduce this complexity and therefore make it accessible for reflection. How this integration can be done both at the conceptual and the methodological level poses a major challenge and needs more detailed documentation and research.

TYPE 2: DIRECT CLASSROOM-BASED LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS

In contrast to the previous set of scenarios, where school-based experience is approached through the exploration of documents, the analysis of structurally similar tasks, teacher observation, and simulations, the following type provides for direct encounters in school environments:

The practicum as a core component

In our institutional contexts the practicum is the core component of teacher education (see Gebhard, Chapter 25). This, however, is not mainstream teacher-education practice, where more often than not the practicum is just an appendage that is otherwise unrelated to relevant course work on issues of SL teaching and learning. For us, the practicum is the major site of teacher learning where relevant aspects of L2 teaching (such as the design of materials and tasks or discourse analysis) may be experienced and be experimented with, where student-teachers become aware of their own capacity to construct and to make sense of the processes their working-plans trigger, and/or where courses derive ideas for relevant content to be dealt with from the experience of the practicum (Schocker-v. Ditfurth 2001). Teacher learning in the practicum is organized in three steps. In a first sequence of task-driven activities, student-teachers are introduced to fundamental concepts and issues of SL learning from published knowledge. These are connected to student-teachers' own learning experience in school and other quasi-pedagogical contexts, which allow them to explore the effects of their particular "apprenticeship of observation." Second,

student-teachers explore some of these key concepts and issues through classroom observation, which, together with the literature discussed in the first phase, provides the basis for interviews with the teacher and the learners that have been observed. This way student-teachers learn to integrate the perspective of practice as the basis from which to evaluate the appropriateness of the materials and tasks that have been planned and put into practice for a particular group of language learners. Pedagogical content knowledge should not be misunderstood as prescriptive knowledge to be applied in practice. Rather, through the learning tasks, a critical reflection on the relevance of the pedagogical content knowledge is fostered, supporting the emergence of a personally plausible and contextually acceptable theory of SL learning. Finally, during the last third of the practicum, student-teachers pursue one personally relevant research question that has emerged from the experience of the practicum. In their research project they integrate the perspective of relevant published knowledge and of the learners in their classroom, which they systematically research using data gathering and analysis procedures. In a final presentation of their findings for those students who will follow them in the next cycle of teacher preparation, they share and discuss their experiences.

Classroom-based action research projects

In this type of learning-to-teach environment, a university course is the core component. It is extended with a number of associated foreign language classrooms and their teachers, who participate both face-to-face and through the Internet. At the same time, student-teachers become part of the school classroom for some time through personal participation and regular communication with the teacher and her learners. To do so, teams of student-teachers prepare project scenarios for classrooms in close cooperation with the teacher. During the implementation phase, student-teachers become responsible for a small group of L2 learners to reduce the complexity of the learning-to-teach experience. In this process student-teachers learn to navigate various discourses. Seminar discourse requires student teachers to interact with teacher educators, their fellow students, and relevant readings. This discourse is enriched with input from cooperating teachers. At the level of classroom discourse, student-teachers have to interact with their partner teachers and with the group of SL learners they are responsible for during the implementation of their projects. By focusing their development and research project on a cooperatively negotiated set of research questions, student-teachers are given a chance to experience the relevance of key concepts and theories and to reflect on their potential for a particular group of learners. The compilation and presentation of their action research data and findings is an integral part of the approach and may provide the starting point for a more comprehensive study as part of an masters thesis. Whereas in the practicum the student-teachers often need to fit into ongoing schoolwork and adjust to the demands of the host teacher, this scenario allows for innovative work that might even function as in-service training for the partner teacher. (For a detailed description and discussion see Schocker-v. Ditfurth and Legutke 2002.) Web-based learning environments have greatly increased the chances for such cross-institutional cooperation through which teachers can virtually return to the university and participate in the preparation of teaching units to be tried out by student-teachers in their schools. Even if the cooperating teachers cannot participate in the student-teachers' presentations of the research projects, they can, nevertheless, read the Web publications and respond to them (Legutke, Müller-Hartmann, and Schocker-v. Ditfurth 2007).

Issues and Directions

Although the notion of the L2 teacher as a researcher who is growing professionally through exploring his or her practice has found substantial support in recent years (Burns 1999;

Edge 2001; Freeman 1998), the integration of school-based experience into L2 teacher education as an important step toward equipping teachers with the tools of inquiry still has to meet major challenges. Not only is it difficult to organize because institutional boundaries need to be crossed, but also the forms discussed here are incompatible with the prevailing myths that teacher development works through the transmission of academic subject-matter knowledge (Bartels 2007). Furthermore, a rigorous focus on school-based experience does not enjoy a high status in the academic world to this day, where careers are best built on literary, linguistic, and cultural studies, or language acquisition theory – but not on the development of pedagogical content knowledge. Teachers' awareness, however, that they are responsible for developing professionally throughout their careers (Johnson 2006: 250) may only be developed if the focus of L2 teacher education changes in the direction outlined in this chapter. The inclusion of school-based experience as a central part of learning-to-teach environments establishes bridges between institutions, provides ongoing support for the participation in communities of practice, and, last but not least, fosters a critical perspective on one's own teaching practice in both school and university-based teaching scenarios.

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CHAPTER 22

Language Teacher Education by Distance

David R. Hall and John S. Knox

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we are concerned specifically with language teacher education by distance (LTED). In addition to a brief historical sketch and the discussion of terms related to this topic, we provide an overview of the existing literature on LTED and closely related areas, and discuss a number of key issues emerging from current practices in LTED.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

Distance learning can be traced back to ancient Greek and Jewish traditions (Guri-Rosenblit 1999: 2), and correspondence courses were offered as early as the early eighteenth century in the United States and in the early nineteenth century in the United Kingdom (Mood 1995: 1). More recently, a strong relationship has developed between distance education and teacher education, with a large proportion of distance learners being teachers or teacher-trainees (Robinson and Latchem 2003: 32), and Perraton (1995: 30) counting "over a hundred programs that have used [distance education] for the initial training or the continuing education of teachers."

More specifically, LTED has experienced strong growth since the beginning of the 1990s. In her review of LTED programs conducted in 1990–91, Purgason (1994) identified 23 providers, and concluded that LTED programs were available in most parts of the world, but that "the options are still rather limited" (p. 59). Our own survey conducted in 2006–07 (Hall and Knox, in preparation) identified more than 120 LTED providers worldwide with enrollments numbering in the thousands, and probably in the tens of thousands. It is noteworthy that many of these providers are private institutions offering certificates rather than academic degrees.

In early writing on distance education, the terms *extension services* and *extension studies* were used as near-synonyms of distance learning, and, reflecting the most common

mode of communication, the term *correspondence courses* gained currency and was the most common term used until the last quarter of the twentieth century. In 1983, Sewart et al. characterized *distance education* as "a fairly new term" (1983: 1). Here, we adopt the description of Mood (1995: 19), which is based on a review of other peoples' definitions and debates, and suggests that distance learning has four characteristics:

- the physical separation of teacher and learner
- the influence or control of an organized educational institution
- the involvement of "media"
- two-way communication in some form.

Increasingly, on-campus language teacher education programs integrate the use of computer-mediated communication (CMC) and other technological support more traditionally associated with distance programs. At the same time, many distance programs include a face-to-face component, and for these reasons the lines between face-to-face and distance modes are becoming progressively more blurred. Therefore, we further qualify the description above by adding that distance learning is where there is no or relatively minimal requirement for students to physically attend the institution where they are studying.

In the literature, different authors use a variety of terms in different ways (including *online learning*, *e-learning*, *virtual learning environments*, *flexible learning*, *individualized learning*, *resource-based learning*, *supported self-study*, *independent learning*, *student-centerd learning*, *computer-assisted learning*, *interactive learning*, and *work-based learning* (see Race 2005: 9–11), and the reader needs to be alert to this in approaching the literature.

Overview

The literature on LTED began in earnest in the early-mid 1990s, about the same time the number of available programs began expanding rapidly. A number of edited volumes have served to give some overview of LTED (Henrichsen 2001; Holmberg, Shelley, and White 2005; Howard and McGrath 1995; Richards and Roe 1994). Yet, unlike the literature on language education in distance and online environments (see Kern 2006; Kern et al. 2004; White 2003, 2006), there is to date no comprehensive review of the research into LTED, and therefore no clear overview of what is known, no clear statement of where we are, and no clear agenda for LTED research. Further, many of the key works in language teacher education (e.g., Bailey and Nunan 1996; Bartels 2005; Richards and Nunan 1990; Ur 1996) provide no discussion of distance learning and its implications for the education of language teachers.

There are relatively few published studies that directly examine language teacher education by distance (in addition to the edited volumes mentioned above, we could locate fewer than 20 published papers on LTED contexts), but a fairly wide spread of studies that have direct relevance. These include studies on distance education in general, teacher education by distance, and language teacher education in blended learning environments (where face-to-face and CMC modes are mixed). Throughout this chapter, we draw on literature from all these areas.

Overall, the literature on LTED is dominated by case studies from the perspective of the instructor. Many of these are anecdotal in nature, in some cases even promotional, comprising a description of a program or of the process of developing or teaching a distance course. (See Wallace 2003; Zhao and Rop 2001 for similar evaluations of the

literature on teacher education by distance.) There are few thorough evaluations employing triangulated data collection or analysis, and a surprising number of published studies can be characterized as under-theorized with little critical reflection on the nature of materials, pedagogy, learning, or curriculum. Even so, such accounts do provide some indication of "what is happening" in LTED contexts, and are probably a typical and necessary first step in a relatively underresearched field.

There are also many LTED studies that are not instructor-perspective case studies, and that in many cases problematize common-sense assumptions of the superiority of face-to-face delivery over distance learning. These studies explore issues such as logistical challenges faced by learners, teachers, and administrators (e.g., Perraton 1995; Simpson 2006); teacher and learner roles (e.g., Coffin, Painter, and Hewings 2005; Pachler and Daly 2006); and the nature (and mediation) of communication, pedagogy, and learning (e.g., Cope and Kalantzis 2001; Richards 1995; see also Walton 2004).

Current Approaches and Practices

Due in part to the rapidly evolving nature of distance education in general, the issues in LTED are many and complex, and in this section we touch on a number of widely recognized issues.

TECHNOLOGY

For LTED, information and communication technologies (ICTs) mean that the knowledge of the discourse community (e.g., in journal articles, books, and teaching materials) can be distributed more cheaply and efficiently. This is particularly useful in a field in which practitioners are spread globally (including in countries where are resource poor), and are often transient (teaching and / or studying in countries other than their own). ICTs also afford new forms of communication, through media such as online discussions, synchronous chat, and Web-based teaching materials (see further discussion below). These relatively new technologies are added to the more familiar tool kit available to distance educators, such as paper-based materials, the telephone, and video.

In one sense, this situation is nothing new for education.

> The pen, paper, word processor, whiteboard, and overhead projector remained strangely hidden [in past research on academic literacies]. As Morgan . . . reminds us, unlike ICTs, successful technologies have become invisible, 'black-boxed', so that we do not even recognise them as technologies at all. (Lea 2004: 8)

But one advantage of the "visibility" of new technologies is that it encourages a research focus on the ways they mediate learning and teaching (see further discussion that follows, see also Reinders, Chapter 23).

ONLINE DISCUSSIONS

Such a focus on new technologies in LTED and closely related areas is most evident in the case of online discussions, which are cited as a positive development by a number of LTED providers in a survey conducted by the authors (Hall and Knox, in preparation).

Many of the advantages the respondents identify have been reported also in many places in the literature (e.g., Hammond 2005; Kamhi-Stein 2000; Pachler and Daly 2006), and include:

- their "egalitarian" nature, allowing space for everyone's voice
- the opportunity for teachers and learners to construct an online identity, which may not be possible for them to adopt in face-to-face contexts
- exposure for both learners and teachers to "more voices" than they get to hear in a face-to-face environment
- the provision of a forum for collaborative learning and reflection, and peer feedback
- making it possible to keep a record of discussions and of learning
- flexibility for learners and teachers to log on in their own time, and read and write at their own pace
- time for teachers to compose a considered response
- the ease with which links to online resources can be inserted into discussion postings
- patterns of interaction that vary from the classic IRF sequence common in classrooms
- the opportunity to explore new ideas as they are generated, unrestricted by the time-and-space constraints of the classroom
- the potential for formation of a learning community among learners separated by spatial and cultural distance, and situated in varying professional environments

Many LTED practitioners and researchers (Biesenbach-Lucas 2003; Cheng and Myles 2003; Hirvela 2006; Kamhi-Stein 2000; Nutta 2001; Salleh 2002) have commented enthusiastically on the sense of collaboration and community created by online discussions. At the same time, others have expressed doubt about whether such discussions do (or even can) result in a meaningful online community exhibiting full collaboration (Henri 1995; Littleton and Whitelock 2005; Murphy 2004; Pawan et al. 2003; Pena-Shaff and Nicholls 2003). Barak (2006: 134) contends that online discussions encourage contextual and active learning but not social or reflective learning.

Despite a widespread focus on online discussions in the literature, and their common use in blended and distance language teacher education, there has been almost no discourse analysis of such discussions in LTED (though see Arnold and Ducate 2006; Coffin et al. 2005; Kamhi-Stein 2000; cf. Piriyasilpa 2007), which is surprising given the central role that language obviously plays in this learning medium.

There has also been relatively little written on assessment of online discussions (though see Biesenbach-Lucas 2003; Goodfellow et al. 2004). There are three questions here. First, should they be assessed as part of the formal grading of a program? Second, if discussions are to be assessed, then what exactly should we assess (e.g., control of subject matter, quality of argumentation, facilitation of learning among the group, amount of reading, task response, enthusiasm of participation, number of contributions)? Third, how should they be assessed?

Hall and Knox (2004) report on the implementation of peer assessment of online discussions in an LTED course on curriculum innovation, arguing in part that the "success of any given discussion, and the value of a given member's participation, needs to be collaboratively judged if it is to be valid" (cf. Hammond 2005; Johnson 1999). Online discussions are often seen as making an important contribution to a program, and students may, therefore, want to see some recognition for the effort they put into them. Alternatively,

they may see the forum as a chance to discuss issues without worrying about grading (see Biesenbach-Lucas 2003). We have tried both assessed and nonassessed discussions and found that both student and staff attitudes vary widely.

LEARNER AND TEACHER CHALLENGES

Some commonly identified problems with distance learning are common to both LTED and distance education in other fields: a feeling of isolation, lack of immediate peer support, high dropout rates, problems in communication, and onerous time demands for teachers and learners (e.g., Donnelly 2006; Hirvela 2006; Johnson et al. 2001; Kouritzin 2002; Littleton and Whitelock 2005). Some have noted that distance students are more likely to study part-time, and therefore suffer fatigue. In addition, and more specific to language teaching, many learners in the field of language teacher education come to the profession later in their working lives, often having completed a tertiary degree years earlier, in a more traditional mode. Learners in LTED programs can therefore suffer a higher " 'casualty rate' due to age of our teachers [that is, distance learners] who face a fairly predictable set of challenges at this age including parental deaths, child-rearing, etc" (a survey respondent quoted in Hall and Knox, in preparation).

On a more mundane level, the time that both teachers and students have to devote to LTED, or the "relentlessness" of distance courses as Kouritzin (2002: 622) puts it, is a constant theme in the literature. Many of those involved in LTED resent a view commonly held by teachers and senior managers who have only experienced face-to-face teaching, that distance teaching is somehow easier and saves time (and therefore money).

PRACTICUMS

Preservice (or initial teacher-training) programs are singled out by a number of authors in the TESOL field as being particularly problematic when delivered by distance. McGrath (1995) and Haworth and Parker (1995), for example, argue that face-to-face contact is required in order for trainee teachers to develop classroom skills (as opposed to theoretical knowledge). In addition, distance students can face considerable logistical difficulties in organizing observed practicums, which meet the rules of their institution (practicums being a general requirement of preservice programs in particular). Several more recent papers in the literature, however, (Coyle 2005; Kamhi-Stein 2000; Salleh 2002; Simpson 2006) are very positive about the benefits of CMC when students are scattered at different practicum sites, and developments in ICT mean that as internet bandwidth continues to expand, those with access to it will increasingly be able to participate in mediated communication which shares many of the features of face-to-face contexts.

LEARNING *IN SITU*

There are clear advantages to language teachers in in-service programs being able to continue to work in the field and use their immediate professional context in their discussions and assignments. Similar advantages exist for preservice teachers who can conduct their practicum in a site relevant to their prospective workplace, but distant from their institution. This allows a "semi-embedded professional development that is just not possible with most students in residential programs" (respondent cited in Hall and Knox, in preparation; see also McGrath 1995; Nunan 1999; Roe 1994).

Students can investigate their questions (and those of their peers) and their developing knowledge immediately in their own classrooms, wherever they may be, and bring these to bear on their reading, discussion, and assessed work. At the same time, they are able to learn

about their peers' teaching contexts and gain insight into issues related to teaching students of different ages; of different L1s; and in different social (e.g., urban v. rural), educational (e.g., primary v. secondary v. tertiary) and linguistic (e.g., SL v. FL) environments. We have found in our own distance teaching that the wealth of experience among the students and the wide variety of educational, cultural, and physical contexts in which they work constitute a very valuable resource.

AUTONOMY AND INDEPENDENCE

The literature frequently links distance learning with the notions of learner independence and autonomy. While these terms have often been used to refer to programmed and self-access study (as noted in Benson 2001), a more interesting link is with autonomy as a state of mind, and particularly with the notion of interdependence, where there are strong connections with collaborative and constructivist views of knowledge and education. Kern, Ware, and Warschauer's (2004) overview of research into online language learning supports the position that the Internet is not about doing traditional teaching with new technology, but about helping students "enter into a new realm of collaborative inquiry and construction of knowledge, viewing their expanding repertoire of identities and communication strategies as resources in the process" (p. 254).

Other writers investigating LTED and related contexts also go well beyond the idea that modern technologies facilitate good interaction, to the much more radical idea that the potential of such technologies demands constructivist and collaborative approaches (e.g., Arnold and Ducate 2006; Cope and Kalantzis 2001; Crandall 2000; Johnson 1999; Johnson et al. 2001; Pachler and Daly 2006; Wallace 2003), including problem-based learning (e.g., Donnelly 2006).

In the context of such claims, it is clear that both student attitudes and teacher attitudes to LTED are a key consideration. The danger of a mismatch in attitudes (Dogancay-Aktuna 2005: 106) and the need to reexamine attitudes (Knezek and Christensen 2002: 375; Littleton and Whitelock 2005: 161) mean that professional development is essential for those involved in LTED, and curriculum and material design need to be of a kind that will encourage the desired kinds of interaction.

ISSUES AND DIRECTIONS

Following the areas highlighted in the previous section, here we discuss issues that have received little or no attention in the literature.

