CARLA Working Paper

Expanding Our Horizons: *Language Teacher Education in the 21st Century*

Selected Papers from the 6th and 7th International Language Teacher Education Conferences

EDITED BY DAN SONESON AND ELAINE TARONE

WITH ANNA UHL CHAMOT, ANUP MAHAJAN AND MARGARET MALONE

CARLA
Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

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Selected Papers from the 6th and 7th International Language Teacher Education Conferences

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Foreword: Expanding Our Horizons

Dan Soneson and Elaine Tarone, Editors

This volume contains selected papers from the sixth and seventh International Conferences on Language Teacher Education. The first, "Preparing Language Teachers for the 21st Century," sponsored by the National Capital Language Resource Center (NCLRC), was held May 28–30, 2009, at the George Washington University in Washington, DC. The second, "Expanding Our Horizons," was hosted by the Center for Advanced Research on Second Language Acquisition (CARLA) on May 19–21, 2011, at the University of Minnesota. We have combined the themes of both conferences to create the title for this volume.

Both conferences were organized around the same set of four themes that were considered critical for discussion:

- The Knowledge Base of Language Teacher Education
- Social, Cultural, and Political Contexts of Language Teacher Education
- Collaborations in Language Teacher Education
- Practices of Language Teacher Education

We have organized the papers in this volume in accordance with those shared thematic outlines, which are articulated on the CARLA conference website from 2011 (http://carla.umn.edu/conferences/past/LTE2011/themes.html).

Theme I. The Knowledge Base of Language Teacher Education

> *A central issue in language teacher education is the question of what constitutes the knowledge base of language teaching and how it relates to the processes and content of teacher education. This theme will include research and perspectives on: teachers' knowledge and beliefs; teacher learning in formal and informal contexts, teachers' ways of knowing, teacher socialization, professional development, and the nature of disciplinary knowledge.*

What do language teachers need to know? The volume leads off with Fagan's review of research regarding the knowledge base of language teachers. He re-examines these studies to clarify key terminology used in the LTE field, and he demonstrates the importance of specifying research agendas among LTE scholars. He provides a corrective to the studies involving teacher competence in two ways: arguing that internal understandings are not necessarily reflected directly or completely in classroom practice, and that an analysis of language teacher competency

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requires an understanding that teaching is a cyclical and overlapping process rather than a linear one. Not only does Fagan argue that one should include teacher reflections on classroom practice and on the relation to an understanding of language analysis, language learning, and language teaching, but he also makes a case for including direct evidence in the form of classroom discourse analysis to discover links between the different domains of teacher understanding and teacher practice. He argues against a linear understanding of the teaching process, involving preparation, delivery, and reflection, and argues instead for seeing this process as both cyclical, in that reflection leads to future development, and overlapping, pointing to reflection-in-action that affects both the current lesson and future lessons.

In Chapter 2, a team of five individuals from five different institutions looks at the knowledge base for effective teaching of heritage language speakers. Heritage language speakers bring a different experience base to the foreign language curriculum, as well as much different exposure and use of the target language than non-heritage speakers. The authors define salient characteristics of these learners and identify specific areas of knowledge that teachers draw on to effectively address the unique learning needs of these students. Teachers not only need advanced language proficiency, but also knowledge of pedagogical principles of enrichment and enhancement, familiarity with theories of cognitive processes, and an understanding of the social and linguistic processes that underlie bilingualism. The authors also identify language- and culture-specific issues relating to heritage speakers of Spanish, Chinese, and Russian, and conclude with a discussion of challenges and opportunities, along with a list of suggestions for next steps in research on the knowledge base required to teach heritage language learners.

Theme II. Social, Cultural & Political Contexts of Language Teacher Education

> *Language Teacher Education takes place in multiple contexts and with diverse populations, where language, culture, and identity are intricately bound together. These contexts are often impacted by actions taken by formal and informal decision-making bodies, which may or may not involve the participation of teacher educators. This theme will include critical and analytical perspectives on: institutions, communities, and discourses within which teacher education practices are situated; language education policy and planning, power, status, and authority in language teacher education, diversity and equity in language teacher education (including issues of race, class, gender, sexual orientation, and language), the socially situated nature of language and learning, and issues related to policy, such as standards, legislative mandates, recruitment and retention, as well as advocacy by language teacher organizations.*

The papers in this section demonstrate the complex interplay between socio-political context and language teaching in various ways. In Chapter 3, González argues persuasively that

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language teacher educators need to be more socially and politically engaged with policy makers and politicians who shape the institutions, and with discourses within which languages are taught. To illustrate the importance of this kind of engagement, the author describes the role language teacher educators have played in Colombia's implementation of a National Program of Bilingualism, a language education policy that aims to promote mass English teaching in Colombia. Language teacher educators, in interacting with Colombian policy makers and politicians, have learned that their work necessarily goes beyond the classroom; it involves learning the language of politics in order to advocate for local communities, and to take effective political action for educational and societal change. At a most basic level, language teacher educators need to simply educate decision-makers about what is involved in teaching and learning a language.

The impact of institutional policies and structures on the quality of teacher support is instantiated in Chapter 4 by Wang and Zhao, who describe an institutional context within which teachers of English as a Second Language were recently employed in tertiary-level small institutes in Toronto, Ontario. Despite the fact that 17 of them were college graduates, and eight also held masters' degrees, only five of these teachers were employed more than 20 hours a week at any one language institute; to make ends meet, most took part-time positions in more than one. A survey established that these teachers would have welcomed more classroom-oriented in-service professional development to improve their teaching, but most could find little institutional support to enable them to meet this goal. While the authors call for a broader study of in-service professional development needs that might include teachers from government-funded ESL programs in universities, colleges, and communities, it seems to us that such a study should also explore whether Canadian ESL teachers and ESL teacher educators believe that such professional development should, in conformity with González's recommendations above, include coaching on how to employ social and political engagement to improve teachers' employment conditions.