MATERIALS

Preparation of distance materials demands a greater clarity of thought and a greater explicitness at an early stage than in face-to-face teaching, including decisions about what to include or exclude, the order of presentation, the variety of activities, and the processes of assessment (formal and otherwise). In our own experience teaching both modes, we have found that the effort expended on distance-learning preparation has greatly facilitated our face-to-face preparation, and the two modes are mutually very supportive. Yet, there has been almost no detailed analysis of LTED teaching materials.

The study by Richards (1995), which does examine how LTED materials are written (and which is the only study of its kind we could locate), is a clear indication of the importance of bringing technical knowledge from applied linguistics to bear on our own

practices as educators (see also Egbert and Chao 2001; Goodfellow et al. 2004). Yet Richards's study of paper-based materials also highlights the lack of published, critical analyses of materials delivered in other media.

As LTED materials continue to move toward online delivery, and communication likewise becomes increasingly mediated by new technologies, studies such as those by Coffin et al. (2005) and Richards (1995) will need to draw on theories of discourse informed by multimodal perspectives (cf. Baldry 2000; Djonov 2007; Jones 2007; Walton 2004; Unsworth 2001; Zhao, in press). And as language teaching itself moves increasingly online, there will be a need for systematic research into how distance materials can best exploit technological affordances in preparing preservice language teachers for both face-to-face and CMC environments, and in assisting in-service language teachers to explore and reflect on such environments (see Johnson et al. 2001).

ADMINISTRATION AND RESEARCH

Administration has received relatively little attention in the LTED literature (with the notable exceptions of Leach 1995; Penrose 1994; Perraton 1995), but the comments from our survey respondents (Hall and Knox, in preparation) indicate that administrative issues are fundamental to LTED, a finding that matches our own experience. Factors such as the amount of teacher administration, the demands on program administrators in LTED, and the strictures and inflexibility of existing higher-level administrative practices in many institutions can act as a burden on developing and running LTED programs. In the words of one respondent: "Registration of students, financial aid, payment, record keeping, admissions, you name it!"

THE STATUS OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

As has been the case throughout the history of distance education, the status of distance programs is still problematic, and some countries are more suspicious of language-teaching qualifications obtained by distance than others. This is a common topic of discussion on language-teacher bulletin boards and blogs. Given the globalized nature of LTED, and the desire (even requirement) of many or most students for their qualifications to be recognized worldwide, investigations are needed into whether it would be possible or desirable to establish international quality assurance mechanisms and perhaps a standardized set of criteria for evaluating program quality.

THE NEED FOR AN EXPANDED RESEARCH BASE

In addition, and finally, there are many areas of LTED which are underresearched or not researched at all. We could locate no published studies of (or even publications discussing) research supervision in LTED. There is also a need for comprehensive, triangulated curriculum evaluations, and thorough and rigorous analyses of materials and communication in LTED using theoretically grounded discourse analysis (including multimodal analysis). There is also a need to bring small-scale private providers into the research picture, and to investigate the learning experiences and classroom practices of teachers who have gone through (or are going through) LTED programs.

Overall, the field of LTED would benefit from building on the current literature dominated by instructor-perspective case studies, with research conducted with a broader base of participants, sites, and methodological approaches.

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CHAPTER 23

Technology and Second Language Teacher Education

Hayo Reinders

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I first discuss the issue of what technology education should cover, before looking at different options for how it can be implemented, with particular reference to the content of language teacher education. Finally I look at issues around how technology is changing teaching practice.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

Technology – used here in its restricted meaning of the (mainly modern) tools used in language education (Foucault's "technologies of production," 1988) – plays an ever-growing role in all aspects of our lives and increasingly impacts what happens in the language classroom. The opportunities that technology offers for access to information, for communication, and for greater learner control over the learning process (to name a few), are exciting. In practice, however, the potential comes with serious challenges. Examples abound of unsuccessful and often costly attempts at using computers in education (cf. Hubbard 2003). This book is testament to the fact that one of the key factors in any type of innovation, whether related to technology or not, is the extent to which teachers are comfortable with it and see clear benefits to changes for everyday classroom use. Especially in the area of technology, innovation in teaching contexts can be a slow process, and one that requires a substantial time investment on the part of everyone involved (cf. Stevens et al. 1986). Education in this area is somewhat different from that in other areas as it involves both a pedagogic as well as a practical component in the sense that teachers need to have the technical skills to use the technology before they can discover how to implement it. In addition, technologies have the potential to be disruptive to classroom practice (cf. Godwin-Jones 2005). The teacher educator is thus in the delicate position of explicitly linking the benefits of the innovation to classroom practice.

OVERVIEW

TECHNOLOGY IN TEACHER EDUCATION: WHAT DO WE TEACH?

The field of computer-assisted language learning has been in existence for several decades now. (See Levy 1997 for a good historical overview until that point.) The discussion around the place of technology in teacher education is a more recent one, however. One of the reasons for the delay may be that, unlike other areas, with technology it is surprisingly unclear exactly what should be taught. The first question is whether teacher education should include both technical and pedagogical aspects or whether the teaching of computer literacy[1] should be left to IT professionals. In the case of in-service education and in many smaller schools, that may not be an option as often there is no dedicated staff to provide courses. There is also an argument to be made against separating the technology from its use, just as arguments have been raised against the teaching of grammar in isolation.

A second question arises when a decision is made to cover computer literacy in a teacher education program. What needs to be taught and to what level? The use of the computer operating software, the Internet, and word processing software (insofar as this cannot be assumed to be preexisting knowledge) would probably be uncontroversial, but how about Web site design or the use of authoring tools? The distinction is between teachers being able to first, *use* a certain technology; second, being able to *create* materials and activities using that technology; and third, being able to *teach* with technology, based on the idea that knowing how a program works does not equate to knowing how to use it in a teaching situation. This is where the technical focus shifts to a pedagogic one.

A third related question is "To what extent teacher education in this area should be technology-driven?" For example, currently teacher educators may look at the proliferation of so-called Web 2.0 applications, or "social software," to try and tap their potential for communication, learner control, and to support constructivist classroom practice. Another approach is to start by identifying a set of learning principles and use technology to implement them. For example, Egbert, Chao, and Hanson-Smith (1999) start from eight conditions for optimal language-learning environments derived from SLA that could be used as a starting point for teacher education. Chapelle (cf. 2001) is another author who has long argued for increasingly explicit links between Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and findings from second language acquisition and in particular interactionist approaches.

Whichever approach is taken, it is important to determine first what our aims are. Hubbard and Levy (2006) point out that different contexts may call for different types and levels of knowledge. They propose a framework based on an individual teacher's expected role, to determine the skills that need to be acquired. This role depends on the teacher's institutional role (preservice, in-service, CALL specialist, CALL professional) and his or her functional role (practitioner, developer, researcher, and trainer) as summarized in Table 1. Together, these determine the specific training needs for each individual.

Hubbard and Levy further distinguish between the development of CALL knowledge and skill, at both the technical and practical levels (see Table 2). For example, knowledge at the technical level would involve understanding how computer systems operate, whereas practical skill would involve being able to use one's knowledge in teaching practice.

These tables can also be used to determine teachers' current knowledge and skill level. As for articulating (and measuring) the outcomes of such teacher education, efforts have been made by professional bodies such as the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education in general education and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages in the United States and the Council of Europe (see Murphy-Judy and Youngs 2006). Teacher educators can use the guidelines as a starting point to adapt to their own contexts.

Institutional roles	Functional roles			
	Practitioner	Developer	Researcher	Trainer
Preservice classroom teachers	X	X	X	X
In-service classroom teachers	X	X	X	X
CALL specialists (expertadjunct)	X	X	X	X
CALL professional (expertadjunct)	X	X	X	X

Table 1 Institutional and functional roles of teachers (Hubbard and Levy 2006: 11, reproduced with permission from Benjamins publishers).

	Technical	Pedagogical
CALL Knowledge	Systematic and incidental understanding of the computer system, including peripheral devices, in terms of hardware, software, and networking.	Systematic and incidental understanding of ways of effectively using the computer in language teaching.
CALL Skill	Ability to use technical knowledge and experience both for the operation of the computer system and relevant applications and in dealing with various problems.	Ability to use technical knowledge and experience to determine effective materials, content, and tasks, and to monitor and assess results appropriately.

Table 2 Types of CALL knowledge and skill (Hubbard and Levy 2006: 16, reproduced with permission from Benjamins publishers).

A related discussion that is underway in general education is the development of standards for teacher educators in the area of technology. This appears to be an area where language education has not yet made much progress, as there is currently nothing like a professional body of technology teacher educators in place.

Current Approaches and Practices

How do we teach technology?

After determining the existing teacher education needs, the question turns to the ways in which those needs can be met. Here are some different ways of approaching this question (each of them representing the ends of a continuum rather than a dichotomy):

separated ⟷ integrated
formal ⟷ *informal*
generic ⟷ specific

Teaching the use of technology in a course separate from teachers' classroom teaching can have a number of advantages. Having a dedicated course on using technology ensures that sufficient time is allotted for teachers to learn the necessary skills. In the in-service context, a separate course may also give technology education a more formal position in the institution and enhance its status. The school could send a message that it is taking technology education seriously and that it expects teachers to draw on what they learn in the course. For a teacher educator, such formal recognition may also mean having more resources available to develop appropriate course materials. It can also make it easier for participants to concentrate on the topic at hand without having to worry about immediately applying the new knowledge to a teaching situation. Of course, there is also the practical advantage of teachers being able to take the course together and thus share their experiences and to support each other.

However, in practice, the luxury of having time dedicated to solely one topic (technology education) may not exist outside contexts such as masters courses. Even if it did, for those teachers who have reservations about technology in language teaching (see Issues and Directions, later) a whole course on the subject may not be appealing. There is also a pedagogic objection in separating the means (technology) from the end (teaching successfully). As previously mentioned, the success of new technologies in the classroom depends in large part on the teacher's ability to apply them meaningfully, especially in the language classroom where the technology supports not only the delivery of content but also the building of skills. It is questionable to what extent the knowledge gained from a separate course translates into classroom practice. An integrated approach has the practical advantage of not requiring timetabling changes, but it may also overload teachers busy with running the class, especially those who are less experienced. In preservice courses, some successful models exist that combine a separate course with integration into the rest of the curriculum. For example, Hegelheimer (2006) describes a course as part of the masters TESL at Iowa State University, where in addition to a required course, "computer methods in applied linguistics," the use of technology permeates the other courses to ensure that transfer takes place. This includes the required use of PowerPoint to present research to others in the course, the creation of a home page with assignments and activities for their own classes, electronic course and grade management for those classes, and the use of statistical software for the Language Testing course – all designed to encourage the immediate application of content covered earlier.

Another distinction to be made in relation to teacher education is between formal and informal learning. Many teachers learn to use technology informally, out of enthusiasm for the medium and with help from colleagues. Although this may work well for some, it is almost certain to leave out others, and a formal approach is likely to lead to more consistent results across the board. However, informal networks certainly do have their place, as early adopters and innovators thrive on the ability to find out new applications for new technologies. As a school, rather than formalizing all training, it may be best to support such informal work through the provision of resources and by recognizing such staff for their contributions. Hanson-Smith (2006) describes the successful use of such informal networks and communities of practice to support language teachers.

A third distinction is between more generic or more specific technology education. Generic approaches aim to provide teachers with basic skills that will enable them to apply any technology to a teaching situation. Unlike the specific approach, which would teach how to use a certain commercial program, the generic approach would, for example, show how to assess the suitability of that program and others like it and how to make decisions on whether to implement it the classroom and how. A large part of the rationale for the generic model comes from making technology education future-proof as it aims to provide skills that are independent of any particular technology. Despite the potential benefit of such approaches, in practice there have been a number of reasons why it has not always worked. One of these

is a lack of time, as developing a good generic knowledge is demanding and still requires teachers to apply that knowledge to the specific tools available in the school. Such training also runs the risk of being rather abstract if it is not immediately related to the teaching demands faced by teachers. The success of a more generic approach has also been found to be strongly dependent on the amount of ongoing support that is available to teachers. Unless there is considerable follow-up and incentive to apply generic knowledge course to new situations, the realities of teaching often quickly make such knowledge obsolete. Teaching how to use a number of specific programs is often quicker but has the downside that with each new program or new version of a program, additional training may be required.

In practice, a wide variety of approaches to teacher education exists in this area. To determine which are the most common types of technology education, Kay (2006) conducted a meta-analysis of 68 studies of technology education in (general) preservice teacher education in the United States. She found that the following were the most frequently used ways to introduce technology:

- integrating technology in all courses (44%)
- using multimedia such as through the implementation of online courses and electronic portfolios (37%)
- focusing on education faculty with the hope that over time this would filter down to preservice trainees (31%)
- delivering a single technology course (29%)
- modeling how to use technology (27%)
- collaboration among preservice teachers, mentor teachers, and faculty (25%)
- practicing technology in the field (19%)
- offering mini-workshops (18%)
- improving access to software, hardware, and / or support (14%)
- and focusing on mentor teachers (13%)

One of the key findings from this study was the relatively strong support for integrated approaches, the use of mentor teachers (see Malderez, Chapter 26), and the use of more informal networks, such as those between teachers (with the caveat that these could be difficult to establish and maintain).

Regardless of what combination of the above strategies is decided on, certain factors have been found to play a key role in the ultimate success of any program:

1. Good access to computers with ongoing technology support.
2. Time, both during and after the course, for participants to learn about and then implement what has been covered (Lam 2000), as well as achieve subsequent recognition for their work.
3. The modeling and constructing of authentic tasks and relating of theory to practice through practical examples and applications (Kay 2006) to move beyond an understanding of technology to an understanding of how technology is implemented in a language teaching situation.
4. Experiencing technology from the learners' perspective (one of the conclusions derived from the online discussion by the IATEFL Learning Technologies SIG, www.iateflcompsig.org.uk/onlineevent-apr06.htm), in other words, learning about technology with technology.
5. The availability of ongoing pedagogical support, for example, through a mentoring program or a community of practice such as the Electronic Village and Real English Online projects (see the reference section).
6. Opportunities and encouragement to reflect on the implications of technology at a broader level (Levy 1997).

PUTTING IT TOGETHER: A MODEL FOR TECHNOLOGY IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Bringing all these findings together, Figure 1 can be used as a starting point to determine a course of action. It combines a needs analysis (with possible standards and outcomes in mind) and a selection of methods embedded in an appropriate pedagogical and technical / institutional support structure.

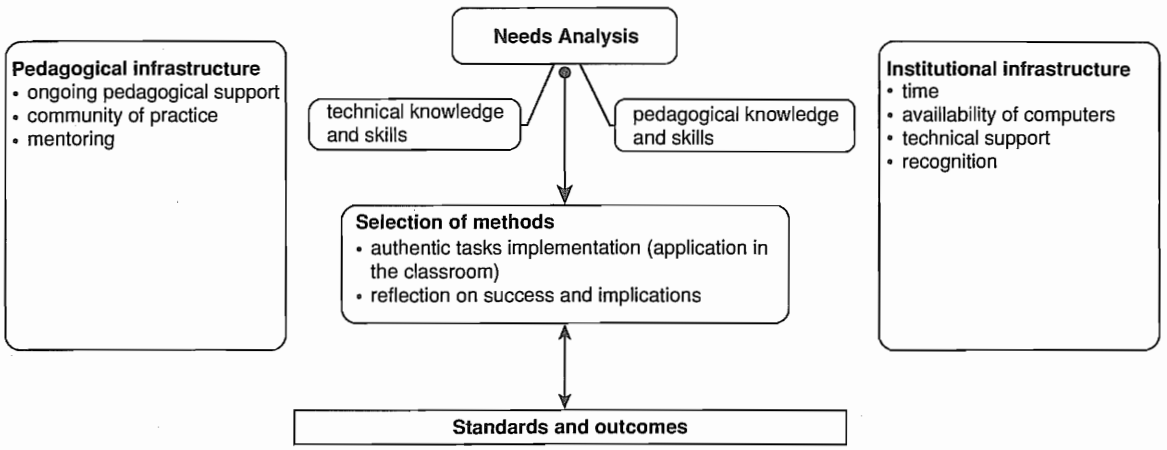


Figure 1

ISSUES AND DIRECTIONS

Teacher education in this area has long met with resistance, some of it quite justified. "Technology for technology's sake" is an often heard complaint from teachers who may not see the benefits of yet another change (Reynard 2003). Related to this, some teachers resent having to teach technology to those learners who do not yet have the necessary electronic literacy level and feel it is not their job to teach electronic literacy. Egbert, Paulus, and Nakamichi (2002) report a number of other concerns that teachers have. The most common concerns are limited resources and a lack of time both to attend courses and to implement what is being learned. Also commonly mentioned is a lack of ongoing support, both pedagogical and technical, which results in difficulties with integrating technology into everyday teaching. Other problems are related to curricular and administrative restrictions and the prevailing teaching philosophy, which may not match the more flexible types of learning and teaching technology affords (see also Fang and Warschauer 2004).

The future direction for the use of technology in the classroom may well be more disruptive than it has been so far. Although less has changed about teaching in the last 20 years than some might think, this may not be true for the coming 20 years. At the risk of making false predictions, it is clear that young learners now have vastly improved access to information, and more important, have tools available to them (at no or a small cost) that increasingly firmly place control over many aspects of their lives, including education, into their own hands. "Ubiquitous," "pervasive," and "ambient" computing may realize the dream of location-independent learning (see Hall and Knox, Chapter 22), social software may offer an alternative or complementary support network for learners to that offered by teachers, and webbots may change how people communicate across languages in the first place. Regardless of whether this potential is realized, one thing that these and other current developments have in common is that they increasingly require students to be able to make decisions about their own learning (cf. Reinders 2006) and to manage that learning

by themselves. Perhaps this is the greatest change that we are likely to see from technology in the near future, and one that may have a strong impact on the classroom. The challenge for teachers will be more one of helping learners develop the skills to deal successfully with the increased control and independence that technology demands. As teacher educators our job is to help prepare our teachers for this changing role.

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Note

[1] I use the word *computers* here as the most common way in which technology has been used by classroom teachers. Although interesting developments are taking place in the use of cell phones, PDAs, and other technologies, and OHPs and radios could be subsumed under the heading "technology," I mainly refer here to the use of computers and the Internet.

SECTION 6

SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION THROUGH COLLABORATION

Many of the contributors in this book emphasize that teacher learning is not something that teachers need achieve on their own – it is a social process that is contingent upon dialogue and interaction with others, processes through which teachers can come to better understand their own beliefs and knowledge as well as reshape these understandings through listening to the voices of others. The contributions in this section share a focus on dialogue and collaboration as core processes in teacher learning.

In Chapter 24, Johnston surveys the role of collaboration in SLTE. Collaboration is viewed as a process that facilitates teacher development, serves to generate knowledge and understanding, and helps to develop collegiality, and one which teachers should have or share control of. Such collaboration can take many different forms, such as between teacher and teacher, teacher and university researcher, teacher and students, and teacher with other stakeholders such as parents or administrators. Examples Johnston discusses include action research, narrative inquiry, cooperative development, exploratory practice, team teaching, study groups, and dialogue journal writing. Suggestions are given as to how to respond to commonly encountered challenges in initiating collaborative approaches.