In Chapter 5, Warford calls for policy makers, program administrators, and language teacher educators to take action in response to what he describes as a growing disconnect between articulated professional standards that call for extensive use of the target language as the medium of instruction in language classrooms, and a growing body of research establishing that in those classrooms, teachers in fact use the learners' first language for most categories of discourse. Warford contends that, despite articulated professional standards for language proficiency instruction, research shows that increasingly, the primary types of teacher discourse that is actually devoted primarily to target language use are mechanical drills, with other forms of

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classroom discourse involving real sustained communication (i.e., that focused on empathy and rapport building, classroom procedures, or grammar and culture teaching) occurring primarily in the students' first language. (In Chapter 11, Allen's subsequent empirical study partially contradicts and complexifies this general conclusion.) Warford believes that although language students themselves are far more open to using the target language for all classroom discourse than are their teachers, this trend may also be shaped by the wider social context of language learning and teaching—and specifically by what he views as a growing public ambivalence in North America about the value of second-language proficiency.

Theme III. Collaborations in Language Teacher Education

> *A key element in teacher development is effective collaboration between individuals and institutions preparing teachers, and their professional counterparts currently engaged in language teaching and learning. This theme will examine: ways in which teacher education recognizes the shared development of professionals; models or structures of collaboration that stress ongoing teacher development (including mentoring and professional development schools); examples of and/or research on collaboration in which teacher development and research inform each other; and research, projects, or practices that recognize teacher expertise and the teacher voice as pivotal in addressing issues of language teaching and learning.*

The papers in this section describe different types of collaborations (between teacher educators, teachers, language students, and teacher-learners) that can contribute to the professional development and education of language teachers. Chapter 6, by Allwright and Miller, describes the development of Exploratory Practice as a highly collaborative framework for language teacher development in the schools of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Starting in the 1990s, Allwright and Miller began documenting the way teachers collaboratively engaged their students in resolving unaddressed classroom issues that needed resolution in order to prevent teacher burnout, and they worked together to develop a collaborative framework for language teacher education that might make life in language classrooms more "human" for teachers and students alike. In this chapter, they consider whether the currently pervasive "technicist" expectations brought to bear in pre-professional teacher education may be contributing to teacher burnout, and if so, how Exploratory Practice might be useful in providing a more human perspective for teachers-in preparation to sustain them in entering the profession.

In Chapter 7, Hanks explores in depth some of the dynamics that occur in Exploratory Practice when she works with her students and teacher-learners to collaboratively investigate their learning and teaching practices. As a part of her effort to better understand the notion of "inclusivity" both in a theoretical and empirical sense, and to make this kind of close

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collaboration work in her own practice, she explores her own experiences and ethical dilemmas as a teacher, learner, language teacher educator, administrator and researcher. She finds that trust is a major issue for both teachers and learners in setting up truly inclusive practitioner research in the classroom. Specifically, she had to learn, within a high-pressure, goal-oriented teaching context, to trust her learners and teacher-learners to be "unique individuals who learn and develop best in their own idiosyncratic ways" and are "capable of taking learning seriously" (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, 7). Although inclusivity did create a "problematic shift in power relations" (Breen, 2006, 216), it also produced enjoyable learning experiences in the classrooms, which became more lively and engaging for all.

In Chapter 8, Hardy and Li describe their experiment in collaborative peer-to-peer language teacher professional development. Through "oral dialogic journaling," a dialogic, inquiry-based approach to studying the second author's professional development as a teacher of English as a second language in an intensive program at Georgia State University, the two graduate students were able to collaboratively explore the relationship between their experiences, beliefs, and practices. The participants found the process to be a useful bonding exercise, which helped them both understand each other by creating a space of discourse within which they agreed to explore any relevant line of inquiry. Thus they did not limit their focus on any prescribed research question, such as the effects of being a non-native English-speaking teacher of ESL. Exploration of the dominant theme of Li's socialization into the U.S. education system was successful in large part because of her strong agency in the process.

In Chapter 9, Lundgren, Mabbott and Kramer document the process a collaborative team of university professors and school leaders used over a period of several years in developing a theoretically-motivated model for the evaluation of programs that serve English language learners in U.S. public schools, both in mainstream, or content, classes, and in English as a second language classes. The model was then used to conduct an evaluation. The structure of that evaluation, samples of the instruments used, and the kinds of data they elicited are provided. The authors found that the collaborative process of program evaluation they used led to professional development for teachers and school administrators alike; for example, most school principals realized early in the collaborative process that they would need to learn more about second language development in order to be able to reconceptualize their programming for English language learners in their schools. Most rewardingly, the collaborative team's findings had a discernable positive impact on both staffing decisions and on program models used in the schools.

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Theme IV. Practices of Language Teacher Education

> *The practices of language teacher education refer to the ways in which the knowledge base is conceptualized and operationalized in teacher preparation and professional development. This theme will examine program design, curriculum models, pedagogy, teacher assessment, organization of instruction, field experiences, observation/supervision, self-study of practice, and action research.*

The final and largest section of this volume deals with the practical side of language teacher education. Topics include implementation of a teacher's knowledge base through Conversational Analysis (Fagan), teachers' attitudes and practice regarding L2 use in the classroom (Allen), the process of language teacher education at the college level viewed from a sociocultural perspective (Paesani), online supervision of teacher candidates from a distance (Bernardy), and technology-based models for assessment literacy, particularly among teachers of less commonly taught languages (Malone).