In Chapter 25 on the practicum, Gebhard focuses on how the practicum can be used as a means of facilitating teacher development and not simply as an opportunity to master specific teaching skills. This can come about through using the practicum experience as an opportunity for teachers in collaboration with other student-teachers and supervisors to examine and develop their own beliefs and understandings as well as an awareness of the moral and ethnical dimensions of teaching. In reviewing approaches and practices used in the practicum, Gebhard emphasizes the value of using multiple and complementary activities that go beyond the mere collecting of data about teaching but that allow for

reflection on the meaning of teaching. Rather than viewing the practicum as an opportunity to apply knowledge learned in an SLTE program, it is a vital part of the process by which the teacher develops his or her identity within a particular institutional and cultural context.

Malderez, in Chapter 26, examines the nature and roles of mentors in the teacher-learning process and views mentoring as a process crucial to teacher development and, in particular, to the teacher's ability to succeed and grow in a specific workplace context. As such they play a variety of roles: model, acculturator, supporter, sponsor, and educator. An effective mentor helps the teacher-learner make the links between classroom experience, research, and good practice. However, unlike supervisors, the mentor does not seek to assess, correct, or intervene in the teacher-learner's practice but rather to facilitate the teacher's own thinking, judgement, and decision making. Malderez describes this process as supportive scaffolding of the core skills of professional learning, thinking, and action and describes how mentors can carry out this role and the conditions necessary to facilitate it.

In the last chapter in this section, Bailey (Chapter 27) shifts the focus to approaches and practices in language teacher supervision. The view of supervision presented here differs from Malderez' account of mentoring in that supervision is directed toward improving the quality of teaching and therefore involves assessment of teaching rather than simply raising self-awareness or developing understanding. Bailey surveys how supervision has been viewed in SLTE, approaches that have traditionally drawn heavily on practices in general education and that include directive approaches in which the supervisor offers advice, nondirective approaches, the alternative options (suggesting alternatives), the collaborative model (where supervisor and teacher work together on solutions), and creative supervision (a blend of the previous four). Bailey notes that there is a tension between institutional pressures for a directive and judgmental approach to supervision and the SLTE professions' advocacy of a more personal and developmental approach to supervision, the latter being accompanied by a growing research interest in the discourse supervisors use in the postobservation conference.

CHAPTER 24

Collaborative Teacher Development

Bill Johnston

INTRODUCTION

Collaborative teacher development (CTD) is an increasingly common kind of teacher development found in a wide range of language teaching contexts. In the past, teaching has traditionally been an occupation pursued largely in isolation from one's colleagues – Donald Freeman (1998) famously described it as an "egg-box profession" in which each of us is carefully kept separate from our fellow teachers. A crucial component of teacher development had been to overcome this isolation with collaborative endeavors both within and beyond the classroom.

The practical effects of such work have been impressive. Yet, the most important thing about CTD lies deeper, in the *values* that underlie collaboration as a wellspring of teacher professional development. First, CTD arises from, and reinforces, a view of teacher learning as a fundamentally social process – in other words, that teachers can *only* learn professionally in sustained and meaningful ways when they are able to do so together. As Edge (1992) puts it, "[s]elf-development needs other people . . . By cooperating with others, we can come to understand better our own experiences and opinions" (pp. 3–4). Second, CTD supports a view of teachers both individually and as a community as producers, not just consumers, of knowledge and understanding about teaching (Freeman and Johnson 1998; Johnston 2003: 123–126).

Third, CTD arises from a belief that teaching can and should be a fundamentally collegial profession. Sockett (1993) argues that "[c]ollaboration and an implicit move toward a common professional community is justified morally because of its power in strengthening professional development and increasing professional dignity" (p. 25). Hargreaves (1992), in turn, calls for a "culture of collaboration," citing research on such cultures in which "routine help, support, trust and openness . . . operated almost imperceptibly on a moment-by-moment, day-by-day basis" (p. 226). Thus, overcoming professional isolation is of benefit not just to the individual teachers concerned, but to the entire context in which

they teach – in other words, students and schools also stand to gain from teachers engaging in CTD.

In this chapter I begin by offering a loose definition of collaborative teacher development, and I suggest a range of possible answers to the important question of who collaborates with whom in CTD. In the following section I introduce several frameworks that have been used widely to structure collaborative development endeavors, and I mention a few techniques, or methods, commonly used in CTD. In the last section I identify two important challenges for CTD.

Scope and Definitions

This section addresses two key questions about CTD: First, what is it? Second, who collaborates with whom?

What do we mean by *collaboration* in the context of teacher development? Collaborative teacher development is any sustained and systematic investigation into teaching and learning in which a teacher voluntarily collaborates with others involved in the teaching process, and in which professional development is a prime purpose. Though this definition leaves room for many different forms that CTD can take, two features are crucial: First, the teacher or teachers concerned must have, or share, control over the process – that is, this is not something one can "do to" teachers. Second, although professional development (however the term is understood) can occur alongside other processes such as curricular innovation or action research focused, for instance, on instructional improvements, the goal of teacher professional development for its own sake must be a clearly stated, central component to such endeavors for them to constitute CTD. In other words, professional development should not be seen merely as a by-product of other development processes, but needs to be built into them as a core component.

As for who is collaborating with whom, the teacher is obviously at the heart of CTD. Yet there are many options for collaboration in educational settings. I suggest four major possibilities.

First, teachers can collaborate with their fellow teachers – that is, other language teachers who are peers. This is the most balanced relationship in terms of power. Collaborations among language teachers may well focus on instructional issues such as materials exploitation, classroom management, classroom language use, and so on. Of course, they are by no means restricted to such topics. Nevertheless, the shared professional understandings of language teachers are likely to point them toward certain common concerns and interests. Many of the examples cited below constitute this kind of CTD.

A second very common form of collaboration is between teachers and university-based researchers. Such collaborations are more commonly initiated by the researcher or researchers, and for this reason tend often to focus on the kinds of issues dealt with in educational research. They also tend to be more methodologically and / or theoretically sophisticated than teacher-teacher collaborations, since researchers often have, or have access to, greater resources (including time, a precious commodity for classroom teachers), and to have a bigger interest in theorization for its own sake. It's also the case that such relations can be more problematic in terms of inequities of power and status (Stewart 2006), an important issue I return to in the final section. (See McKay, Chapter 28, for more on classroom research.) There are many examples of this kind of CTD in the literature – see, for example, Auerbach and Paxton (1997), Cormany, Maynor, and Kalnin (2004), Dubetz (2004), and Toohey and Waterstone (2004).

Third, teachers can collaborate with their students. This, too, of course, usually involves a significant power differential. Yet at the same time, such an arrangement offers fascinating

possibilities for learning in depth about one's own classroom and who is in it. There are encouraging precedents for this kind of collaboration in mainstream education (e.g., Branscombe, Goswami, and Schwartz 1992); it is also underpinned by a range of important philosophical positions, from Noddings's notion of solidarity with students as part of the caring relation (Noddings 1984) to critical pedagogy and the call for the empowerment of learners (Norton and Toohey 2004). For examples of this kind of CTD, see Cowie (2001) and several of the studies listed later using the framework of Exploratory Practice.

Last, teachers can collaborate with others involved in teaching and learning – administrators, supervisors, parents, materials developers, and so on. An interesting example is Winston and Soltman (2002), who work with the families of the international students they teach in order to understand their teaching context better. Gebhard and Oprandy (1999) look at teacher-supervisor interactions and how they can be structured for teacher development (see also Bailey, Chapter 27).

One particular variant on this last category is collaboration between language teachers and subject teachers. Such partnerships have become increasingly important in United States education in particular through a combination of two recent developments. First, the rise in the number of immigrant children, whose presence creates challenges for subject teachers unaccustomed to dealing with students whose first language is not English, has led these teachers to their ESL colleagues in search of help and understanding. Second, the shift toward content-based instruction (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche 1989), seen in many ESL teaching contexts, has helped to integrate language learning with content learning, a process that has led to much closer contacts between subject teachers and ESL instructors (see, for example, Kaufman 2000). Many of these collaborations, in turn, have had a significant component of professional development, often involving content teachers gaining a new appreciation of the professional expertise of language teachers.

Current Approaches and Practices

Collaborative teacher development is a generic term. In itself it does not imply any particular methodology, framework, or theory. As I tried to argue previously, CTD arises from values rooted in a certain attitude to teaching and teacher development; but these values are not associated with any particular method. In fact, CTD can take different forms framed within various approaches to teacher development. In this section I will outline the most common of these and give a couple of examples of each one. I will look at action research, narrative inquiry, cooperative development, exploratory practice, team teaching, teacher study groups, dialog journal writing, long-distance collaboration, and a few other possibilities. In each case I will emphasize the collaborative aspects, bearing in mind that many of these topics are dealt with elsewhere in this volume.

Perhaps the most widely known form of professional development is action research (see Burns, Chapter 29). Action research involves teachers engaging in small-scale, systematic, publicly reported research in their own classrooms and contexts, with the aim of changing or understanding those classrooms and contexts. Action research can, of course, be conducted by individual teachers working on their own. Yet as Burns (1999: 13) points out, its philosophical roots are in collaborative action, and many would argue that action research is by its very nature collaborative (see, for example, McNiff 1992, who describes action research as research *with* people, not *on* them [cited in Cowie 2001: 29]). The most extensive description of collaborative action research available in the professional literature is that of Burns (1999), who combines a how-to book with evidence from a large-scale action research program in Australia's Adult Migrant English Program (AMEP). Burns demonstrates convincingly the powerful community-building potential of

collaborative action research, as well as its capacity for promoting individual professional growth. Numerous other examples can be found in the literature, including Smith (2004), several chapters in Edge (2001), and Auerbach and Paxton (1997).

Narrative inquiry is becoming an increasingly widely accepted form of teacher development, as well as of educational inquiry. Rooted to a large degree in the work of Jean Clandinin and Michael Connelly (for example, Clandinin and Connelly 2000; Connelly and Clandinin 1988), it was popularized in the field of language teaching by Johnson and Golombek (2002; see also Johnson, Chapter 2 and Golombek, Chapter 15). Narrative inquiry sees a major source for professional growth in the stories teachers tell about their teaching experiences. It is not "merely" storytelling, however, but requires extended reflection and analysis of our teaching stories. At one level there is nothing inherently collaborative about narrative inquiry; yet the very idea of narration implies both a teller and a hearer, and in actuality narrative inquiry is frequently built around collaborative endeavors, whether with students (Gibson 2002; Johansen 2002) or with fellow teachers (Boshell 2002; Mann 2002). Perhaps the overarching idea to emerge from narrative inquiry as collaborative teacher development is the need for teachers to construct shared stories from which they can learn in communal as well as individual ways.

Cooperative development is a framework for professional development devised by Julian Edge (Edge 1992, 2002). Cooperative development involves peer teachers investigating their own work through carefully designed forms of nonjudgmental discourse. Unlike action research and narrative inquiry, Cooperative development is by its very nature collaborative, requiring at the very minimum a speaker and an understander (roles assumed by agreement within a given session of cooperative development). Examples of cooperative development have been described in the professional literature (e.g., Boshell 2002; Edge 2002, 2006; Mann 2002).

Exploratory practice was developed by Dick Allwright (e.g., 2003) as a way of pursuing teacher learning and teacher development while retaining a primary focus on the teacher's main job of conducting effective instruction. In exploratory practice, teachers investigate "puzzles" in their teaching context by integrating research procedures such as data gathering into regular classroom work – for example, teachers use a written assignment to gather data on student attitudes. Exploratory practice thus frequently involves teachers collaborating with learners, as well as with colleagues and others. Examples of exploratory practice with a significant collaborative component are described in Gunn (2003), Miller (2003), Perpignan (2003), Slimani-Rolls (2003), and Zhang (2004).

Along with the more formalized approaches previously outlined, there are a number of what might be termed "method-neutral" techniques that are often used for, or in, CTD. Several of these are worth mentioning here as constituting helpful components in the repertoire of collaborative teacher development.

First, there are dialog journals (Burton and Carroll 2001). As the name implies, a *dialog journal* is by its very nature collaborative, and has been found to be a powerful tool in teacher development. Indeed, several of the studies and reports mentioned throughout this chapter have involved dialog journals as part of the CTD endeavor. (See also Burton, Chapter 30, for more on reflective practice in teacher development.)

Another fundamentally collaborative form of teacher development are teacher study groups (TSGs). TSGs can take a number of formats and focuses, but all share the fundamental feature of organized and focused forms of interaction among teachers. Examples include Clair (1998), Dubetz (2004), and Sato (2003). Clair (1998) also provides a particularly thoughtful discussion of the potential pitfalls of teacher study groups.

A third excellent form of CTD is team teaching. Although much team teaching has involved rather artificial forms of micro-teaching or unequal pairings such as master teacher–apprentice teacher, it is also possible to generate powerful shared learning

experiences through collaboration between peer teachers, especially when both are able to be present in the classroom and to plan beforehand and reflect afterward on their shared experience. Examples of team teaching as CTD include Johnston et al. (1991), Field and Nagai (2003), and Stewart and Lokon (2003); there is a very helpful discussion of team teaching in Chapter 10 of Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan (2001).

A fourth possibility is that of long-distance collaboration. Edge (2006) looks at a concrete example of computer-mediated professional development using cooperative development as a framework. Beck and Janzen (2003) describe another form of distance collaboration. In each case, long-distance collaboration offers possibilities for CTD to those who are professionally isolated or otherwise geographically restricted (see Hall and Knox, Chapter 22).

Finally, it is important to remember that CTD is not restricted to the aforementioned formats and approaches, but can take many other forms too. Indeed, the possibilities are infinite. To close, it is worth mentioning at least four of these: peer visitation (Clair and Adger 2000); peer interviewing (Gorsuch and Beglar 2003); peer-mentor observation (Deacon 2003); and publishing communities (Murphey et al. 2003).

Issues and Directions

Challenges and Hopes

Collaborative teacher development is a vital option in the professional development repertoire of language teachers. The professional literature indicates that CTD is becoming increasingly popular and diverse, and that it is gaining greater recognition as a central component of the educational process as a whole.

Against this background, I will end by raising two fundamental challenges that, if they not actually inherent to the great majority of contexts in which CTD is or could be practiced, are certainly widespread. One of these challenges is what I term *internal*, that is, it lies within the professional development itself. The second is *external*, being found in the contexts in which CTD takes place.

The internal challenge is the inherent power imbalance in a great many collaborative relationships, especially teacher-researcher partnerships (Stewart 2006; Toohey and Waterstone 2004). As Stewart (2006) points out, the broader societal status differential between university professors and schoolteachers is reproduced in the field of language teaching. This means that in all teacher-researcher collaborations there exists the potential for trouble, for example, in the form of a lack of true respect for the knowledge and contributions brought to the collaboration by the teacher.

There is no universal solution for this problem. Those of us who regard the researcher-teacher status differential as problematic do what we can to promote, for example, teachers' ways of knowing as a source of professional understanding that is at least as important as researcher-generated knowledge. This is an important and necessary step; but it will probably not be enough to change public prejudices. In light of this fact, any researcher-teacher partnership needs to be approached with caution by both sides. Specifically, certain steps can be taken. First, we should not kid ourselves: Whichever individuals are concerned, there will always be a public preference for the voice of the researcher. Part of the researcher's moral obligation is to use the opportunities this fact provides so as to redress the balance, for example, taking advantage of public occasions such as conference presentations and publications to acknowledge the contribution of both sides of the collaboration. Teachers, in turn, need to stand up for themselves – take themselves, their ideas and insights, and their contributions seriously, and resist the temptation to accept others' views of their standing.

The external challenge is that of institutional support. Wherever it is done and whatever form it takes, CTD requires resources and also significant investments of time and energy on the part of overworked teachers. Though it can usually be conducted somehow or other under adverse conditions, it can only thrive if the institution supports it. Support, furthermore, must be twofold: first, logistical and financial support; and second, what we might call moral support. The former might take the form of small grants, travel money, opportunities for reduced teaching loads, and so on. The latter, moral support, is if anything even more important: Principals, directors, chairs, and administrations generally need to recognize the *worth* of CTD, to understand the importance of what their teachers are doing, and to accept the consequences. Alas, it is not at all the case that such attitudes are prevalent, or even common. However, all the research indicates that where they are found (see, for example, Dubetz 2004 on Professional Development Schools), CTD can indeed thrive, making for a workplace that is creative, intellectually vibrant, and that has a sense of community. This last point cannot be overstressed: Collaborative teacher development is not an add-on luxury for rare cases, but a vital component of any healthy, forward-looking educational setting.

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CHAPTER 25

The Practicum

Jerry G. Gebhard

INTRODUCTION[1]

Offering the kind of school-based experiences within a teacher education curriculum that can help teacher-learners to make a transition from their academic program to the realities of teaching in a school is an important consideration for language teacher educators. The focus of this chapter is primarily on how practicum teacher educators and teacher-learners can approach teaching as development (as opposed to training) through a variety of practical teacher development activities. I highlight that these activities, if conceptualized within a teacher development framework, not only offer opportunities for teacher-learners to examine and understand their teaching values and behaviors while taking the practicum, but also provide the skills that they can use to continually develop their teaching throughout their careers. However, unlike Legutke and Schocker-v. Ditfurth (Chapter 21), who provide an overall conceptualization for integrating school-based experience into the curriculum, this chapter focuses exclusively on the use of the practicum by language teacher educators as a transitional process.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

The practicum has long been recognized as an important part of an English language teacher's education[2], and it is included in most programs, whether offered within an ELT, TESOL, or English Education curriculum. A practicum usually involves supervised teaching, experience with systematic observation, and gaining familiarity with a particular teaching context.

A variety of terms is used to refer to the practicum, including *practice teaching*, *field experience*, *apprenticeship*, *practical experience*, and *internship*. However, teacher–learners' experiences in these different types of practicum may vary considerably in intensity and level of responsibility. For example, during an internship the teacher–learner

might be an assistant, but in a practice teaching setting, he or she might carry a full teaching load.

However, despite the variation in terminology, role, responsibility, and setting, the goals are generally much the same. As Richards and Crookes (1988) point out, practicum goals include providing opportunities for teacher–learners to: (1) gain practical classroom teaching experience; (2) apply theory and teaching ideas from previous course work; (3) discover from observing experienced teachers; (4) enhance lesson-planning skills; (5) gain skills in selecting, adapting, and developing original course materials. They can also include enabling teacher–learners to (6) expand awareness of how to set their own goals related to improving their teaching (Crookes 2003); (7) question, articulate, and reflect on their own teaching and learning philosophies, which include an amalgamation of assumptions, beliefs, values, educational, and life experiences (Crookes 2003; Gebhard and Oprandy 1999; Johnson 1996a; Pennington 1990; Richards 1998); and (8) see their own teaching differently by learning *how* to make their own informed teaching decisions through systematic observation and exploration of their own and others' teaching (Fanselow 1988; Gebhard and Oprandy 1999).