In Chapter 10, Fagan returns to the topic of language teacher knowledge, or declarative knowledge, and its relationship to classroom practices, or procedural knowledge. He advocates for the practice of Conversation Analysis, with its minute analysis of teacher-student interaction moment by moment, as a means for providing insight into the connection between both types of teacher knowledge. Ethnographic data obtained from analysis of lesson plans and/or post-observation discussion that provides evidence of declarative knowledge, combined with the technique of Conversational Analysis of classroom interaction, provides an opportunity to identify procedural knowledge as it is constructed in actual communicative practices. Fagan presents a case study of one teacher who made use of her teacher journals (illustrating declarative knowledge), detailed Conversational Analysis of classroom activities (based on video recorded sessions), and stimulated recall sessions. The findings illustrate both the complementary and contradictory nature of her declarative and procedural knowledge. Fagan argues for the use of Conversational Analysis in teacher education programs as a tool for precisely identifying discrepancies between what emerging teachers know and how they attempt to implement that knowledge in practice.

In Chapter 11, Allen adds to the research base on L1 and L2 use in language classrooms reviewed in 2009 by Warford and summarized in Chapter 5. She first examines beliefs of five secondary school French teachers regarding the use of L2, and then looks at the amount of target language they actually use during the course of a teaching unit. She illustrates not only that some teachers don't believe in the exclusive use of the target language, but also that teachers' beliefs are not always consistent with their actual practice in the classroom. Her study of the five French

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teachers with a wide range of teaching experience included questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and extensive classroom observation in a Level II class. While most of the teachers affirmed the value of the L2 as the dominant level, they did not uniformly affirm exclusive use of the target language. In practice, classroom observations primarily in Level II French classes determined that use of the target language varied greatly. Target language use was primarily message-oriented, rather than medium-oriented (i.e., talking about the language) and different specific activities were identified when the L2 was used consistently. While there may be many reasons to revert to English in the classroom, Allen found that foregrounding with students the importance of use of L2 can facilitate their increased L2 use.

In Chapter 12, Paesani speaks to the issue of language teacher preparation and development at the post-secondary level in terms of teacher professionalization. While there is a recognized need to extend the development of pedagogical expertise and conceptual knowledge over time, many factors get in the way of implementing long-term systematic training to prepare students for future teaching responsibilities. Paesani turns to Vygotskian sociocultural theory as a possible solution to these impediments to provide a unifying framework for FL teacher professionalization at the graduate level. Using sociocultural theory, she argues for focusing attention on concept development (establishing relationships between everyday and scientific concepts) to produce the conceptual thinking that forms the basis of professional expertise and is essential to the professional development of FL teachers. She proposes five strategies for organizing professional development for graduate students in a way that promotes concept development, and she describes a semester-long teacher development sequence focused on lesson planning that incorporates these strategies, illustrating how sociocultural theory can provide an effective framework for long-term development.

The final two chapters look at ways technology can play an active role in language teacher education: Bernardy describes a project in which she conducted student teaching supervision remotely via a video analysis tool, and collected feedback from the student teachers on the process, while Malone outlines three technology-based programs in assessment training for teachers of less commonly taught languages.

Despite growing interest in programs that students can complete online, one of the stumbling blocks to online teacher certification programs is the pre-service field experience, or the student-teaching requirement. In Chapter 13, Bernardy describes a case study of fully online supervision of clinical field experiences. Her program leads to teacher certification in six foreign languages for full-time teachers employed on provisional licenses. In this study, the supervised

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field experience covered two semesters. In the first semester, the supervisor performed regular in-person observations with subsequent discussions. In the second semester, the supervision was completely online; each teacher candidate made a video recording of their class and uploaded the recording to an online service that allows for uploading, isolating and annotating segments, and video sharing. While students perceived and complained about technical difficulties, a questionnaire administered at the end of each semester displayed very similar perceptions regarding the quality of supervision. The study shows that it is possible to conduct teacher supervision remotely, but also warns that we must take care to establish and maintain personal contact with and among the candidate group.

Closing the volume, Margaret Malone outlines three different technology-based approaches to train teachers of less commonly taught languages (LCTLs) in principles and practices of language assessment. She identifies "assessment literacy" as a set of competencies including "understanding appropriate testing practices," "examining the results *vis á vis* teaching," and "applying the results to classroom practices," along with five additional skills. She points to the need, especially among teachers of LCTLs, to develop assessment literacy, and she outlines three courses developed at the Center for Applied Linguistics that were designed to address this need: 1) a five-week fully online course, 2) a nine-week blended learning course, developed under the STARTALK program, that includes five weeks online and a two-day face-to-face workshop followed by four weeks of applied practice online, and 3) a downloadable self-paced tutorial. The approaches are learner-driven and allow for self-paced access to course materials. All overcome constraints of time and place, obviating the need for travel to a physical workshop. In addition, they allow for instructor feedback and interaction among the participants, while also developing a common foundation of assessment literacy. Although quite successful, these courses still present challenges, such as access to adequate technology, technology literacy, and English language literacy among participants. Nevertheless, the online delivery has provided opportunities for hundreds of language teachers to become acquainted with assessment principles and practices, and with encouragement for implementing them in their own classrooms.