To achieve such goals a variety of teacher development activities are typically employed, including teaching a class, self-observation, observing other teachers, and keeping a teaching journal (discussed in more detail later in this chapter). Such activities offer opportunities for teacher–learners to become aware of their teaching beliefs (see Borg, Chapter 16) and practices during the practicum as well as gain skills needed to continually develop their teaching throughout their careers.

Overview

In the past the practicum experience was often rooted within a *training* framework (see Burns and Richards, introduction to this volume). Such a focus encouraged teachers to isolate, practice, and master specific behaviors, such as questioning techniques, wait time, teacher talk, and use of praise behaviors. However, although training teachers to manipulate discrete behaviors can be a useful part of educating language teachers (Larsen-Freeman 1983), teacher educators, including Larsen-Freeman, have recognized that such an emphasis only on manipulating discrete classroom behavior is limiting.

Over the past two decades, through efforts to broaden the theory, practice, and scope of educating language teachers (Fanselow 1987, 1988, 1992a; Freeman 1989; Larsen-Freeman 1983; Richards 1987; Richards and Nunan 1990), there has been a gradual shift to an emphasis on the notion of teacher development. As the statement of practicum goals presented earlier suggests, teacher educators who approach the practicum as development attempt to provide teacher–learners with opportunities to gain deepening awareness of their teaching practices, and the personal values and beliefs that underlie them (see Golombek, Chapter 15, and Borg, Chapter 16), as well as awareness of how they can set their own longer-term teacher-development goals. Likewise, a development focus approaches the practicum as an opportunity for teachers to learn how they can make their own informed teaching decisions, as well as how to reflect on, explore their own teaching (see Burton, Chapter 30). Through practicum experiences in the developmental perspective, the teacher–learner can continue to grow, adapt, and explore teaching as a career-long process.

Current Approaches and Practices

As already suggested, the practicum makes use of multiple teacher development activities. In this section classroom teaching, teaching journals, observation of other teachers,

self-observation, and seminar discussions are briefly discussed. Other pertinent activities, such as mentoring, teacher supervision, and action research are discussed in other chapters and therefore are not addressed (see Malderez, Chapter 26; Bailey, Chapter 27; and Burns, Chapter 29). Other activities closely connected to the practicum, such as teacher portfolios (Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan 1998, 2001; Dong 2000; Johnson 1996b; Richards and Farrell 2005) are also not discussed.

TEACHING A CLASS

At the core of the practicum is teaching a class. Teaching is central to the practicum experience because it not only provides direct experience of interacting with students, but it also provides the contexts and content for other activities, such as self-observation, peer observation, and discussions. When taken together, these multiple teaching-centered activities provide opportunities for teacher–learners to gain a renewed understanding of themselves as teachers, including awareness of their teaching philosophy and behaviors (Gebhard 1990; Gebhard, Gaitan, and Oprandy 1987). They also contribute to a deeper understanding of moral and ethical issues that are pervasive in teaching encounters and experiences (Crookes 2003).

SELF-OBSERVATION

Teacher–learners can gain an understanding of their teaching through systematic non-judgmental observation (Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan 1998, 2001; Fanselow 1977, 1987, 1988; Gebhard 2006; Gebhard and Oprandy 1999). Such observation can include asking teacher–learners to record their teaching, listen to or view the tape as they collect descriptions of classroom interaction through the use of notes, sketches, tallying behaviors, short transcripts, and coding with observation systems such as FOCUS (Fanselow 1977, 1987; Gebhard and Ueda-Motonaga 1992) or COLT (Allen, Fröhlich, and Spada 1984). These descriptions can then be studied, discussed, and used as case studies for learning with other teachers.

Fanselow (1988) highlights that teacher–learners need to go beyond simply collecting descriptions of teaching. They also need to reflect on what these descriptions mean. For example, teacher–learners can be asked to reflect on the answers to such questions as, "Am I providing chances for students to learn English (i.e., process writing; speak spontaneously; read faster with comprehension)? Do I block them from learning English? What are my beliefs about teaching? Are my teaching practices consistent with these beliefs? Do I do what I think I do in the classroom?" (Gebhard 2005, 2006). Fanselow (1988, 1997) further advocates that teachers attempt to go beyond their preconceived ideas about what they believe about teaching by giving multiple interpretations to the descriptions, including outlandish interpretations. This approach assists novice teachers to uncover views of classroom behavior based on experiences of schooling or preconceived ideas about teaching and classroom behavior (see Farrell, Chapter 18).

Fanselow (1987, 1988, 1992a, 1992b) also advocates that teachers use their descriptions to explore their teaching by *trying the opposite*, such as changing the locations they usually occupy in the classroom or altering class reading procedures. Otherwise, the exploration can involve planning a *calculated change*, for example, by altering the mode by which classroom instructions are given from verbal to written.

OBSERVATION OF OTHER TEACHERS

Understanding what experienced teachers do and the professional discourses they use is an essential aspect of developing professional expertise (see Hedgecock, Chapter 14, and Tsui,

Chapter 19). However, as Bailey, Curtis, and Nunan (2001) and Fanselow (1988) remind us, observing teachers need not exclude other teacher–learners. Whether the observed teacher is experienced or not, the goal is the same – to see "one's own teaching differently" (Fanselow 1988: 115). Seeing teaching differently, teacher–learners can "construct and reconstruct, and revise (their) own teaching" (p. 116).

The process of observing other teachers is much the same as self-observation. As with self-observation, teacher–learners can collect descriptions of teaching or record classroom interactions, analyze them, and offer multiple interpretations about what they might mean (Fanselow 1988). Observation tasks in Day (1990), Gebhard and Oprandy (1999), and Wajnryb (1992) offer a range of tasks that can be used in conjunction with processes and experiences of observation.

THE USE OF TEACHING JOURNALS

Journals provide a place to "criticise, doubt, express frustration, and raise questions" (Bailey 1990: 218), articulate and explore teaching beliefs and practices, as well as keep a record of self-observations and observations in other classrooms, conversations, teaching ideas, teaching questions and answers, and personal thoughts about developing a teacher identity.

Journals can be either intrapersonal or dialogic (Burton and Carroll 2001; Gebhard and Oprandy 1999). *Intrapersonal journals*, in their purest form, are very private and personal and primarily read only by the writer. Privacy creates an opportunity for teacher–learners to explore thoughts and insights that they might not be comfortable sharing with an outside audience. However, keeping a *dialogue journal* (also known as a collaborative journal) in which teacher–learners can read and comment on each others' entries is also of value. Writing in a journal and commenting on others' entries enables teacher–learners to see that feelings, issues, accomplishments, and problems about teaching are common and removes typical feelings of isolation that come with classroom teaching (Brock, Yu, and Wong 1992; Nagamine 2007). Likewise, teacher–learners learn about approaches, explorations, and analyses undertaken by others.

Bailey (1990) notes the importance for teacher–learners to read the journal, whether it be personal or dialog, to identify salient features as well as to write synthesis entries on what has been learned about themselves as teachers. It is through such reflective reading that their identities as teachers can construct and reconstruct themselves (see Miller, Chapter 17).

DISCUSSIONS IN SEMINARS

The practicum seminar offers teacher–learners opportunities to talk about procedures, discuss teaching problems, issues, and accomplishments, show taped lessons, and describe, analyze, and interpret them.

Crookes (2003) recommends having a seminar leader (whose role may rotate) to increase the potential for making seminar discussions more meaningful. This individual performs a number of functions, including "initiating discussion, stating or selecting topics, making sure the group is on topic, time keeping, summarising, keeping notes, and concluding" (p. 33–34).

ISSUES AND DIRECTIONS

THE VALUE OF INNOVATION

There is evidence that teacher educators are using innovative practicum practices. For example, Lo (1996) involved teacher–learners in Hong Kong in a period of exposure to secondary school before the practice teaching period. The results pointed to the value of interacting

with and observing cooperating teachers and assisting them in preparation of lessons before they begin their formal practice teaching responsibilities at the school. Stoynoff (1999) also discovered value in innovation. He describes a practicum in Hong Kong that was spread out over a 12-month period, moving from an orientation to observation to mentored teaching, to portfolio development. Likewise, Kamhi-Stein (2000) found promising practice by integrating computer-mediated communication tools into a masters TESOL program practicum and describing how such tools possibly contributed to teacher development.

Such innovative practicum practices are likely initiated through a desire to provide teacher–learners with a fulfilling practicum experience, rather than to search for best practice for all programs. However, descriptions of such innovations can be quite useful to other teacher educators.

THE CONCERN OF UNDERSTANDING PRACTICUM EXPERIENCES OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS

Johnson (1996a) points out that we know little about "how pre-service teachers conceptualise their initial teaching experiences, and what impact these experiences have on their professional development as teachers" (p. 30). Such knowledge is needed to build grounded theories about how to teach second language teachers to teach (Freeman 1989; Johnson 1992).

Over the last decade, educators from around the world have increasingly responded to the plea for more research. Johnson (1996a), for example, describes the initial teaching experiences of a preservice teacher, Maja, during a TESOL practicum in the United States and how awareness of her personal beliefs about teaching and learning through this experience shaped her understanding of herself as a teacher. Holten and Brinton (1995) used dialogue journals to chart the thinking of novice ESL teachers, and Numrich (1996) used diary studies to understand the common concerns and discoveries shared among novice teachers taking a practicum. Likewise, Nagamine (2007) used collaborative journaling, ethnographic style interviewing, and group discussions to investigate how preservice EFL teachers studying in a practicum at a university in Japan gained awareness of their teaching beliefs. In a similar manner, Yahya (2000) explored how novice teachers in Malaysia became more aware of their teaching by keeping a reflective teaching journal. Such research contributes to our understanding of the practicum and its impact on teacher development.

THE ISSUE OF TRANSFER

Flowerdew (1999: 141) asks, "How can we assume that the ideals and practices we encourage our students to develop in the supervised practicum are carried over into their careers as teachers?" As Legutke and Schocker-v. Ditfurth indicate (Chapter 21), and as Richards and Pennington's (1998) research shows, transferring knowledge is complex and does not necessarily occur. For example, Richards and Pennington discovered that during the first year of teaching, five graduates from a bachelors ESL teacher-education program in Hong Kong abandoned some of the beliefs in communicative language teaching they had developed in their teacher-education program. This was partly due to the constraints of their teaching context (e.g., teaching to the test, large classes, discipline problems) pressuring them away from their belief in a communicative approach.

The idea that teachers develop personal teaching beliefs only to discard them raises concerns, which some scholars have recently attempted to address. Rather than focusing on the idea of helping learners *transfer* learning, teacher educators have been "work(ing) with learners of teaching to 'construct' identities that can guide them in social communities

of schools" (Freeman 1994: 15). Such a framework sees learning to teach not as transferring knowledge, but rather as building an identity through social practice (see Miller, Chapter 17). The more secure teachers are with their professional identity, the better they can interpret and negotiate new teacher settings.

Several studies have begun to investigate identity building (i.e., Freeman 1994, 2002; Freeman and Johnson 1998; Johnson 2006). For example, Johnson and Golombek (2002) gathered documented accounts of teacher learning and language teaching through the perspective of teachers. These accounts show how teachers "come to know their knowledge, how they use that knowledge within the contexts where they teach, and how they make sense of and reconfigure their classroom practices in and over time" (p. 2). Such insights inform and remind teacher educators, including those teaching the practicum, that learning to teach is a social, contextualized, dynamic, and cognitive process.

Nonetheless, one problem with such research and resulting theoretical knowledge is that it does not necessarily show teacher–learners how to continue to construct and reconstruct their teaching as they develop throughout their careers. However, as work by Fanselow's (1987, 1988, 1997) and the author (Gebhard 2005; Gebhard and Oprandy 1999; Gebhard and Ueda-Motonaga 1992) have consistently shown, it is possible for practicum teacher educators to focus attention on empowering teacher–learners as to *how* to understand their teaching. Through an understanding of how to explore their teaching, they can adapt their teaching, including their beliefs, to their teaching setting, as well as be able to continuously construct and reconstruct their teaching and teacher identities.

Acknowledgments

Research for this chapter was partially funded through a grant from Pusan National University, Korea.

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Notes

[1] I thank Sandra Harris and Irene Pannatier for their valuable assistance.

[2] As an example of the establishment of the practicum as a pertinent part of TESOL program curriculum, I point to a set of guidelines drafted by James Alatis (revised by William E. Norris) in 1970 when the practicum was officially recognized as a major component of a curriculum. See Fanselow and Light (1977) for these and other guidelines.

CHAPTER 26

Mentoring

Angi Malderez

INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins by considering similarities and differences among mentors, supervisors and others who help teachers learn and develop. Drawing on the work of many in the field, conditions needed for mentoring to be effective are discussed. Finally, a view of what mentoring is, what mentors are, and what they do is presented.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

TERMINOLOGICAL CONFUSIONS

One school has a teacher called a "mentor" who is responsible for students from university-based initial teacher-preparation programs during their placements in the school. Another school has a teacher called a "supervisor" who has a similar job description. In two further schools, two people both have the title "mentor" and are charged with "looking after" trainees on school placement and yet engage in very different day-to-day practices in their workplaces and in relation to their mentees. One education system has "professional mentors," "subject mentors," and an "ITT" (Initial Teacher Training) coordinator involved with the learning of a student-teacher in a school; in another system there is a single "mentor," or "supervisor." There is a certain amount of terminological confusion in the field.

Many (e.g., Bailey 2006) note this terminological confusion. It seems to result in part from different historical views of the process of teacher learning and the roles of others in supporting that process. The role-title "supervisor" in teacher education, it could be argued, is a leftover from a view of teacher learning as a straightforward process of practicing to "do it right." The role of the supervisor was to assess through observation whether it was "done right" or not, passing on his or her assessment and giving the trainee advice on what

to improve and how to do better next time. However, much of what makes for good teaching is not observable, and views of teacher learning have shifted to include constructivist (e.g., Richardson 1997), socio-cultural (e.g., Lave and Wenger 1991) and cognitive skill theory (e.g., Tomlinson 1995) perspectives. In addition to developing classroom skills, student language teachers need to be helped to participate in a professional community, become willing to investigate themselves and their teaching, become better at noticing (Mason 2002) – a crucial underpinning skill for investigations as well as responsive teaching – and develop complex, insightful and "robust reasoning" (Johnson 1999). A different approach and correspondingly a new role-title was needed. The role of the "personal" in teachers' professional lives and careers (Day 2004; Hobson et al. 2006a), may have influenced the choice of the role-title "mentor," signaling as it does for many, the personally supportive aspect of the role.[1]

So far, in an attempt to define terms, mentors and supervisors have been contrasted. Another useful contrast is between mentors and other teachers of teachers (ToTs). ToTs may be called "tutors," "trainers," or "teacher educators," for example, and their identity is more likely to be "language teacher trainer" or "university lecturer" than "language teacher" (see Wright, Chapter 10). ToTs usually work with groups of learners in specific "learning spaces" (training room, lecture theater) and often in buildings and institutions other than schools. Mentors, on the other hand, work one-to-one, usually in the mentee's workplace, and are full and current members of the language teacher community the mentee is joining.

A VIEW ON WHAT MENTORING IS

This chapter sees a mentoring process as being supportive of the transformation or development of the mentee and of their acceptance into a professional community. A supervisory process, on the other hand, is seen as more concerned with the maintenance of standards within an organization, or system. Having said that, many who retain the role-title "supervisor" and who write on current practices in "supervision" (e.g., Gebhard 1990; and others cited by Bailey, Chapter 27) describe aims, purposes, and practices that are more similar to those of mentoring as defined here.

It is this process of one-to-one, workplace-based, contingent and personally appropriate support for the *person* during their professional acclimatization (or integration), learning, growth, and development, which is referred to as mentoring in this chapter. In brief, therefore, mentoring of those engaged in becoming or developing as language teachers is situated and largely workplace-based and deals with the realities of the particular – the particular school, class, child, and teacher, within particular contexts.

OVERVIEW

Colley (2002: 272) describes a "rose-tinted aura of celebration" that usually surrounds abstract discussions of mentoring and argues for the need to get beyond this and find out what actually happens. Such a body of work is now beginning to emerge.

CONDITIONS FOR EFFECTIVE MENTORING

Experience and investigations of the reality of mentoring in teacher education (however conceived) have indicated that, first of all, mentoring needs to occur within supportive systems. An education system that is supportive of mentoring is one, for example, that

provides mentors with sufficient time to mentor, as well as to learn and develop as mentors (e.g., Lee and Feng 2007). In addition, such a system will provide recognition in the form of increased salary and / or career advancement. Policy decisions are, however, played out by individuals working under pressure of competing demands. At the level of the school community, for example, the school head and every member of a senior management system need to be convinced of the value of mentoring to the whole school in order to protect the time allocated for it. Studies have shown (e.g., McNally et al. 1997) that when all school staff are supportive of both the mentor and the trainee and of the place and role of a focus on learning teaching (as well as on all the other curriculum subjects) within the school, it can also make a positive difference to student-teachers' experience.[2] On the other hand, where other people surrounding the mentee are perceived as "stressors," "restrictors," "alienators," "disempowerers," or "controllers" there may be a negative effect on professional development (Elmajdob 2004).

In initial teacher preparation, mentoring often occurs within a partnership between a license-giving institution (university or college) and the school. Within these different institutions, there is a need for all to be clear on the different roles each performs in respect of student-teachers' learning. When this is not clear in a particular partnership, or when it is unclear to the individuals involved, support for the individual student teacher will be less effective (Brooks 2000; Chapel 2003; Bullough and Draper 2004). Being clear on roles also implies a shared understanding of the vision of the program and the principles and theories of language teacher learning behind its design, as well as time together to develop such shared understandings (Malderez 2004; Hobson et al. 2006b). Some programs once used the term *co-trainer* (Malderez and Bodoczky 1999), and others advocate the use of *co-tutor* when discussing school-based mentors (Pachler and Field 2001) in order to emphasize this need for shared vision and responsibility.

It is not only the teachers of teachers involved in the program who need to be clear about their roles. The mentees, also, need to understand and accept their "learner" role, often at a time when, in their efforts to transform themselves from student to teacher, their main focus is on their developing identity as teachers (Edwards 1997; Carver and Katz 2004).

SPECIFIC ISSUES IN LANGUAGE TEACHER MENTORING

So far we have discussed mentoring for (student) teacher learning at a general level, partly because, as Brown notes "much of the recent literature on mentoring has focussed on generic issues" (2001: 69). Some writing is, however, beginning to emerge about subject or phase-specific mentoring (e.g., Brown 2001; Gray 2001; Hudson 2004; Jarvis et al. 2001). Brown (2001) writing about language teacher mentoring, discusses the clashes between a mentor, who taught language in "traditional" ways, and the mentee whose approach to teaching was more "communicative." This raises issues for mentor selection and / or mentor preparation, as well as educational reform: When changes in pedagogical approach are advocated, it is not enough only to train new teachers in these. A further issue of specific relevance to language teacher mentoring is the question of which language (target or other shared world language – usually the mother tongue) will be used in mentoring discussions. The main advantages of using the target language put forward by language teacher mentors with whom I have worked have largely related to opportunities for proficiency development and maintenance for both mentor and mentee. Reported difficulties associated with target language use in mentoring discussions centered on vulnerability and power issues for either mentor or mentee, or other members of school staff, especially in contexts where the main or only widely accepted criterion of a good language teacher remains their own personal language proficiency (see Kamhi-Stein, Chapter 9).