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Chapter One

Confronting Issues in Language Teacher Education Research: A Re-Examination of Teacher Competency

Drew S. Fagan, *Teachers College, Columbia University*

Within the field of language teacher education (LTE), much has been learned about language teacher competency from empirical research examining teacher knowledge and cognition. This field, however, "remains an emergent [one] of inquiry…not yet characterized by a well-defined research agenda and programmatic approach to research" (Barkhuizen & Borg, 2010, p. 237). The purpose of this paper is twofold: (1) to provide a critical analysis of the language teacher knowledge and cognition literature that illustrates these issues, and (2) to propose a re-examination of this literature that (a) clarifies key terminology utilized in the LTE field and (b) demonstrates the importance of specifying research agendas among LTE scholars.

Introduction

Language teacher competency as an essential component in facilitating language learning has become a prominent area of research in the field of language teacher education (LTE), as well as a point of interest in applied linguistics (B applied linguistics urns & Richards, 2009; Johnson & Golombek, 2011). Numerous empirical studies have investigated what a teacher does, knows, and is expected to know with regards to the subject matter (i.e., the language being taught), language acquisition, teaching practices, and potential contextual demands on teaching (e.g., curricular mandates or state-level testing requirements). These, in combination with theoretical frameworks of teacher knowledge already developed in general education (Shulman, 1987; Turner-Bisset, 2001), have led to the development of teacher knowledge frameworks in LTE (Richards, 1998; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Roberts, 1998). Additionally, investigations into teachers' thought processes during lesson planning, classroom interactions, and reflective practices have led to a wealth of insights into language teacher cognition (Borg, 2006). The plethora of studies within the language teacher education literature provide important insights for both teachers and teacher educators into what instructors bring, or should bring, into the classroom to help facilitate their own students' language learning.

A review of the literature, however, shows ambiguous and at times confusing and misleading (1) operationalizations of terminology, and (2) uses of methodological tools for the

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studies' objectives. Additionally, many studies make assumptions about the language teaching process that do not entirely coincide with actual teaching practice. Such divergences in education research can lead to discord for teachers and teacher educators in selecting and analyzing findings to utilize in practice, as well as in making incomplete or incorrect interpretations of those findings (Thomas & Pring, 2004, p. 4). The aim of this paper is to discuss the two pertinent issues mentioned above when reviewing and analyzing the language teacher competency literature. Following Borg's (2009) call to help language teachers and their teacher educators draw upon research findings to utilize in their practice, this paper addresses ways to provide a clearer, more consistent understanding of language teacher competency.

General Issues in Language Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Cognition Literature

Barkhuizen and Borg (2010) summarize the field of language teacher education as having had "…significant advances in research [while] remain[ing] an emergent field of inquiry, one not yet characterized by a well-defined research agenda and programmatic approach to research" (p. 237). This encompassing observation can be applied to research on language teacher knowledge and cognition. The application of the term *knowledge*, while extensively found in various LTE studies, has caused problems in explaining teacher competency. The various knowledge domains that have been presented in teacher education (e.g., subject content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, etc.) have caused dissension; for example, some researchers claim that even though these domains are well-suited as distinct categories for ease of research purposes, in actual classroom practice, they are interwoven and blended together and cannot be viewed as distinct from one another.[1] Additionally, the use of the term "knowledge" in teacher education literature is not consistent with the use of the term in other areas of ELT and For example, Freeman (1989) explains how language teachers need to possess knowledge constituents of concepts (i.e., internal ideas), the skills to implement that knowledge (i.e., in classroom practice), and the ability to assess both of these (i.e., reflective practices). Freeman and Johnson (1998) discuss how a language teacher's knowledge base is *supported* by "the activity of teaching itself" (p. 397), but the two cannot be seen as the same concept. This raises questions with how the term *knowledge* has been used in some recent empirical teacher education studies. Some studies present the use of the term *knowledge* as a conflation of teacher internal knowledge and external practice (Ellis, 2006; Lo, 2005). To clarify the terminology of language teacher

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[1] Refer to Johnston & Goettsch (2000) for a review of this argument.

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competency, in the remainder of this paper I disambiguate the term *knowledge* by examining separately: (1) how the field views teachers' internal knowledge and influences on teaching, which is termed here as *teacher understanding*; and (2) how the field examines this understanding in action, which is termed here *teacher practice*.

Language teacher competency has also been investigated by examining teacher cognition through the different components of the teaching process. It has been traditionally held that teachers first utilize a period of planning for their lessons, where they evaluate the appropriateness and eventual construction and/or selection of materials to be used in the classroom (Jackson, 1968). This work prepares teachers for in-class teaching and classroom interaction. A period of reflection on planning and implementation of the lesson allows teachers to examine their own methods of instruction. These three segments of teaching (planning, teaching, and reflection) have been used as focal points in many empirical studies to examine the cognitive strategies that distinguish novice from expert teachers in the language field (Gatbonton, 1999, 2008; Tsui, 2003). Although these three components of teaching have more often than not been discussed individually for the ease of research purposes (Clark & Peterson, 1986), more recently Johnson (2009) contends that they are not strictly linear and that investigations into teacher competence need to accept a degree of overlap and circularity among the teaching components.[2]

These two strands of teacher education literature, teacher knowledge and teacher cognition, have provided much insight into what teachers possess and need to possess in order to assist with language learning in their classrooms. However, the difficulties in clearly explaining language teacher competency can be daunting for both teacher and teacher educator alike due to the issues presented above. Following recent research directions that bring the two strands together (Tsui, 2003), the subsequent sections of this paper present the language teacher knowledge and teacher cognition literature in a manner that (1) avoids ambiguous understandings of what teacher knowledge entails, and (2) presents the various teaching components as working in tandem with each other as opposed to being a linear process. The reanalysis of literature in this fashion aims to provide a more succinct understanding of what language teacher competency entails, while providing future researchers with a clearer and more direct research agenda to expand knowledge in the field.

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[2] So as not to perpetuate the concept of teaching as a linear process, I use the term "teaching components" when describing lesson planning, classroom teaching, and reflection, as opposed to the more commonly used term "teaching stages."

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Lesson Planning

Teacher Understanding

Prior to classroom interaction, most teachers are instructed to focus on the lesson planning and activity/task development process (Brown, 2007; Tsui, 2005). Shulman (1987) emphasized that before any lesson planning can commence, teachers must have a complete understanding of the subject and content that they are to teach, including the concepts and theories behind it. In the field of ELT, knowledge of applied linguistics has become a focal point in most teacher education programs (Richards, 2008). In order to develop activities and prepare for classroom interaction, it is expected that language teachers possess an understanding of the various subfields of These facets can be divided into different domains of understanding: (1) an *understanding of language analysis*, and (2) an *understanding of language learning.*[3] Language analysis requires being conscious of the intricacies of the language to be taught. Specifically, this could follow Canale and Swain's (1980) now-famed notion of communicative competence, where one needs to be aware of both the grammatical and sociolinguistic intricacies of a language. Since teachers are expected to develop and assess students' linguistic knowledge of a language (Rea-Dickens, 2008), having this explicit *language awareness* (Hawkins, 1999; James, 1999; Thomas, 1987) of the English linguistic system is important for any teacher to possess prior to lesson planning and classroom instruction.

Having an *understanding of language learning* focuses on grasping how language develops. Generally speaking, a teacher in any discipline of study needs to have an understanding or belief of how development of the subject occurs prior to commencing lesson planning (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). In the case of ELT, this focus is on the development of the English language. For some teachers, this understanding comes from explicit theories of second language acquisition (SLA) commonly taught in ELT preparation programs (Bartels, 2005; Ellis, 2009; Richards, 2008). For other teachers, though, their understanding of language development stems from their own years of experience learning a second or foreign language (Ellis, 2006). Having multiple years of observing one's own teachers in practice, termed "apprenticeship of observation" by Lortie (1975), can influence how teachers in turn structure their own courses; this may or may not contradict current theories from SLA research. However, Freeman (2002) asserts that teaching the way the teacher was taught usually co-occurs with the teacher's reflection of the specific teaching context. Therefore, prior to any lesson planning, as a teacher

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[3] Following Johnston & Goettsch's (2000) assertion that the currently used knowledge domains in teacher research (i.e. subject content knowledge vs. pedagogical content knowledge) are not as easily separated in actual instruction as they are for research purposes, I will not use those terms in this paper.

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one needs to also have an understanding of how to *reflect* and utilize that understanding in order to assert one's own belief of language acquisition within one's teaching. Regardless of where teachers' fundamental understandings of language development come from, these ideas need to be considered in relation to understanding individual students' needs and learning styles in a classroom. In order to prepare for each class, teachers must reflect on the connections between the developmental needs, wishes, and responses of the individual learners and the teacher's own theories of learning (Wette, 2009). In this respect, the focus of the lesson planning is on individual students and contexts rather than the use of decontextualized concepts and practices (Gatbonton, 2008; Tsui, 2003, 2005).

Language teacher education has focused greatly on ensuring that teachers understand language analysis and language development (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1997; Van Patten, 2002). Although researchers and student teachers alike confirm that these are necessary components in preparing for language lessons (LaFond & Dogancay-Aktuna, 2009), numerous researchers have come to criticize the overall importance they have been given (Bartels, 2002, 2005; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Lesson planning entails also having a third domain of understanding, one of *language teaching*. This includes (a) understanding methodologies of the field and their connections to language analysis and language learning, (b) understanding curricular mandates where one teaches, and (c) understanding the resources that are available for teacher use.[4] Having a complete understanding of the various teaching methodologies that have been utilized in language education would greatly help teachers make connections between language analysis, language development, and their actual teaching and teaching contexts. This, in conjunction with having an understanding of the school's language teaching curriculum, would aid teachers in deciphering how to set up their activities, organize their lessons, and prepare for classroom interaction. Additionally, this would also help in the understanding of the various resources that are at teachers' disposal for classroom use (such as textbooks, technology, and even other teachers' expertise). The more familiar teachers are with teaching resources, the more fluid they can be in making changes to already established lesson plans during class as necessary. As Tsui (2005) explains, an expert teacher is one who can take a vast repertoire of materials and adapt them to meet on-the-spot changes as needed in specific teaching contexts.

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[4] This list consolidates research adapted from Darling-Hammond & Bransford (2005), Johnston & Goettsch (2000), and Shulman (1987).

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Teacher Practice

In empirical studies that have analyzed language teacher lesson planning, two distinct methods of implementation have surfaced. One focuses on how teachers turn subject knowledge (such as language analysis and language learning) into pedagogically-salient materials for the classroom. The second takes already acquired pedagogical competence (i.e., general teaching strategies) and imprints subject knowledge onto it.