MENTOR PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES

In addition to any updating in subject-specific pedagogy that may be needed (which may require considerable time if a whole new language teaching approach is also to be adopted by mentors-to-be), mentors need opportunities for preparation for their new role. Like any form of teaching, mentoring, as many have suggested (e.g., Furlong and Maynard 1995), needs to be built on a clear understanding of the learning processes it is intended to support. Therefore, the provision of adequate support for mentors to acquire the additional knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for the role is essential. Some authors suggest the preparation of teachers-becoming-mentors needs to be experientially based (Malderez and Bodoczky 1999; Garvey and Alred 2000) or dialogic (Orland-Barack 2001; Pitton 2006). For in-service mentor development and support, a story or case-based pedagogy has been advocated (Gray 2001, Orland-Barack 2002, Malderez and Wendell 2007, Zeek et al. 2001). The support also needs to provide the conditions for "mentor vulnerability" to transform into mentor confidence, if mentees are not going to need to expend valuable and scarce energy "managing the mentors" (Maynard 2000). Finally, for mentor development to occur, sufficient time is needed, not only for the development of skills, but for mentors to develop a "language with which to think and talk about *teaching*," (Malderez and Bodoczky 1999, see also Hedgcock, Chapter 14), as well as a language of *mentoring* (Orland-Barack 2001).

BENEFITS OF MENTORING

In addition to contributing to supportive conditions for student teacher learning, effective mentoring can also benefit the mentors and the education system.

It would seem that mentoring benefits mentors in a number of ways (Malderez and Bodoczky 1997). In a review of studies on the impact of mentoring on the mentors, Huling and Resta (2001) conclude "the benefits mentors derive from mentoring may be of equal, or even greater, importance than those experienced by novice teachers."

In systems where teacher retention is an issue, mentoring may be a helpful strategy. For example, Smith and Ingersoll found that "when beginning teachers were provided with mentors from the same subject field" and had collaborated with other teachers, they were "less likely to move to other schools and less likely to leave the teaching occupation after their first year of teaching" (2004: 681; see also Farrell, Chapter 18).

Finally, and increasingly, in-service mentoring is seen as a valuable strategy in educational reform contexts (Wedell 2003). However, as Feiman-Nemser notes, "If mentoring is to function as a strategy of reform, it must be linked to a [*shared*] vision of good teaching, guided by an understanding of teacher learning, and supported by a professional culture that favours collaboration and inquiry." (Feiman-Nemser 1996: 1, my insertion).

CURRENT APPROACHES AND PRACTICES

WHAT MENTORS ARE AND ARE NOT

Mentors aim to train or develop their mentee's professional thinking skills (on, for, and in action), and support mentees in aspects of the processes of professional decision making or learning.

According to Malderez and Bodoczky (1999) mentors are **models** of a way of teaching, but more important, of "being a teacher" in the context; **acculturators** enabling the mentee to become fully integrated into a specific context and community; **supporters** of the mentee as a person during the often emotionally charged process of transformation that the learning can require; champions or **sponsors** of their mentee in terms of doing everything they can to ensure both the mentee's acceptance into the professional community and the availability of

optimal conditions for learning; and finally **educators** – in the sense of scaffolding (Wood et al. 1976) the processes of mentee learning for becoming or being a teacher, for teaching and for learning teaching.

In a paper in the *Educational Researcher*, House (1991) discusses a view of educational research from a realist perspective and suggests a dimension to the notion of "validity," which encompasses "the validity with which teachers and other practitioners draw conclusions for themselves on the basis of their experience" (1991: 9). He further asserts that, "unfortunately, in the search for general laws, not much attention has been paid to improving particular teachers' concrete inferences directly." This is a principal aim of the mentoring process: to support teachers in drawing, and getting better at drawing, "conclusions for themselves on the basis of their experience." Mentoring therefore fully takes into account, legitimizes and "hears" research findings that have long reported teachers' perceptions that they "learn best from experience" (see, for example, research from Lortie 1975 to Hobson et al. 2006b).

Mentors are not, therefore, assessors, advisors, or trainers in the most usually accepted senses, although they will, of course, assess the mentee's teaching in order to diagnose needs and decide how best to proceed. In mentoring, however, as opposed to more supervisory approaches, these assessments are not disclosed to the mentee or anyone else (although the interpersonal context may make this possible in later stages of the relationship). Rather they serve as triggers for the mentor's thinking, decision-making and planning. Nor will mentors, in this view, want to give any "advice" in the sense of telling mentees what they should do or think, nor train the mentee for classroom behaviors which are considered by the mentor to be "correct" or "good" (although they may coach, or arrange for coaching if requested by the mentee). Modeling responsiveness to learner needs, a mentor may choose to adopt more "directive" style (Freeman 1989; and see Bailey, Chapter 27) during early stages of a mentoring process, and particularly in initial teacher preparation, when teacher–learners are often particularly keen to access the practical knowledge and wisdom of their mentors. This can be a challenge for mentors, particularly for beginning mentors who may not easily be able to articulate such knowledge, and some authors (e.g., Meijer et al. 2002) suggest strategies mentees might employ to access this knowledge.

So, what exactly do mentors, in this view of mentoring, do?

WHAT MENTORS DO

Mentors provide two kinds of help. The first is help in an ordinary sense, that is, a mentor may offer to do things *for* the mentee, such as get materials copied in order to calm a busy and stressed mentee, or ask another teacher if their mentee might observe them, or provide the listening ear so often needed during the initial teacher preparation process (Hobson et al. 2006b). The second kind of help is the educationally supportive process of scaffolding the learning of the core skills of professional learning, thinking, and action: noticing, learning from experience, and informed planning and preparation. In this second kind of help, it will usually not be appropriate to do things *for* the mentee (such as assess or decide), as it is the mentee who must not only learn to teach (better) but also learn to review and assess his or her work independently.

All too often student teachers have difficulties in seeing the practical relevance of the "theory" they are asked to learn (Hobson et al. 2006a). A mentor who helps a mentee recall or suggests the use of a particular theoretical lens, or conceptual tool, to consider or plan for an aspect of their teaching can do much to help close any perceived "theory-practice" gap. A further mentoring aim is, therefore, to assist the mentee in linking and seeing the relevance of various kinds of knowledge derived from various sources (e.g., codified knowledge from books or studies, intuitive and often wordless knowledge derived from experience, skilled knowledge, which may or may not be consciously held), during the process of supporting

the development of noticing, and professional learning, thinking and planning skills (Yost et al. 2000).

In order to do all this, first and foremost mentors need to spend time listening to the mentee talk about their teaching, and through judicious prompts guide the mentee, in thinking aloud investigations, which lead to the mentee's making of informed conclusions about what to do next for their pupils' and their own learning, with the mentor providing information, ideas, and options as necessary[3]. This enables the mentee to gain practice in, and eventually automatize, the informed professional thinking processes that underpin flexible teaching of the kind that is responsive to both pupil needs and changing contextual realities.

Observing the mentee teaching is not, in this view, as central a mentor practice as in some approaches. When it occurs, what the mentor does with what they have noticed will be visibly different from what assessors do. For example, in a post-lesson discussion, a mentor might support the mentee's recall of what happened by offering additional descriptive observations to "complete a picture" (a necessary initial step in a process of reviewing, or "seeing again"). They might also offer such descriptive (rather than evaluative or judgmental) observations when the mentee is searching for possible interpretations of events or details they did notice. Alternatively, a mentor might use the contrast between their own observations and the way a mentee describes and talks about the same lesson to assess the mentee's "noticing skill development needs," and / or be open to assessing their own in this regard. What a mentor, in this view, will be striving *not* to need to do is "give feedback," in the sense of telling the mentee how they have interpreted what they observed and the judgements and conclusions they have come to as a result of those interpretations. Strictly speaking, feedback can only come from the receivers of an action (in this case the pupils taught by the mentee), and it will be the mentor's job to help their mentee notice and become better at noticing that feedback.[4] The mentor will also support the mentee in observing other teachers, and in noticing aspects of the range of often easy-seeming and fluent expert practice such teachers display.

Thus ends a discussion on what mentors are and what they do "in theory." In reality, of course, mentors vary in how they view the role and whether they do in fact think and behave as described earlier (Wang and Odell 2002).

Issues and Directions

In view of current perspectives on language teacher education discussed earlier and elsewhere in this volume, and despite the challenges for the work of mentors, mentoring is becoming established in language teacher education: I have been fortunate to work with mentors who support language teacher learning in many parts of the world, from Hungary and Romania to Sri Lanka, and Chile to Latvia.

Potentially, school-based mentoring has a unique and important contribution to make to language teacher learning, in particular to the development of noticing skills, professional thinking and learning from experience, as well as to mentees' integration of knowledges of various kinds. However, if its potential is to be realized, and its additional benefits accrued, attention must be paid to ensuring that the conditions in which mentoring occurs are as fully supportive as possible.

Acknowledgments

The following friends, Andy Hobson, Caroline Bodoczky, Martin Wedell, and Joy Griffiths read and made helpful comments on earlier drafts of this chapter. TESOL colleagues in the

School of Education, the University of Leeds, and members of the Becoming a Teacher research project team kept wheels turning during the study leave in which this was written. I thank them all.

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Notes

[1] Some seem to see mentoring as referring only or mainly to this personal support role and overall guidance responsibility. In the United Kingdom, for example, the expression "mentoring and coaching" is current (see, for example, Centre for Use of Research and Evidence in Education [CUREE] -cpd@curee.co.uk). Thus, referring to mentoring *and* coaching suggests that mentoring may not involve the mentor in coaching. Others, including myself, would see coaching (of noticing, of learning from experiences – "reflecting" – or of the whole complex open skill of teaching), as not only included in but at the heart of mentoring in teacher education.

[2] Titles relating to setting up mentoring systems at school level include, for example, Portner 2001.

[3] For further details on this view and process see Malderez and Wedell 2007.

[4] The term *give feedback* when used in relation to post-lesson discussions has come to encompass a wide range of actual practices, from "mentor"-delivered judgements to more collaborative discussions. I have, however, found that, as a term, it can get in the way of understanding mentoring, suggesting as it does that the *main* purpose of post-lesson discussions is for the mentor to do the "giving" (talking / transmitting).

CHAPTER 27

Language Teacher Supervision

Kathleen M. Bailey

Introduction

This chapter will define supervision and then provide a brief overview of some key literature. It will summarize current approaches and practices in language teacher supervision and then consider some problematic issues and possible future directions. The chapter will close with suggestions for further reading about this important topic.

In language education, teacher supervisors have many different roles. Some are senior and / or successful teachers with responsibilities for guiding less experienced or less capable colleagues. Others hold positions as department chairpersons, program directors, coordinators, or headmistresses, and may not have concurrent teaching responsibilities.

Unfortunately, language teacher supervisors seldom receive specific training in how to be effective supervisors. Perhaps for this reason, "the major concept of current supervisory behaviour is its undue emphasis on reactive performance – doing things as a result of a crisis orientation – rather than through careful, logical planning and preparation" (Daresh 2001: 25). The purpose of this brief chapter, then, is to consider some key issues in language teacher supervision.

Scope and Definitions

In general education, supervision has been defined as "an organisational responsibility and function focused upon the assessment and refinement of current practices" (Goldsberry 1988: 1). Likewise, "supervision is a process of overseeing the ability of people to meet the goals of the organisation in which they work" (Daresh 2001: 25).

In language education, supervision has been defined as "an ongoing process of teacher education in which the supervisor observes what goes on in the teacher's classroom with an eye toward the goal of improved instruction" (Gebhard 1990: 1). A supervisor is "anyone

who has . . . the duty of monitoring and improving the quality of teaching done by other colleagues in an educational situation" (Wallace 1991: 107).

Overview

Academic literature about supervision throughout the late 1900s consisted largely of descriptions of supervisory approaches. For instance, Goldsberry (1988) described three models: nominal supervision, the prescriptive model, and reflective supervision. Acheson and Gall (1997) described general categories of teacher supervision, including those of inspector, counsellor, coach, consultant, and mentor.

In the context of supervising preservice teachers, Clark (1990: 40) discussed six roles supervisors carry out in general education: (1) administrative supervision, which he describes as judgmental and relating to summative evaluation; (2) casual or informal supervision, which involves nonjudgmental stance toward teaching behaviors; (3) clerical supervision, which emphasizes maintaining records; (4) cooperative supervision, in which skills development is "encouraged and supported by the group" of trainees; (5) individualized or responsive supervision, which stresses individuals' social and psychological needs rather than teaching per se; and (6) clinical supervision. Clark claims that clinical supervision is most appropriate because it is "related to all stages of teacher growth from the student teacher through neophyte and experienced teachers."

In language teaching, writings about supervision were influenced by work in general education. In one of the earliest treatments of language teacher supervision, Knop (1980) discussed (1) the scientific approach, (2) the democratic approach, and (3) clinical supervision. The scientific approach used interaction analysis to investigate classroom behavior and develop competencies teachers were supposed to exhibit. The democratic approach saw supervision as therapy, a kind of ego counseling. In clinical supervision, the teacher and supervisor would jointly decide upon the observational foci and subsequent goals for improvement.

Freeman's (1982, 1989) ideas about approaches to observing teachers and giving them feedback have been influential in language teacher supervision. The first approach, the *supervisory option*, is the traditional directive model. In this approach the supervisor is seen as an expert who gives prescriptive advice. Second, in the *nondirective option*, the supervisor listens nonjudgmentally as teachers describe their work and interpret their actions. Third, in the *alternatives option*, the supervisor suggests alternatives or helps teachers come up with alternatives to what they have been doing (Freeman 1982). One factor that distinguishes these three approaches is the locus of power. In the supervisory option, the power to determine the issues and solutions rests with the supervisor. In the nondirective option, the teacher has power to guide the conference and to make decisions. In the alternatives option, discussion topics and decisions are jointly negotiated by the teacher and the supervisor.

Five supervisory models were described by Gebhard (1984), who was influenced by Freeman's work. These models are traditional directive supervision, alternatives supervision, collaborative supervision, nondirective supervision, and creative supervision. We have already discussed the first three in reviewing Freeman's work, so here I will just touch briefly on the *collaborative model* and *creative supervision*. In the former, the supervisor works with teachers but does not overtly direct them: "The supervisor actively participates with the teacher in any decisions that are made and attempts to establish a sharing relationship" (Gebhard 1984: 505). The latter combines features of the other four. This approach is useful because an effective supervisor might need to switch roles during a conference, depending on the teacher's needs.

Current Approaches and Practices

Unfortunately, "supervision has its roots in the industrial literature of bureaucracy. Close supervision was a classic response to production problems; it was management's attempt to control subordinates" (Hoy and Woolfolk 1989: 113). The effect on teacher supervision has been that traditionally teacher supervisors have told teachers how to teach (Gebhard 1990: 1).

Nowadays, however, Gebhard says the supervisor's role is to help novice teachers attain their "ideal teaching behaviour":

> to provide the means for teachers to reflect on and work through problems in their teaching; to furnish opportunities for teachers to explore new teaching possibilities; and to afford teachers chances to acquire knowledge about teaching and to develop their own theory of teaching. (1990)

Chamberlin (2000) concurs. She notes that over time the supervisor's role has changed from that of the expert to that of a colleague who encourages teachers to practice reflection:

> The supervisor, once viewed mainly as an expert evaluator, is now charged with the responsibility of gaining teachers' trust and creating an environment that cultivates reflection, exploration, and change. This new role requires greater attention to the relationship between the teacher and the supervisor. (2000: 656)

This shift "reflects a reconceptualised vision of teaching" (ibid.: 654; see also Freeman, Chapter 1).

Indeed, in some countries, the language teacher supervisor's role has changed from its judgmental inspector roots. Supervisors' responsibilities now include a much more developmental focus: "[T]he task of supervision now is to refine the process of teaching and improve the effectiveness of the results of schooling" (Alfonso, Firth, and Neville 1984: 17).

Two decades ago, Goldsberry foresaw this contrast. He compared prescriptive supervision with a more reflective approach, which "focuses on the teacher's thinking about teaching as much as his actual teaching behaviour" (1988: 7):

> Where prescriptive approaches focus on the standards which undergird the commonalities among teaching practices, a reflective approach focuses on the idiosyncratic mix of values, purposes, learners, skills, settings and dispositions which distinguish the efforts of one good teacher from another. Where prescriptive approaches aim to strengthen teaching performance by working toward endorsed standards of practice, reflective approaches tend to examine the standards in relation to the peculiarities of the particular setting, people and time. Where a prescriptive method is based upon using the perceived superior expertise of the supervisor to enhance the teacher's performance, a reflective method is based upon using and developing the expertise of the teacher to examine ideal purposes and procedures for teaching, and to refine present performance accordingly. (1988)

While the judgmental inspector role still holds sway in some systems, many supervisors have come to question the efficacy of the prescriptive approach for bringing about change in teachers' awareness, attitudes, knowledge, and skills (Freeman 1989).

There are two, sometimes competing, forces at work for promoting quality in language teaching today – social forces and individual forces. In some regions of the world, governmental bodies and / or professional organizations are developing standards for teacher performance (see Katz and Snow, Chapter 7). These are social forces, which emphasize accountability and judge teaching effectiveness largely on the basis of student learning (typically as measured by large-scale standardized examinations). Meanwhile, there are also individualistic trends toward reflective practice (see Burton, Chapter 30) and teachers taking responsibility for their own ongoing professional development. It is in the midst of these competing forces that language teacher supervisors work to bring about improved teaching, with the ultimate goal of generating increased learning.

Issues and Directions

In recent years, researchers have begun to tackle some persistent problems in supervision. These include analyzing and improving the speech event of the postobservation conference, understanding how teachers learn and change, and overcoming teacher shortages and the need for appropriate supervision in some areas of the world.

In response to these issues, recent writings about supervision have been influenced by discourse analysis, sociocultural theory, and technology. Discourse analytic procedures have been used to investigate the language used in postobservation conferences, and sociocultural theory is influencing the way we understand learning (including teacher learning) to occur. Technological developments are influencing the ways teachers and supervisors collect classroom data and discuss those data.

Discourse Analysis and Language Teacher Supervision

The most detailed discourse analyses of postobservation conferences have been conducted by Wajnryb (1994a, 1994b, 1998). She noted that although the role expectations of the postobservation conference often entail the "transmission of bad news" (1994a: 88), supervisors "may be unable to keep silent, but may choose other ways to muffle the message". Wajnryb found that supervisors often mitigate their speech to teachers and teacher trainees upon delivering face-threatening acts (Brown and Levinson 1987). *Mitigation* is defined as the "linguistic means by which a speaker deliberately hedges what he / she is saying by taking into account the reactions of the hearer" (Wajnryb 1995: 71).