To illustrate the first lesson planning perspective, Lo (2005) describes an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructor who had returned to Asia for a teaching post. Having recently finished her MA in North America, she was well-versed in current language learning theory. However, upon her arrival to her English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching position, she deduced that this knowledge was not so pertinent to her immediate teaching context. For example, the teacher believed that knowledge about various hypotheses of learning in SLA was not going to help her students learn English to pass their college entrance examinations. In addition, a more teacher-fronted, individual-work classroom setting was emphasized by the school's language teaching curriculum, and was a classroom structure well-known by the students. The teacher chose to prepare for more teacher-fronted interactions where (a) content questions about grammar would be asked, (b) responses from students would be given, and (c) feedback/correction on those responses would be provided. The planning of her class around these traditional teacher initiation, student response, and teacher feedback (IRF) discursive sequences (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) would allow her to evaluate students' English language knowledge in a timely manner. Additionally, she developed activities that were repetitive in nature and focused more on certain grammatical concepts commonly found in high-stakes examinations than on English communication. On the surface, Lo's study shows how the influence of the immediate students' needs, learning styles, and school curriculum prevails over directly using her understanding of language learning theories in her lesson preparation. It is important to note that the teacher still did possess an understanding of language learning, but decided that it was not necessary to incorporate that into her immediate EFL teaching context. This interconnection between understanding language learning and language teaching demonstrates the influential nature that one has on the other in planning a lesson.

Teachers who have moved into the language teaching field from other teaching disciplines would fall under the second planning perspective, imprinting applied linguistics knowledge onto already held beliefs of good teaching preparation based on prior teaching experiences (Freeman & Richards, 1996). To illustrate, Riegelhaupt and Carrasco (2005)

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describe K-12 content teachers preparing for their ESL certification. The already full-time teachers were struggling with their White Apache Mountain students' less-than-standard use of English in the classroom. The teachers noted in their teaching journals that through their sociolinguistics course, they became more aware of looking at English through a more descriptive lens rather than a prescriptive one. The teachers were able to take their already developed activities and adapt them to show differences between Apache English and more standard academic English. Additionally, the teachers would plan for extra time in their lessons to allow for class discussions on the difficulties that students were having in relation to the differences between the two types of English. For this, having an understanding of language analysis through sociolinguistics influenced how they developed their lessons. As with Lo's (2005) participant, the importance for examining these domains of understanding as a whole rather than as separate units provides a better picture of how teachers do lesson planning.

Investigating teacher competence during lesson planning has shown that teachers have many different domains of understanding working in tandem. However, these domains also influence the other components of teaching.

The Implementation of Lesson Planning: Classroom Interaction

Teacher Understanding

Examining teacher practices in classroom interactions has been an essential research focus in language teacher education. Studies have examined this connection in relation to teachers implementing into their practices knowledge of morphosyntactic grammar (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1997) and SLA (Angelova, 2005). While knowledge in these areas is important, teachers must be able to recognize patterns in classroom interaction and know "how to assign meaning to them very quickly" (Tsui, 2005, p. 174) so as to move the entire class forward in the language learning process; this includes initiating opportunities for learners to practice with the language and managing learners' talk in ways that promote language learning (Fagan, 2012a). As such, being able to know how to analyze classroom interactions is important for teachers to assess problematic situations,[5] determine more important issues in the class compared to less incidental ones, provide various forms of oral feedback that are appropriate to both the individual student and the flow of the class as a whole, and make spontaneous changes to already established lesson plans as needed to help steer the class in a certain direction.[6]

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[5] This can includes learners' ill-formed language use, incorrect understanding of language usage, or lack of knowledge.

[6] Adapted from Gatbonton (1999, 2008).

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Having an understanding of discourse analysis, in conjunction with other linguistic focuses and SLA theories, is therefore a necessity in exploring language teacher competency during classroom interaction. It has been found, though, that most novice teachers within language teaching programs do not have a full grasp of the importance of connecting their knowledge of discourse analysis with their classroom practices (Belz, 2005; Hellermann, 2008); those teachers who do claim that their understanding has an effect on how they view language learning within classroom interactions (Tang, 2008).

Most of the findings in the studies investigating teacher understanding of discourse analysis come from journal reflection or interview data; few have examined a teacher's thought process during real-time interactions. One of the latter is Lazaraton and Ishihara (2005), who showed that through using the discursive analytic methodology of conversation analysis (CA), teachers more scrupulously reflect on their real-time classroom practices. From a different research perspective, Fagan (2012b) finds that the microanalytic use of CA shows the complements and discrepancies between the teacher's declarative knowledge of what occurs in the classroom and actual classroom interactions.

As presented here, it is essential for teachers to have a basic understanding of how classroom interactions, and in particular the teacher's discourse, affects the language learning process. Putting this into practice, though, is unique to the specific teaching context.

Teacher Practice

One main goal in facilitating language learning is managing opportunities for learning in classroom discourse (van Lier, 1988). Allwright (2005) and Allwright and Miller (2012) stress the importance for language teachers to provide a classroom atmosphere where students are able to interact with both the teacher and other students in order to work on their own language development. These language learning opportunities for students can occur by the manner in which teachers (a) introduce language items that are suitable to the individual language learners' needs as well as being in line with the curriculum's mandates, (b) manage teacher talk versus student talk in the classroom, (c) assess student knowledge and facilitate interaction through feedback, and (d) incorporate student contributions into the lesson (Ellis, 2007; Gatbonton, 1999; Hillocks, 1999).

To exemplify how an expert teacher reconciles the information described in the previous paragraph, here I present Borg's (1998) case study illustrating one EFL teacher contradicting the teaching methodology and classroom interaction style that was ingrained into him throughout his teacher education program, so as to meet the needs of his immediate teaching context. While

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the teacher's graduate program focused heavily on communicative language teaching (CLT) and advocated student-centeredness, group-work interaction, and implicit grammar teaching, it became apparent over time that it was not suitable for his specific students' learning styles. During his interviews for the study, he described how his students struggled with initiating topics, responding to open-ended questions, and working with other students to implicitly learn grammar. He gradually moved to a more teacher-fronted explanation of grammar rules and patterns, where students more comfortably took notes and responded to the teacher's direct questions. To do so, he utilized more traditional IRF sequences in his interaction for two main purposes: to provide the students with immediate feedback regarding the correctness of their English knowledge, and to determine which concepts were understood and which needed to be reiterated. The teacher viewed students' answers and their degree of correctness as being an essential contributing factor in determining the flow of the class and the progression of materials for future classes. In this manner, the teacher (1) acted as manager of how much student talk occurred in relation to teacher talk, (2) managed the type of student talk that occurred in the classroom, and (3) could determine how best to proceed with the classroom discourse so as to promote learning opportunities to best meet the students' needs.

The discursive interactions described here provide students with learning opportunities to build up their language knowledge in the classroom. Investigating teacher competency during classroom interaction has shown that all domains of teacher understanding (language analysis, language learning, and language teaching) work together and influence the final outcome in lesson implementation.

Teacher Reflection

Teacher Understanding

While examinations of lesson planning and classroom interaction provide information about classroom teaching, it is equally important to understand how teachers determine whether what was planned and implemented was effective enough for future use. Teacher reflection as a necessary tool for professional development has been discussed in research and teacher practice literature alike.[7] Shulman and Shulman (2004) state that teachers generally need to be conscious of the manner in which they teach if they are to help facilitate learning in their classrooms. This goes beyond having a superficial understanding of what is happening in the classroom, and

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[7] See Burton (2009) for a list of references.

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includes being able to retrieve reasons behind the teaching through teacher self-monitoring and metacognitive reasoning (Shulman & Shulman, 2004; Tsui, 2005).

Having an understanding of reflection also connects the teacher back to the other domains of teacher understanding previously discussed. Numerous studies have shown that while reflecting on their teaching, teachers are able to explain their understanding of language analysis (Burns & Knox, 2005), language learning (Angelova, 2005), and language teaching (Borg, 1998). Having an understanding of reflection could therefore be seen as an explicit link for teachers to use with other teacher understanding domains that influence their instruction. To disambiguate how reflection is perceived by teachers and researchers alike in language teaching settings, the next section will explain various practices of reflection used among language teachers and how they make direct connections with not only the other domains of understanding (i.e., understandings of language analysis, language development, and language teaching), but also with lesson planning and classroom interaction.

Teacher Practice

In most teacher education programs, reflection has included student journals, autobiographies, and interviews that occur following lesson planning and instruction. These ways of reflecting on lesson planning and implementation allow teachers to become more proactive in their own understanding of teaching practice (Clark & Peterson, 1986). However, teacher reflection can take numerous forms. Much research examining teacher reflection has investigated reflection during post-observation sessions. Originally introduced as a new approach in assessing teachers during their observations, Freeman (1982) and Gebhard (1990) described a more non-directive approach to language teacher observation as opposed to the more supervisory approach that had previously dominated teacher assessment. Instead of having a checklist of certain methods and skills that teachers were expected to adhere to and discuss during the post-observation session, this newer approach allowed for teachers to become more responsible for their own recognition of teaching methods utilized and to have more of a conversation with the observer rather than be lectured to. The emphasis here is on *why* teachers prepare for their lessons and then conduct them in the manners that they do, as opposed to *what* they should or should not do. This form of observation allows teachers to utilize critical thinking in understanding their own teaching approaches. Most importantly, this post-observation approach can be utilized at all points of one's career as opposed to only at the student teacher level (Brandt, 2008).

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Recently, self-reflection throughout all segments of teaching (not only during post-observation) has been emphasized in language teacher education and professional development. The current reflective model of teacher education allows teachers to become more autonomous in their thought processes (Richards, 2008). More common methods of self-reflection such as journal writing have infiltrated research on teacher cognition. Rieglehaupt and Carrasco (2005) utilized extensive journal writing in their study of K-12 content teachers entering into the ESL field to learn about (and attempt to incorporate) newly found understandings of language analysis. Teachers were able to clearly verbalize specific difficulties that they had trying to utilize new sociolinguistic knowledge in their lesson planning and activity development. They also wrote about how sociolinguistics not only infiltrated their teaching, but also their personal views about what is and is not deemed acceptable English. These findings from the journal reflections exemplify not only the need for teachers to consider their daily teaching preparation and methods, but also show how reflecting can affect personal beliefs about language.

More contemporary approaches to reflection have attempted to examine teacher beliefs about teaching a second language. Farrell (2009) introduces concept mapping as a way for student teachers in a pre-service program to see where exactly their beliefs about teaching come from (e.g., from their apprenticeship of observation) and how those beliefs change over the course of a teacher education program. The maps allow student teachers to explicitly view changes in their thinking over time with regard to perceived notions of instruction in the field of second language teaching.