Wajnryb identified syntactic, semantic, and indirect mitigation strategies in her data. *Syntactic mitigation* devices included tense shift, aspect shift, person shift, particular clause structures, and the use of negation, modal verbs, and interrogatives to soften the critical message (Wajnryb 1994a: 234; see also, Bailey 2006). *Semantic mitigation* devices included qualm indicators (hesitations, false starts, etc.), asides, lexical hedges, and hedging modifiers (Wajnryb 1994a: 267; see also Bailey, 2006). There were also three types of *indirect mitigation*:

1. *Conventionally indirect mitigation*, in which "the criticism is built into the surface level meaning of the utterance" (Wajnryb 1994a: 304). Examples from Wajnryb's data are "Can you think of a way you might have been able to address that?" and "Can you see how that led to a problem?" (1994a: 310)
2. *Implicitly indirect mitigation* (which is even less direct than the conventionally indirect type) entails making inferences about the supervisor's meaning by "forcing an interaction between what is said and the context in which it is said" (1994a: 312). In the utterance, "Do you think perhaps it might have been good if they had known a little bit

about the context of the dialogue?" (1994a: 315), the supervisor softens the message, "Tell the students about the content of the dialogue."

3. *Pragmatic ambivalence* (1994a: 317) involves speech in which the illocutionary force of the utterance is unclear. Wajnryb cites the example, "Do you think the kids like the book?" This question can be interpreted in terms of its apparent meaning and the teacher may reply, "Yes, the kids like the book." Or the teacher may wonder, "Is my supervisor suggesting that the children don't like the book, or that it's not appropriate for them, or that I should have chosen another?" Pragmatically ambivalent utterances are difficult for teachers to interpret because they could be simple observations, praise, or criticism. (1994a: 318)

Syntactic, semantic, and indirect mitigation strategies are common in supervisors' speech to teachers during postobservation conferences.

Some supervisorial conversations are so heavily mitigated that the potentially critical message can get lost. These Wajnryb (1995) terms *hyper-mitigation*. Others are so blunt as to put the teacher on the defensive (*hypo-mitigation*). The results of hyper-mitigation and hypo-mitigation differ, but in both cases, communication problems can occur. Wajnryb states:

> supervisors who mitigate their language too greatly (by "beating about the bush") are likely to confuse the hearers through an unclear, ambiguous message. On the other hand, supervisors who under-mitigate . . . could alienate the teacher and create unnecessary and counter-productive enmity. (1995: 71)

The challenge for language teacher supervisors then is to delivering criticism "gently enough that teachers can listen to it but clearly enough that they can hear it" (Bailey 2006: 170). In some instances, however, supervisors provided what Wajnryb calls *above-the-utterance-level mitigation*: criticism softened at the discourse level instead of syntactically or semantically. This stance is thought to be more effective than hypo- or hyper-mitigation.

An interesting use of discourse analysis is found in Williams and Watson's (2004) investigation of ESL student teachers' speech in postobservation conferences. They contrasted the language used by three trainees given immediate feedback after their practicum lesson observation with that of three trainees who had been given delayed feedback. In the delayed feedback condition, the trainees wrote structured journal entries about their lessons, and the postobservation conferences were delayed for about 20 hours. The idea was that delaying the discussion and requiring the journal entries would promote reflection on the part of the trainees.

The two groups of student teachers were contrasted in terms of their topic initiation, their use of modal verbs, and the types of reasoning talk that occurred in their postobservation conferences. The analysis is both complex and conservative, since Williams and Watson identified several ambiguities in the coding system they used. Nevertheless, they concluded that "delayed debriefing and structured journals do generate a relatively more reflective approach on the part of the student teachers to the analysis of their teaching" (2004: 94).

Another use of discourse analysis appears in Miller's (2008) account of an e-mail exchange between herself and a native speaker of Chinese who was enrolled in an Australian program to prepare English teachers. The trainee was completing an ESL practicum, and Miller had observed her teaching. The interpretive analysis of the e-mail exchange shows how Miller's roles as both teaching practitioner and university academic informed her response.

SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY AND LANGUAGE TEACHER SUPERVISION

While the influence of discourse analysis on understanding supervisory processes comes largely from linguistics, the influence of sociolcultural theory comes from educational psychology. In sociocultural theory, that which a person can do confidently and independently comprises an area of self-regulated action. According to van Lier, "beyond that there is a range of knowledge and skills which the person can only access with someone's assistance" (1995: 190). These skills and knowledge that are within reach with guidance are called the *Zone of Proximal Development*, or ZPD (1995: 190–191). However, "anything outside the circle of proximal development is simply beyond reach and not (yet) available for learning" (1995). Learners can make gains in the ZPD by using assistance from and interaction with experts and peers, as well as their own inner resources (1995: 193). For teacher–learners, such resources can include input from supervisors.

Rueda (1998) used concepts from sociocultural theory in reviewing research on improving schooling and educational outcomes for learners. He noted that "effective instructional environments depend on well-trained, effective teachers who are adequately supported in terms of professional development" (p. 1). Rueda summarized five principles from sociocultural theory that supervisors can use in guiding teacher development.

First, learning is promoted through "joint productive activity among leaders and participants" (1998). Since sociocultural theory views teaching and learning as social rather than individual, learning is thought to occur when problems are solved by novices and experts working together. (There is some evidence in the language learning literature, however, that novices can productively scaffold one another's learning too; see, for example, Donato 2000.)

Second, teacher supervisors can "promote learners' expertise in professionally relevant discourse" (2000). In sociocultural theory, language is seen as an important tool for mediating interaction. Learning the discourse of teaching is part of learning teaching (see Hedgcock, this volume), and supervisors can help teachers to articulate or reconceptualise problems through talk (2000).

The third principle is to "contextualise teaching, learning, and joint productive activity in the experiences and skills of participants" (2000). This principle suggests that activities and problem-solving tasks targeted by teachers and supervisors should focus on authentic issues relevant to the teachers and students.

The fourth principle involves challenging teachers to work "toward more complex solutions in addressing problems" (2000). Thus, professional development activities are better viewed as long-term problem-solving opportunities rather than as short-term exercises (ibid.).

Rueda's fifth sociocultural principle is to "engage participants through dialogue, especially the instructional conversation" (2000). Such interactions encourage teachers to make connections between their formal schooled knowledge and their practical knowledge gained by experience – what Wallace (1991) refers to as *received knowledge* and *experiential knowledge*.

Rueda's five principles apply to discussions among language teachers and supervisors to promote teacher development. However, in my view this discursive relationship should not be unilateral. Supervisors should learn from teachers as well.

TECHNOLOGY AND TEACHER SUPERVISION

Technological developments are influencing how teachers and supervisors collect data and communicate with each other (see Reinders, Chapter 23). Some research about using technology in supervising preservice teachers has been conducted in general education. For instance, in Taiwan, preservice elementary science teachers' use of Internet communications

relieved the trainees' task stress and increased the frequency of contact with their supervisors (Hsiung and Tan 1999).

Student teachers in Nebraska kept journals via e-mail and used handheld personal digital assistants (PDAs) for recording in-class notes during observations (Crippen and Brooks 2000). This PDA record is immediately available to the supervisor to discuss with the teacher.

The Electronic Enhancement of Supervision Project at Indiana University Southeast was designed to address teacher shortages in rural areas (Shea and Babione 2001). There experienced teachers supervised trainees in special education, using e-mail discussion groups, webcams, and Web sites.

Also in the United States, in Georgia supervisors used videoconferencing to observe teachers from a distance and to promote interactions among the supervisor, the student teacher, and the local cooperating teacher, as well as among student teachers themselves (Venn, Moore, and Gunter 2000–01). In another Georgia training program, in-class cameras recorded student teachers' lessons, after which teachers and supervisors participated in interactive two-way videoconferencing. Thus, the trainees could remain in their own rural communities and the travel time for the university supervisors was decreased (Gruenhagen, McCracken, and True 1999).

Computer technology was also used in an Iowa teacher education program. The goals were "to build community and reduce isolation during student teaching, improve communication and enhance supervision of student teachers, and encourage reflection" (Johanson, Norland, Olson, Huth, and Bodensteiner 1999: 1).

In North Carolina, first-year teachers worked with local mentor teachers and were linked electronically to a university professor from their preservice training program (Thomson and Hawk 1996). The novice teachers' lessons were videotaped, and postobservation conferences used telecommunications. (The videotapes were mailed to the university supervisor.) The participants felt the technology provided "a viable alternative to traditional face-to-face conferencing" (p. 16), with substantial savings in cost and travel time.

The Remote Area Practicum Supervision Project in Australia linked remote practicum sites to the university (Hodder and Carter 1997). This system enabled the university-based supervisors to work with the trainees from a distance, while the local cooperating teachers worked with them in the schools.

In British Columbia, teacher educators used teleconferencing and conference calls to consult with student teachers (Cross and Murphy 1990). This project was deemed to be partially successful because the student teachers preferred face-to-face supervision and found the telephone conversations to be somewhat impersonal.

In sum, technological developments are changing the way trainees and teacher supervisors can collect data and communicate with each other. However, at the time of this writing, the vast majority of such reports are about first language teacher education. This trend does not seem to have influenced language teacher education yet, so it remains to be seen how these developments will affect supervision in our field.

Conclusion

This chapter has briefly considered language teacher supervision in the context of second language teacher education. It is clear from the literature reviewed here that historically there have been many different approaches to supervision, but it seems that a reflective approach is emerging as the dominant theme (Wallace 1991). Principles of sociocultural theory and discourse analysis offer teacher educators ways to improve upon the practice of language teacher supervision, and new developments in technology may enhance data

collection and communication capabilities. The purpose of supervising language teacher trainees remains the goal of helping novice teachers develop their "ideal teaching behaviour" (Gebhard 1990: 1).

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SECTION 7

SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER DEVELOPMENT THROUGH RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

In this last section the focus is on strategies teachers can use to explore their own teaching practices as well as develop their own understandings of teaching as part of their long term professional development.

In the first discussion (Chapter 28), McKay begins with a broad focus on classroom inquiry. She surveys the nature of classroom research in teacher education and its potential for language teachers. She offers a useful overview of the different assumptions and procedures used in quantitative and qualitative approaches to classroom research and raises some of the issues that can usefully be explored in relation to second language teaching and learning. She also highlights some of the challenges teacher educators sometimes face when introducing classroom research to novice teachers.

In the Chapter 29, Burns examines one widely advocated strategy for reflective practice – action research – comparing it with other inquiry-based approaches. What distinguishes action research from some other approaches is its emphasis on intervention (the *action* in action research) as a way of trying to bring about improvement or change. Such intervention often takes the form of collaboration between researchers and classroom teachers. However, Burns points out that successful implementation of action research is often dependent upon training in the procedures it makes use of (e.g., classroom observation, discourse analysis, research writing) as well as institutional support. She sees earlier models of action research, that were typically focussed on problem-solving, giving way to action research viewed as membership of a "community of inquiry," one that provides an opportunity for teachers and researchers to collaborate in the shared exploration and understanding of teaching and learning.

In the final overview in the book (Chapter 30), Burton explores the concept of reflective practice as one approach to investigating teaching, and which, like other strategies described in this section, seeks to find ways of linking theory and practice through an exploration of classroom processes. She shows how teacher educators have developed the notion of reflective practice, beyond Dewey and Schön's earlier conceptualizations of it, and isolates three central questions that reflective practices seek to answer, namely: *What do I do? How do I do it?* and *What does this mean for me and those I work with and for?* Burton discusses a number of reflective practices such as collaborative inquiry groups, stimulated recall, written narratives, journal writing, and action research.

CHAPTER 28

Second Language Classroom Research

Sandra Lee McKay

INTRODUCTION

Classroom research is all about gathering evidence to answer questions that concern educators, whether they be about teaching methodology, learners' strategies, teachers' beliefs, or classroom materials. For teachers, a primary reason for doing research as part of teacher education is to become more effective teachers. As Johnson (1992: 5) puts it:

> The importance of research is not so much that it supplies definitive answers to questions such as "What is the best way to learn a language?" or "Which is the most effective method of L2 teaching?" It does not. Rather, research can help us gain a richer understanding of the many interrelated factors involved in learning. It can help us see how the ways we organise learning environments can promote or inhibit growth.

Becoming involved in classroom research can also help teachers evaluate existing research. Once teachers become aware of the challenges that exist in doing classroom research – from formulating focused research questions to gathering and analysing relevant data – they will become more critical readers of existing research. In light of these benefits of classroom research, it is essential that novice teachers be introduced to the basics of classroom research methods and assumptions.

This chapter explores the following questions:

- What is classroom research, and how does it differ from reflective teaching?
- What are some ways in which teacher educators can introduce novice teachers to the important distinction between qualitative and quantitative research?
- What topics are investigated, what methods are typically employed in L2 classroom research, and how can novice teachers be introduced to these methods?
- What challenges do L2 language educators face in promoting classroom research?

Scope and Definitions

To begin, it is necessary to clarify how classroom research will be defined in this chapter. Allwright and Bailey (1991: 2) maintain that *classroom research* is a cover term for "a whole range of research studies on classroom language learning and teaching. The obvious unifying factor is that the emphasis is solidly on trying to understand what goes on in the classroom setting." This definition highlights the great diversity of studies that can be included in classroom research. The one unifying element of all classroom research, however, is that it contains what Nunan (1992: 3) and others contend are the three essential elements of research: "(1) a question, problem or hypothesis, (2) data, (3) analysis and interpretation of data."

In order to provide a more precise understanding of classroom research, in this chapter I begin by distinguishing classroom research from other types of reflections on teaching and learning. Then I discuss various ways to make major research traditions accessible to novice teachers, as well as to introduce them to frequently used methods in L2 classroom research. In closing I suggest major challenges facing L2 teacher educators in promoting teacher research. A central assumption of this chapter is that one of the main goals of L2 teacher education is to socialize novice teachers into a professionalism that views research as the basis for effective teaching (see also Leung, Chapter 5).

Overview

Although classroom research in general has a long history, L2 classroom research developed from a growing interest in understanding more about optimal conditions for L2 learning. Two early concerns of L2 classroom research were to identify the most effective method for teaching a second or foreign language and to delineate the behaviors of effective teachers (see Politzer 1970; Moskowitz 1976). Then, in the late 1960s, more attention began to be devoted to identifying the processes involved in second language acquisition and with specifying a natural order of acquisition of the language (see Ellis, Chapter 13).

The 1990s witnessed the development of another approach to examining L2 classrooms, namely *reflective teaching*. Growing out of Schön's (1983, 1987) concern with reflective practices in the workplace in general, reflective teaching emphasizes the need for teachers to examine their own decision-making processes. Although reflective teaching provides an extremely productive avenue for shedding light on what goes on in L2 classrooms, it differs from L2 classroom research in that it typically does not involve the essential components of research, namely a research question, data gathering, and data interpretation (see Burton, Chapter 30). Although *action research* is clearly one type of L2 classroom research, it will not be addressed in this chapter, since this topic is fully explored elsewhere in this book (see Burns, Chapter 29).

Current Research and Practices

Research Traditions

One of the major distinctions made in discussing any type of research is, of course, the difference between *quantitative* and *qualitative* research. In reference to teacher education, it is important that novice teachers be introduced to the assumptions underlying both traditions so that they can become critical readers of the literature on L2 teaching and learning. (See Table 1 for major distinctions in these traditions.) One way to introduce students to these two traditions is to present examples of existing classroom research

	Quantitative research	Qualitative research
Assumptions about reality	Reality is single; it can be broken down and parts studied.	Reality is multiple; it can only be studied holistically.
Role of researcher	The researcher and object of inquiry are separate; hence one can look at reality objectively. The researcher's role is to observe and measure. The researcher exerts control over the variables.	The researcher and what is researched are interdependent. The researcher's role is to become part of what is being studied. The researcher does not intervene.
Purpose of research	The purpose is to generalize, to predict, and to posit causal relationships.	The purpose is to contextualize and to interpret.
Research question	The research question is arrived at deductively. The researcher starts with a hypothesis.	The research question is arrived at inductively. The researcher observes and formulates questions.
Research design	The researcher has a hypothesis and set methodology. The object is to summarize data in numerical indices.	The research design evolves over time. Once the data is gathered, the researcher looks for patterns.
Length of study	The study can involve a fairly short time commitment.	The study can involve a very long time commitment.
Typical data	There is a large, random sample. Numerical indices involving tests or responses to surveys are generally used.	There is a purposeful, limited number of participants. Field notes, interviews, and written documents can all be used.
Data analysis	There is statistical analysis.	There is an interpretive analysis of the data and categorization of the data.
Research report	Technical language is used.	Descriptive language is used.

Source: McKay, S. L. (2006). *Researching second language classroom* (p. 7). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Table 1 Features of quantitative and qualitative research

reports that use a quantitative or qualitative framework and have novice teachers apply the characteristics listed below, looking, for example, at what the role of the researcher is in a particular study and what the purpose of the research design is. (See Chen and Graves 1995; and Rymes 2003, as possible models to use in this regard.)

While there are many examples of classroom research that exemplify qualitative research methods, it is more difficult to find examples of quantitative studies that take place in a classroom under natural conditions. While novice researchers need familiarity with the assumptions informing quantitative studies in order to become critical readers of the literature, in terms of undertaking their own classroom research, it is more likely they will use qualitative research methods. Hence, there is a need to familiarize novice teachers with the assumptions and procedures of qualitative research methods frequently used in L2 classroom studies. What follows is a discussion of topics frequently addressed in classroom research, along with a description of the qualitative methods used to investigate these concerns.

L2 CLASSROOM RESEARCH TOPICS AND METHODS

TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' BELIEFS, EXPERIENCES, AND ATTITUDES

Many L2 classroom researchers are interested in finding out more about the beliefs, experiences, and attitudes of teachers and learners. In order to find more about learners' previous learning experiences or their beliefs and attitudes regarding language learning, teacher researchers can undertake structured or open-ended surveys. One of the goals of L2 education should be to equip novice teachers with the tools to design well-structured surveys so that they can use classroom surveys to gather information on the needs and preferences of their learners. For readable introductions to survey research, L2 educators can refer novice teachers to Brown (2001) and Dornyei (2003).

In addition to survey research, teacher researchers can use diary studies to examine the beliefs, experiences, and attitudes of teachers and learners. In these studies teachers or learners keep a detailed record of their teaching or learning experiences and reflect on these experiences. This methodology is particularly valuable for novice teachers as a way of charting their own development as an L2 professional, as well as gaining insight into the individualized nature of language learning. For an introduction to diary studies, novice teachers can be referred to Bailey (1990); for a seminal example of a diary study, they can review Schmidt and Froda (1986).

STUDENTS' THOUGHT PROCESSES

Recently many L2 classroom researchers have become interested in examining the thought processes of learners in the hopes of identifying the learning strategies of successful learners. In order to accomplish this goal, learners are asked to comment on their thought process while they are engaged in a learning task. Such studies are one type of *introspective study* termed *verbal protocols* or *think alouds*. In verbal protocols, learners typically verbalize their thought processes while engaged in a reading or writing task. Verbal protocols can also be used retrospectively and in this way be used for monitoring the thought processes of oral / aural activities. Although there are many disadvantages to using verbal protocols (see Smagorinsky 1994, 2001), they are one of the few methods available for accessing the thought processes of learners. Verbal protocols have been useful in demonstrating the individualized nature of learning strategies (e.g., Gu 2003). The seminal resource book for verbal protocol research is Ericsson and Simon (1993). To introduce novice teachers to verbal protocols, as part of their course work they could be asked to have a language learner undertake a classroom reading task while thinking aloud. The novice teachers should then be asked to transcribe the protocol and use an existing category system to analyse this protocol. (To analyze a reading task protocol, novice teachers could be referred to Block 1986).

CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Other L2 classroom researchers have focused on examining the interaction patterns of classroom discourse. Two methods typically used in investigating classroom interaction are *interaction analysis* and *discourse analysis*. Interaction analysis uses some type of coding system to investigate the communication patterns that occur in a classroom. This coding system can be used, for example, to:

- determine what kind of classroom interaction best promotes L2 learning
- evaluate teachers to determine whether they use patterns of communication that have been shown to be effective, and / or
- train prospective teachers to use a variety of communication patterns in their classrooms.

In the field of education there are over 200 different coding systems. They differ, however, in what classroom behaviors they try to account for. Some systems are very comprehensive with the purpose of describing all of the communication patterns that occur in a classroom. One of the most widely used generic systems in L2 classroom research is the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) designed by Allen, Fröhlich, and Spada (1984). (See Spada and Fröhlich 1995, for a practical introduction to using the COLT system.) Other interaction analysis coding systems are specialized so that they deal only with the moves that are used in a particular type of classroom interaction such as student-teacher conferences or group work. (See, for example, Goldstein and Conrad's 1990 study of writing conference discourse.) Introducing novice teachers to coding systems can provide them with the tools to assess their own classroom interaction patterns (see also Gebhard, Chapter 25). In order to familiarize novice researchers with coding systems, L2 educators might ask them to use a section of the COLT system in their classroom observation assignments.

Classroom interaction can also be investigated by using discourse analysis. Discourse analysis has been variously defined, but typically attention is given to the discourse context of interactions. McCarthy (1991), for example, maintains that "discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used" (p. 5). Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) define it as "the study of language in use that extends beyond sentence boundaries" (p. 4). Discourse analysis investigations have provided valuable insights into the knowledge teachers bring to the classroom. For a practical introduction to discourse analysis for teachers, novice teachers can be referred to McCarthy (1991). An introduction to this method might involve L2 educators bringing transcripts from classroom interaction to class and having students analyze these interactions looking for the enactment of specific themes. Lazaraton's (2003) study on the incidental displays of cultural knowledge in nonnative-English-speaking teachers' classrooms provides a good model for such assignments.

CLASSROOM MATERIALS

Classroom materials, both student texts and published texts, can be investigated by using text analysis (see Hedgcock, Chapter 14). The field of text analysis developed during the 1970s and 1980s from a growing recognition that the traditional analysis of written texts from a largely morphological and syntactic perspective did not do justice to the complexity of written texts. Instead, as Grabe and Kaplan (1996) note, text researchers began to recognize that a "text is a multidimensional construct; that is, no unidimensional analysis of text can offer an adequate interpretation of the nature of text" (p. 39). Connor (1994: 682) maintains that text analysis differs from traditional linguistic analysis in two major ways: "(a) It extends analysis beyond the level of sentence grammar, and (b) it considers the multidimensional, communicative constraints of the situation." Text analysis has been used to highlight the differences in the texts written by L1 and L2 writers. (See, for example, Ferris 1994; Hinkel 2003, 2004).

Classroom materials can also be investigated by using a corpus. A *corpus* is a collection of written or spoken naturally occurring language that is stored electronically. *Corpora* are of two general types. The first is a *specialized corpus* that contains texts of a particular type such as medical discourse, L2 learner language, or literary works. A *general corpus*, on the other hand, includes a wide range of text types, including at times written and spoken texts as well as texts of different registers or fields.

Two areas of corpus-based research are especially valuable for developing and assessing classroom textbooks. The first is the calculation of *word frequency lists*. A frequency list is simply a list of all the types of words that appear in a corpus, along with the number of occurrences of each word. Word lists based on academic discourse can provide insight into the academic vocabulary needed by L2 learners. Coxhead (2000), for example, describes the

development and evaluation of a new word list of academic vocabulary that clarifies which academic words are widely used and hence, worth studying. A second type of analysis that can be done with a corpus is *concordancing*. Concordancing programs allow the user to bring together all the instances of a particular word along with the words that surround it. Knowing how to undertake corpus-based research can help novice teachers make important decisions about what vocabulary to introduce in their classes, as well as to learn more about the collocation patterns of particular lexical items. For an introduction to corpus linguistics, novice teachers can be referred to Hunston (2002). In order to familiarize novice teachers with methods used to examine classroom materials, L2 teacher educators can introduce students to common concordancing programs that are available on the Web and have students compare the way a lexical phrase is introduced in a textbook as opposed to how it is used in the corpus. (Two useful concordance programs available on the Web are The Compleat Lexical Tutor 132.208.224.131/ and Web Concordancer www.edict.com.hk/concordance/.)

CLASSROOMS AND THE SOCIAL AND CULTURAL CONTEXT

L2 classroom research has also investigated how the overall social and cultural context can affect L2 teaching and learning. One of the main types of qualitative studies used in this type of classroom research is *case studies*. Researchers use case studies when they believe contextual features are highly relevant to their research question. For example, teacher researchers might select a case study approach if they want to find out how learners' progress in English is affected by whether they are in an ESL class or mainstream classroom (see Harklau 1994, for such an investigation). For a readable introduction to designing and conducting case studies, novice teachers can be referred to Yin (2003).

Issues and Directions

L2 teacher educators who wish to introduce novice teachers to L2 classroom research face several challenges. First, they need to convince novice teachers that because they, as classroom teachers, are familiar with a particular classroom context, they are in the best position to undertake classroom research. Unfortunately, the traditional divide in the TESOL profession between researchers and teachers has led many teachers to believe research is what is done *on* teachers rather than *by* teachers. The second challenge L2 teacher educators face is how to introduce the basics of research to novice teachers in such a way that it is relevant to the daily demands they face. As highlighted in this paper, one way to do this is to provide novice teachers with readable accounts of classroom research that illustrate how research can be used to answer real classroom problems. Third, L2 educators need to discuss with novice teachers the obstacles they may face in undertaking classroom research and how they might go about finding ways to minimize these obstacles. Fourth, L2 teacher educators need to convince novice teachers that they should share their research findings through presentations and publications as a way of enriching the entire profession. Finally, L2 educators need to emphasize throughout the teacher-education program that the cornerstone of effective teaching is carefully designed research projects that seek to answer some of the many questions that need to be addressed in L2 teaching and learning.

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CHAPTER 29

Action Research in Second Language Teacher Education

Anne Burns

INTRODUCTION

Until the late 1980s, action research (AR) had relatively little impact on second language teacher education. Its emergence as a vehicle for professional development paralleled growing interest in learner-centered curriculum design (Nunan 1989; Johnson 1989) and classroom-based research (Allwright 1988; van Lier 1988; see also McKay, Chapter 28). The notion of the teacher as a self-reflective, inquiring, and critically motivated practitioner (e.g., Zeichner and Liston 1996; see also Burton, Chapter 30) also accelerated interest in AR in ELT environments, as did the advocacy of the concept of the "teacher as researcher" (Allwright and Bailey 1991; Nunan 1989).

The shifts in goals and models of teacher education from the teacher as "operative" to the teacher as creative "problem solver" and decision maker (Roberts 1998) and the advent of constructivist perspectives (Williams and Burden 1997) in teacher education have created a productive framework for the adoption of AR into second language teacher education. Underlying these perspectives is the view that teachers "will make their own sense of the ideas and theories with which they are presented in ways that are personal to them . . . each individual constructs his or her own reality" (Williams and Burden 1997: 2).

In this chapter, I first provide brief definitions and explanations of the major concepts and processes of AR and offer comparisons of AR with other research paradigms. I then consider the scope and impact of action research in English as a second language teacher education settings. This discussion is followed by an analysis of the range of ways and settings in which AR is integrated into teacher education. I conclude by raising issues relating to the further development of AR in language teacher education.

SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS

WHAT IS ACTION RESEARCH?

Action research is the combination and interaction of two modes of activity – *action* and *research*. The *action* is located within the ongoing social processes of particular

societal contexts, whether they be classrooms, schools, or whole organizations, and typically involves developments and interventions into those processes to bring about improvement and change. The *research* is located within the systematic observation and analysis of the developments and changes that eventuate in order to identify the underlying rationale for the action and to make further changes as required based on findings and outcomes. The driving purpose for the AR process is to bridge the gap between the ideal (the most effective ways of doing things) and the real (the actual ways of doing things) in the social situation.

The AR process itself has been characterized as a spiral or cycle of movements between action and research (Kemmis and McTaggart 1988; Burns 1999). As the researcher plans and undertakes actions to enhance the current situation, she also deliberately observes and documents what happens as a result of these actions. Often, the results of changes are unpredictable and reveal new or unexpected avenues for further action, which is then observed and documented further. Although more complex and extended descriptions of the steps in AR have been proposed (e.g., Burns 1999; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2000; Hopkins 1993; McNiff 1988), the most widely known model is that of Kemmis and McTaggart (1988: 10):

- develop a plan of critically informed action to improve what is already happening
- act to implement the plan
- observe the effects of the critically informed action in the context in which it occurs
- reflect on these effects as the basis for further planning, subsequent critically informed action and so on, through a succession of stages.

Teachers new to research sometimes struggle to perceive how AR is positioned in relation to more familiar and better established research approaches. As Cohen and Manion (1994: 186) point out, the terms *action* and *research* "when conjoined in this way lie as uneasy bedfellows." There is insufficient space to describe these relationships in detail here (but see Burns 2005: 59–60); however, as a way of briefly outlining the relationships, Table 1 identifies some of the main distinctions among basic, applied and action research.

Overview

ACTION RESEARCH IN SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Action research on the part of language teachers has been seen as a way to bridge the gulf between researchers and teachers (e.g., Brindley 1990; Edge 2001) and to encourage teachers to adopt an investigative stance toward their own classroom practices (e.g., Gebhard 2005; Nunan 1989). Taking these concepts further, several writers (e.g., Burns 1999; Crookes 1993; Roberts 1993) advocate a collaborative approach (see also Johnston, Chapter 24, on collaborative teacher development) where research is done by combinations of researchers and teachers (also with the possible involvement of students, parents, and administrators) as a more effective and mutually supportive way to achieve desired outcomes. AR has also been perceived as a form of professionalization that fits well within a "developmental," or transformative, model of teacher education (e.g., Wallace 1991, 1998; Richards and Farrell 2005; see also Freeman, Chapter 1).

Research type	Philosophical Assumptions	Purpose	Main methods	Outcomes	Criteria for judgement
Basic	Universal truths generalizable across time and space are achieved through scientific enquiry.	To establish relationships among phenomena, test theory, and generate new knowledge.	Quantitative approaches, hypothesis testing, control of variables, rigorous sampling.	Development of theory.	Objectivity, verification of theory, generalizability, rigor and reliability of research methods, published through refereed, scholarly journals.
Applied	Societal phenomena can be scientifically studied and understood.	To generate understanding of human behavior and problems for the purpose of intervention.	Qualitative and quantitative approaches, data collection directed toward ensuring reliability and validity.	Development of generalizable theoretical knowledge that can be applied to the social situation.	Objectivity, rigour and scientific insights for application to social situations, published through specialized, refereed, applied journals.
Action research	People within social situations can solve problems through self-study and intervention.	To develop solutions to problems identified within one's own social environment.	Mainly qualitative, interpretive, cases studied reflectively through cyclical observational and nonobservational means.	Development of action to effect change and improvement, and deeper understanding in one's own social situation.	Subjectivity, feasibility, trustworthiness, and resonance of research outcomes with those in the same or similar social situation.

Source: Burns, A. (2005). Action research: An evolving paradigm? *Language Teaching*, 38(2), 61.

Table 1 Major characteristics of basic, applied, and action research

Among the ways that AR has been oriented towards various purposes of teacher education in the second language teaching field are the following:

- To address and find solutions to particular problems in a specific teaching or learning situation (Edge 2001; Hadley 2003)
- To underpin and investigate curriculum innovation and to understand the processes that occur as part of educational change (Lotherington 2002; Mathew 1997)
- To provide a vehicle for reducing gaps between academic research findings and practical classroom applications (Mcleod 2003; Sayer 2005)
- To facilitate the professional development of reflective teachers (Coles and Quirke 2001; Kitchen and Jeurissen 2004)
- To acquaint teachers with research skills and to enhance their knowledge of conducting research (Burns and Hood 1995; Crookes and Chandler 2001)
- To enhance the development of teachers' personal practical theories (Golombek 1998)

(Adapted from Burns 2005: 62)

There is still very limited evidence to indicate the extent of actual AR practice in teacher education. Borg (2006) contends that in many contexts internationally the conditions for teacher research are inhospitable and that in reality AR is well developed mainly in contexts such as Australia and North America where teachers are well supported professionally. Drawing from her survey research with 228 teachers in 10 countries internationally (China, Colombia, Greece, Japan, Morocco, Poland, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Thailand, and Tunisia), Rainey (2000) found that "a staggering" 75.5 percent had never heard of AR. However of the teachers who claimed to have heard of it, 75.9 percent also claimed that they had conducted some form of AR individually in their classrooms, although mainly as professional development rather than to learn about research. She argued that two key features stood out from her investigation – the need for adequate research training to conduct AR and the need for support and extension of AR beyond the individual classroom. These conclusions raise the issue of factors typically reported as impeding teacher research; lack of time, and resources, limitations imposed by school structures and employment contracts, problems gaining consent / support from school administrators, skills in acquiring the discourses of research and research writing, limitations on sources of advice, criticism from colleagues, and self-doubt (McKernan 1993).

Nonetheless there is some evidence from both researchers and teachers that AR is generally well received as an effective form of professional development by teachers who conduct it. Wadsworth (1998: 4) claims that the impact of AR includes assisting teachers to become:

- more *conscious of* "*problematizing*" an existing action or practice and more conscious of who is problematising it and why we are problematisting it;
- more *explicit about* "*naming*" *the problem*, and more self-conscious about raising an unanswered question and focusing an effort to answer it;
- more *planned* and *deliberate* about commencing a process of inquiry and involving others who could or should be involved in that inquiry;
- more *systematic* and *rigorous* in our efforts to get answers;
- more *carefully documenting and recording action* and what people think about it and in more detail and in ways which are accessible to other relevant parties;
- more *intensive* and *comprehensive* in our study, waiting much longer before we "jump" to a conclusion;
- more *self-sceptical* in checking our hunches;
- attempting to develop *deeper understanding* and *more useful* and *more powerful theory* about the matters we are researching in order to produce new knowledge which can inform improved action or practice; and
- *changing our actions* as part of the research process, and then further researching these changed actions.

Anecdotally, support for these kinds of benefits is also reported by language teachers themselves (e.g., Burns 1999; Edge 2001; Farrell 2006).

Current Approaches and Practices

Currently, the adoption of AR in second language teacher education programs can be seen as falling into three major categories: (a) required components in formal undergraduate or postgraduate courses; (b) collaborative teacher-researcher projects within educational

organizations / programs; (c) individual projects by classroom teachers / teacher educators. Of these, the first and third appear to be the most prevalent.

In the first category, teachers typically undertake small-scale projects that result in term papers and class presentations (e.g., Tsui 1996; Jones 2004; Borg 2005), although increasingly action research dissertations are being presented at doctoral level (e.g., Ogane 2004; Rochsantiningsih 2004). The rationale for including AR projects by the teacher educators conducting these courses relates to their perceptions of a need in teacher preparation programs for closer attention to enacting pedagogy, providing for future life-long learning (Crookes and Chandler 2001), raising awareness of the relevance of research for teachers and enhancing research skills (Jones 2004).

The second category typically comes from a view of AR as a way to involve teachers in wide-scale institutional curriculum change and continuing professional renewal. Such programs are likely to emanate from government grants or educational funding provided so that researchers and teachers can work together. In Australia, Brindley (1990) and others set an agenda advocating practitioner research that resulted in the continuing involvement of teachers in AR projects for the Adult Migrant English Program for the following 15 years (e.g., Burns and Hood / de Silva Joyce 1995–2005). The work by Tinker Sachs in Hong Kong (2002) focused on AR with teachers in primary and secondary schools to foster effective practices in the teaching of English and to offset "doubt on the part of school officials about the professionalisation of teachers" (2000: 35). Mathew (1997) describes a large-scale curriculum implementation project in India aimed at introducing a communicative curriculum into high schools. She notes that the teacher-researcher role "was based firmly, albeit contentiously, on the belief that curricular processes cannot be evaluated without self-monitoring on the part of the teacher" (pp. 2–3).

In addition to AR in academic or organizational settings, a third category of AR is by individual teachers and teacher educators. It is likely that much of this type of AR remains localised and unpublished (Crookes, personal communication, 22 January, 2002) and so access to it is limited. Nevertheless, there is now a small but growing body of published work that can be drawn upon by other teachers. Collections of accounts of AR by individual teachers have appeared in recent years. An early example with an AR orientation was Richards (1998). The volume edited by Edge (2001) in the TESOL Case Studies in Practice Series, provides examples from a variety of locations internationally, including Japan, New Zealand, Brazil, Thailand, France, the United Arab Emirates, and New Zealand. Hadley (2003) reports on AR conducted in South East Asian countries, whereas the most recent series focusing on language teacher research (edited by Farrell 2006–09) concentrates on research carried out by language teachers located in different world regions, many of them underpinned by AR methodologies. AR publications are also to be found in a variety of journals, particularly those that focus on language teaching and classroom-based research. *Language Teaching Research*, for example, now includes a regular section entitled, "Practitioner research." Some recent examples are Gunn (2005) and Li (2006). *Profile*, published in Colombia through the National University of Colombia, was initiated to establish a Latin-American outlet for teacher AR publications.

Bartels (2001) posed the question: "Is action research only for language teachers?" His question was directed at what he saw as a lack of interest in or understanding of AR in research done by teacher educators. This lack of interest was prefigured by Hammadou (1993, cited in Crookes and Chandler 2001) who called for studies on teacher education that would exploit AR methodologies in particular. Indeed, the majority of the (limited number of) publications on AR produced by teacher educators have tended to be of the how-to variety, rather than being reflective of widespread experiences of conducting AR themselves. Bartels (2005) was an attempt to redress this situation by bringing together reports of research on teaching practices in teacher education settings that focused on

knowledge about language (KAL). Chapters by Bigelow and Ranney (2005), Burns and Knox (2005) and Gregory (2005), for example, are accounts of AR-type studies carried out on their own teaching in university-based KAL courses, detailing insights they gained about ways to operate more effectively as teacher educators. Despite this collection, however, AR studies by teacher editors are not widely published.

Issues and Directions

As Johnson (Chapter 2) points out, recognition of the importance in teacher education of teacher reflection and inquiry – of which AR is one facet – has legitimized the status of practitioner knowledge. Professional knowledge construction through AR has, however, largely flourished through individualized teacher researcher endeavors. This tendency may be exacerbated by some of the supporting literature on AR in the field of second language teacher education. Crookes (1993) critiques the propensity of this literature to promote a technicist, value-free, version of AR with its focus on classroom "problems" (Gebhard 2005), in preference to more progressive, critical, socially constructed and emancipatory models. His arguments, though now over a decade old, highlight the need for a shift that is still incomplete in the AR "movement" in language teacher education – from the transmissive to the transformational approaches now preferred in current discussions of teacher education. As Roberts (1998: 288) notes, the challenge for teacher educators is to:

> highlight the exchange between individual development and its social context; positive relationships and opportunities for critical dialogue; and a consistent link between a person's work and the landscape in which it takes place.

Lave and Wenger's (1991) notion of "communities of practice" (COP) offers a productive route for this kind of shift within AR practices and within teacher education programs more generally (see Singh and Richards, Chapter 20). Learning in the COP view is situated within a process of engagement with others and is therefore a socially constructed rather than an individualized enterprise. In this vein, Wells and Chiang-Wells, (1992) refer to "communities of inquiry" where opportunities are set up for teachers and researchers to construct knowledge about AR collectively over time. Pedagogical knowledge construction thus occurs through dialectic interaction and critical exchange. AR communities of inquiry in teacher education contexts can aim to create opportunities where teachers problematize (rather than problem solve) their practices through collaboration and dialog, and critically engage in the lived contexts, processes, procedures, challenges, and outcomes of their research. Participation in a community of inquiry is likely to have a more productive and lasting impact on practice than individualized learning. Within such approaches, teacher educators should aim to scaffold not only the techniques and practices of AR, but also epistemological and socialization processes that will lead to greater understanding of the knowledge base for second language teaching and learning.

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CHAPTER 30

Reflective Practice

Jill Burton

Introduction

Being reflective assists teachers' lifelong professional development, enabling them to critique teaching and make better-informed teaching decisions. This axiom is widely accepted in language teacher education contexts, but what it means in practice is not all that clear. This is partly because the term *reflective practice* is used in connection with a variety of teacher-learning activities (e.g., Burns and Bailey, this volume, on action research and supervision respectively) and partly because the actual nature of reflection, like other cognitive skills, remains somewhat elusive. Reflective practice has become something of a slogan term (Noffke and Brennan 2005).

This chapter reviews the concept of reflective practice and some of the ways it has come to be used in language teacher education and argues that, in the main, confidence in the value of the process is not misplaced, especially when reflection is used in conjunction with other inquiry – and exploratory-based practices.

Scope and Definitions

Dewey's (1933, 1938) distinction between routine and reflective action in teaching highlighted the importance of teachers reflecting systematically upon their working contexts, resources, and actions and applying what they learned from reflection in their everyday and long-term decision making. Reflective teaching, in his view, involved being constantly on the alert to the circumstances of teaching and the implications of issues arising during teaching. He argued that teachers were responsible for all aspects of their teaching and their consequences. He identified three essential teaching qualities: teachers should listen to all points of view (**open-mindedness**), be alert to all the consequences of their actions (**responsibility**), and have these qualities at the core of their being and actions (**wholeheartedness**).

Teaching all the time with these levels of commitment may appear very daunting for many teachers, especially in institutions or educational systems that do not recognize such broad responsibilities for teachers. For example, in some parts of the world, teachers still tend to be regarded only as curriculum implementers, rather than planners and evaluators as well (Burton 2007); this restricted conception of teaching has been characterized as technical or instrumental (e.g., Noffke and Brennan 2005; Zeichner and Liston 1996). Teachers' adoption of broader responsibilities has also been hampered in the past by the separation of theory and practice in education. Traditionally, research on teaching has been conducted by university researchers, disseminated via pre- and in-service processes by teacher educators, implemented by teachers, and evaluated by researchers, thereby limiting teachers' potential for broader professional action. Wallace (1991) called this approach to teacher education the *applied science model* (p. 8).

Whichever labels are used to describe teacher-learning processes, in reality reflection is something that all people do to greater or lesser extents and more or less effectively than others. Combined with "practice," "being reflective" links active theorizing and action in ways that other teacher-learning processes do not, as first Dewey and, later, Schön recognized.

Schön's (1983, 1987) distinction between **reflection-in-action** and **reflection-on-action** was a reminder that teachers make judgments and decisions in the classroom all the time. By arguing that teachers' decisions while teaching must draw on knowledge and previous experience of some kind, Schön also helped to expose the false division between theory and practice in teaching. Schön characterised teachers' theorizing in two ways: drawing upon theories in use when reflecting *in* action, and drawing upon teaching experience and espoused theories when reflecting *on* action. According to Argyris and Schön (1974), **theories-in-use** represent the patterns and behaviors that teachers accumulate in their daily work; whereas **espoused theories** are models for behavior that teacher-learners are generally taught. Schön envisaged reflective practice operating via **feedback loops**. A single feedback loop operates in the classroom when teachers reflect and act immediately on the consequences of a teaching action. For example, reflection-in-action might lead instantly to a change of teaching strategy. A double loop operates outside the classroom when a teacher reflects on actions taken in the classroom and is able to draw upon factors outside the immediate teaching context. The consequences of double-loop feedback, therefore, can go beyond an immediate event and be far-reaching. For example, Zeichner and Liston (1996) argued that providing ways for teachers to explain their spontaneous actions after the event helps teachers to make informed, better decisions in the future. In effect, reflecting on action means being able to express and reframe a familiar action (e.g., in stories and metaphors), appreciate its typical and special characteristics, and create more systematic, personal evaluative structures. Schön described this ability of appreciation as **building a repertoire**, by means of which teachers continually compare new experience with previous experience in order to find useful precedents, examples, and ideas, and increase the range and influence of their actions. Thus, reflective practice can make the difference between the expert teacher, who actively seeks to become a better teacher, and the teacher who is merely more experienced than the novice teacher (see Tsui, Chapter 19, on teaching expertise).

The effectiveness of reflection in and on action depends on the quality of the reflection and the purposes to which it is put. Whereas the first factor involves personal responsibility, the purposes of reflective practice may be largely institutionally or system motivated. However, criticisms of reflective practice tend to focus on what teachers actually do and / or don't do and ignore the contextual factors, which influence what teachers are encouraged to do. Criticisms thus center on arguments like the following: Reflection-in-action occurs spontaneously, and action and reflection, which may also draw on feelings about actions,

are impossible to capture and express immediately or adequately in words. Nonetheless, most teacher educators would argue that reflection is an essential tool in professional learning. One of the strengths of Schön's distinction and his two-loop model is that they foregrounded a process that is only one stage in models such as that of Kolb (1984). Kolb's experiential learning model incorporated reflective observation as only the third stage in a four-stage cycle of experimenting, experiencing, observing reflectively, and conceptualizing. As Moon's (2000) analysis of cyclical models such as Kolb's shows, reflection is actually very hard to separate from other stages of experiential learning.

What reflection seems to involve is the following sequence:

- Noticing a concern
- Clarification or expression of the concern in some form
- Response to the concern
- (Explicit relation of the expressed concern to other experience or input)*
- (Collecting other responses or information)*
- Processing the response as a whole
- Acting on the insights gained

* The bracketed stages are the additional stages that may occur in reflection-on-action.

This sequence is very similar to one Moon outlines for learning. Reflective sequences such as the one above offer potentially useful strategies for teachers to learn from their teaching experience. Where and when reflection actually occurs and when it leads to learning, and what is the relation between reflection and learning are still, though, largely-unanswered important questions, as Moon notes (p. 31).

Although teachers could not teach without knowledge and expertise of some kind, the nature of these attributes also are still open to debate (see Golombek, Chapter 15 and Tsui, Chapter 19, on teacher knowledge and expertise). Much recent research therefore in language teacher education and in TESOL, in particular, has been devoted to investigating with teachers how they go about making sense of what they do in order to support teachers in practical ways as lifelong learners. At the same time, it is hoped that involving teachers in such research will also acknowledge teachers' status as knowing, learning practitioners in ways that continue to rattle the distinction between theory as the domain of academic researchers and practice as the province of teachers.

Overview

Research on reflective practice in teacher education has mainly been of two kinds: research on its nature, and research using forms of reflection to learn about teaching.

Conceptualizing Reflective Practice

Research on the nature of reflection, although linked to a number of other disciplines, such as cognition (see Borg, Chapter 16), identity (see Miller, Chapter 17), and learning theories, is characterized by the notion and meaning of thoughtful action.

Some research has theorized the nature of teacher knowledge (e.g., Hashweh 2005; Hatton and Smith 1995). Hashweh proposed that experienced teachers develop scripts that organize experience, enable recall, and assist plans for future teaching. He called this ability constructing pedagogical content knowledge. But as Korthagen and Vasalos (2005) and Sim (2004) noted, how teachers operate cognitively can be influenced by fundamental factors such as how they view themselves as people and teachers. Accordingly, Korthagen

and Vasalos proposed an onion model, which, based on a concept of core reflection, demonstrated how teachers can be helped to progress to deeper levels of reflection by peeling away layers of the "onion." Beginning with reflections on their environment, teachers can reflect on actions in it, their abilities, beliefs, and identity, and ultimately approach their personal sense of mission at the core from a balanced perspective. They pointed out that teachers often need help, distance, and time to ask searching questions, become more aware of discrepancies between reality and desire, and avoid negative self-constructions about situations such as "I feel powerless" (2005: 55).

Other research has considered the contentious nature of reflection-in-action. Johansson and Kroksmark (2004) working within the frame of phenomenology suggested that intuition-in-action may be a better description of the judging and decision-making abilities that teachers employ while teaching. In their view, all kinds of reflection require some degree of distance from the object of reflection. Whereas the concept of intuition captures the notion of being open to experience and its deep description may be as systematic and more useful; Atkinson and Claxton (2003) also argued for this view in their book on intuitive practice. Johansson and Kroksmark in their study found that the concept of intuition-in-action resonated with teachers' sense of the situated, concrete nature of what they do. Their analysis, and those of the researchers in Atkinson and Claxton (2003), offer interesting alternatives to Schön's troublesome concept of reflection-in-action, and there is no reason why intuition-in-action could not support reflection-on-action, and vice versa.

Research on the nature of teacher education has overall revealed a central but unresolved role for reflective practice in language teacher education. Conceptual research on teacher knowledge (e.g., Freeman and Johnson 1998; Rogoff 1990; van Manen 1977) tends to draw upon the socially constructed nature of knowledge (e.g., Vygotsky 1962; Lave and Wenger 1991; Wells and Chang-Wells 1992) and personal professional identity (e.g., Cadman and O'Regan 2006; Connelly and Clandinin 1999). Such areas of research assume thoughtful construction of practical knowledge, which enables the concept of reflective practice to be situated within or alongside them.

BEING REFLECTIVE

Three central investigative questions can be seen to underpin how reflective action is theorized:

- What do I do?
- How do I do it?
- What does this mean for me and those I work with and for?

Implicit in these questions is a movement from technical to practical to critical reflection. Typically, research on being reflective has considered how teachers can be supported to get to deeper, critical levels of concern (e.g., van Manen 1977) although Noffke and Brennan (2004) suggest more nuanced conceptualisations are desirable.

Whereas Grushka et al.'s (2005) study focused on formal processes of teacher education as means of support, Curtis and Szestay (2005) reported the building of collaborative inquiry groups for practicing teachers, for which distance from the immediate experience and collaborative reflection in an atmosphere of mutual trust enable teachers to step back, look at their teaching with fresh eyes, and be more open to change (pp. 5–6). Central to the success of such communities is the process whereby a focus of concern leads to reflective conversation about it and, finally, increased awareness of the nature of the concern and professional renewal.

Much of the research assumes a central role for dialogic feedback on practice. Drawing on Dewey's (1933) four phases of reflection (experience, description, analysis, and intelligent action), Rodgers (2006) advocated teacher–learners describing an incident in structured, reflective conversations in an atmosphere of trust and community as a basis for first being able to see, then analyze, teaching action. In her view, describing and listening are vital prerequisites in reflection and analysis, and she advocated a structured process in which teachers can learn these skills. Pawan's (2003) paper also highlighted the role of structured conversation in online reflective teacher learning for teachers at a distance (see Hall and Knox, Chapter 22). By setting up asynchronous and synchronous discussion environments, the researcher was able to record online reflections as a source for later written reflections by all participants.

Studies on the nature and processes of reflective practice tend to suggest that reflection-in-action may not, strictly speaking, take place, but that techniques and processes such as description and dialog can be used to get close to the occurrence of a teaching incident in ways that enable teachers to reflect effectively on action. Studies of TESOL practice tend to endorse such techniques and processes (e.g., Freeman and Richards 1996; Bailey and Nunan 1996) and document strategies employed to support teacher reflection and learning (e.g., Richards 1998; Sharkey and Johnson 2003), without delving into further theoretical reconceptualizations of reflection and its relation to teaching.

Current Approaches and Practices

Strategies for teaching reflectively in language teaching are numerous, and published analyses and case studies demonstrate how they can be tailored to meet the needs of individual teachers and their particular circumstances (e.g., Farrell 2001; and the special issues on language teacher education of the TESOL Quarterly 1998; and the TESL-EJ 2005).

Case study collections usually orient the reader to the topic, describe the context and methodology of research and reflection, problematize the concern and its central characteristics, and often offer practical suggestions that readers can adapt to their own teaching situations. For example, Burton (2001–06), *Case Studies of TESOL Practice* (an international, 21-volume series) covered a wide range of teaching topics, and Farrell (2006ff.), *Language Teacher Research* (a 6-volume series) presents examples of teacher research from all the continents. These two series depict in some detail how inquiry and reflection are embedded in TESOL practice internationally. Each series has its own standard chapter format, which makes it easy for teachers to compare cases in the series or to write their own examples.

Handbooks on how to teach reflectively are also readily available (e.g., Farrell 2007; Richards and Lockhart 1994; Zeichner and Liston 1996).

From the wide range of available material about teacher research and reflective teaching, it is evident that teacher reflection in different forms is now considered central to teacher learning processes. Sometimes reflection is carried out orally through processes such as stimulated recall, seminars, and discussion groups. When teachers write down their reflections, the documentation tends to take the form of written narratives (e.g., Connelly and Clandinin 1999); involve reflective journal-writing (e.g., Burton and Carroll 2001; Mlynarczyk 1998), some of which is collaborative (e.g., Burton and Usaha 2002; Reichmann 2001); or form part of teacher research (e.g., Johnson and Golombek 2002). Increasing numbers of teachers now reflect in learning communities organized around action research as part of funded, project-based teacher development (e.g., Burns 1996; Wells and Chang-Wells 1992). This is because long-term reflection requires program support to ensure

that teachers have the time and distance from their everyday work for sustained reflection on practice (Burton 1997) and opportunities to work with colleagues.

Issues and Directions

Reflective conversations and support communities are evidently useful (e.g., Murphey and Sato 2005). However, a lot of teacher knowledge is being lost to the wider professional community due to the fact that teachers rarely write down their insights (Burton 2005). In addition to having little time or receiving little reward for writing, the fact that many teachers do not appear to enjoy the process of writing (e.g., Casanave and Vandrick 2003; Lu 1998) may also partly explain the scarcity of teachers writing for publication.

However, writing can offer more than a strategy for documentation: Writing is a composing process, which means that it actually involves reflection. Moreover, writing can document reflection-in- *and* on-action. So in itself writing has the potential to function as a uniquely-effective reflective tool.

The importance of writing as means of reflection and learning is recognized in some contexts. Elbow (1994), for example, observed that in the process of writing, it is possible to discover what you think and also what you don't know. More recently, Moon (2000) proposed that reflection could directly support the learning process. For example, through aiding noticing (by written description) and making sense (by written interpretation) teacher–learners could work more and more deeply with meaning (analysis) and ultimately transform practice (teaching renewal).

Although the importance of written composition as a learning tool in its own right is slowly being recognized, for the present that recognition applies to the more formal kinds of teaching inquiry and research, as the work of Golden-Biddle and Locke (1997), Holliday (2002), Kamler and Thomson (2006), and Richardson (2003) attests. Meanwhile, in a recent study, I surveyed the 265 authors in the *Case Studies of TESOL Practice* series on their experiences of reflection through writing Burton (2006). The majority of survey respondents (89.2 percent) believed that reflective writing was not only helpful but that it should be emphasized more as a means of teacher learning. Since, however, these respondents were by definition published authors and, as already noted, other researchers have documented the struggle of writing for publication, reflective writing as a teacher learning strategy requires further trial and documentation. Nevertheless, the strategy of teachers writing reflectively on teaching experience does seems to portend an effective means of teachers supporting their own professional learning and, also, enabling them to share that learning with others. Teachers writing reflectively and writing for publication would enable bodies of experiential knowledge and insights to be built up and used in other analyses for further learning.

In order for such developments to happen, however, more research is also needed into what kinds of published reflective writing teachers will read. It is fairly clear that teachers do not make wide use of the publications already available. Although the problem of time is again a factor in this, there is clearly a related question to investigate of what teachers enjoy reading and value as a means of reflection on teaching practice.

Conclusion

Although creative examples of thoughtful teaching are evident, it is still not possible to demonstrate precisely what teachers do when being reflective. Schön's distinction between reflection-in- and on-action and other related research, although helpful, has not been able

to explain fully what reflection is in relation to other cognitive and learning processes. Further, as Noffke and Brennan (2005) and Bailey (Chapter 27) indicate, theorization of what reflective practice is, and can be, needs to take account of the contextual and interpersonal factors that affect it.

At the same time, there is general recognition that reflective processes are more likely to be sustained when carried out collaboratively with other teachers and supported by facilitators who can structure the learning processes (see Johnston, Chapter 24). It is also suggested that teachers should be encouraged and supported to write reflectively, because this would help stem the loss of valuable teacher experience and insights and would enable the formation of a useful, expandable database for teachers in the future to contribute to and learn about teaching.

Despite the cautions previously listed, reflective practices are, in the main, found to be helpful and capable of infinite variety and flexibility in application. In particular, they complement other teacher education processes, such as action research, inquiry-based teaching, and exploratory teaching.

Suggestions for further reading

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Acknowledgments

We are grateful to the contributors to this volume who accepted the challenging task of surveying the literature in their areas of specialization and who gracefully and promptly responded to numerous suggestions from reviewers and the editors. We are also grateful to the anonymous reviewers for many helpful suggestions and comments.

Kate Spencer, our amazing production editor, made the publication of this book fly faster than we could ever have imagined. Kathleen Corley, our commissioning editor, has been unstinting in her enthusiasm for the project and in her constant encouragement to see it come to fruition. Our special thanks go to Kate and Kathleen.