Other reflection methods have come from more qualitative methodological tools that are commonly utilized in education research. Stimulated recall has often been used to assess student and teacher cognition. Participants talk about their thought processes while watching their own taped performances on tasks they previously conducted (Brice Heath & Street, 2008). Studies such as those by Gatbonton (1999, 2008) have utilized stimulated recall to compare the thinking processes in both novice and expert teachers as they watch their own teaching on videos. However, this can also be an outlet for teacher reflection in the form of teachers' retrospection of their own teaching methods. Kwo's (1996) EFL teaching participants were told to videotape their own teaching throughout the semester and to do a stimulated recall/retrospection to reflect on what changes they saw. At first, the participants commented on how influential their understanding of language analysis was in their teaching methods. As time went on, the teachers commented how they saw a change in their teaching from strictly adhering to the preplanned lesson plans to allowing more fluidity in their teaching based on their students' needs and

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learning styles. Both the teachers and the researchers emphasized that this form of reflection was very beneficial in that it allowed the teachers to make more salient connections among the different domains of understanding. Nevertheless, from a research perspective it is difficult to determine whether the descriptions from the teachers during their retrospections actually aligned with their classroom practice since, like the majority of empirical studies in teacher competence research, classroom interaction data was not described.[8]

The implementation of different reflection methods has made teachers explicitly aware of their own comprehension of the other domains of teacher understanding mentioned earlier in this paper, both for lesson planning and classroom interaction. However, it is necessary to note that the previously discussed modes of reflection are done *subsequent* to lesson planning and classroom interaction, which Schön (1983) terms "reflection-on-action." Although reflection-on-action is the more commonly practiced form of reflection, there is room for error based on human agency. Recollections of what *exactly* happened in the classroom, what teachers were *precisely* feeling at that moment, and the specific reasoning behind those may not be completely accurate. Research in ethnography (Bernard, 2006; LeCompte & Preissle, 2003) has consistently argued that the use of data based on participant recollection needs to be taken with caution and should be triangulated with other, more concrete evidence such as detailed observations notes or transcriptions of activities, to show complete understanding of a concept. Schön's (1983) second classification of reflection, "reflection-in-practice," provides for this necessary triangulation of data. This type of reflection occurs simultaneous to instruction. It has often been noted how difficult it is for both student teachers and teacher educators alike to investigate reflection-in-action due to the lack of clear, robust techniques for this form of analysis (Rodger, 2002). To address this dilemma, evidence from teachers performing online reflection while teaching would be beneficial in examining their reactions to the immediate needs in the classroom. Understanding how to perform microanalytic analyses of interactions by using tools such as CA would provide teachers and teacher educators an intricate view into what other teachers do with their classroom communicative practice (Fagan, 2012b). More studies such as these would provide further insight into teachers' reflections in their immediate teaching contexts.

Conclusion

The purpose of the current chapter was to critically re-examine the language teacher competency research as it has been described in the language teaching and learning literature. To

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[8] For an example of how teacher reflections may differ from actual classroom practices, refer to Fagan (2012b).

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do so, I first examined the concept of teacher competency as analyzed in two scholarly fields: (1) teacher knowledge, where a teacher's understanding of the subject matter and pedagogical practices have been directly linked to their actual classroom practices, and (2) teacher cognition, where a teacher's reasoning and thought processes for lesson planning, classroom instruction, and reflection have been studied at length. As key concepts were found to be inconsistently and/or ambiguously presented in the literature, here I disambiguated them in a manner more accessible for teachers and teacher educators to clearly utilize these essential concepts associated with language teacher preparation.

To begin, the term "knowledge" in many studies has been, either intentionally or not, conflated with both teachers' internal understandings of subject matter and pedagogical practice and actual implementation of these practices. Previous discussion in language teacher research, as well as in other research areas of language learning such as language testing (Bachman, 1990), has emphasized that "knowledge" focuses on internal understanding of concepts. External practices have been seen as a separate entity for investigation and may or may not demonstrate a teacher's complete understanding of concepts. As has been addressed in this paper, it is important for teachers and teacher educators to examine the language teacher literature with specific focuses in mind (i.e., what a teacher understands or how a teacher conducts classroom practices). When bridging the two, L2 researchers and classroom practitioners alike need to realize that a teacher's complete understanding of applied linguistics or pedagogical practices may not surface in their actual teaching. Thus, when reading already conducted research or planning one's own study, the methodological tools and analyses need should not assume direct correlations between understanding and classroom practice. Many studies described in the teacher practice sections of this paper follow general trends of gathering data on language teachers' *perceived* understandings of their teaching. The majority of this information comes from data sources such as interviews (either individually conducted or in focus groups) or written reflections (e.g., journals) and not from actual detailed analyses of classroom data. A triangulation of data that utilizes interviews, field notes, and reflective data (to name a few), as well as detailed transcripts of classroom discursive interactions, would provide more salient links between the different domains of teacher understanding and teacher practices in language classrooms.

To articulate language teacher competency, it is also necessary to understand teaching as a cyclical and overlapping process as opposed to traditionally held views of examining it in a linear fashion. Although teacher preparation materials never explicitly present the process of

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teaching as linear, research often presents it as such. In many L2 teacher education textbooks (Brown, 2007), teaching is presented as follows: emphasizing lesson planning first, followed by sections describing how to do classroom instruction, and culminating with a discussion on teaching reflection. Similarly in research, putting different variables into distinct categories quite often makes for ease of data gathering, analysis, and explanation (Bernard, 2006; Duff, 2007), as well as satisfying certain publication restrictions (e.g., page-limit restrictions). Many researchers of teacher cognition and teacher knowledge have sought to investigate these different teaching components, and have presented them as separate and distinct of each other. As shown in this chapter, lesson planning, classroom interaction, and teacher reflection is cyclical and overlapping. Language teacher competency, therefore, entails an understanding that all components of teaching are interrelated in a multimodal process, and need to be presented as such during language teacher preparation.

Although a relatively young field of inquiry, language teacher education research has made great strides in investigating how teachers can factor into the language learning process based on their own understanding of various concepts, their thought processes, and their classroom practices. The importance of understanding language teacher competency is necessary in order to help prepare future teachers in providing their language students with optimal learning environments. This paper has brought to light numerous contributions that have been made so far in understanding language teacher competency while at the same time clarifying certain issues that still need to be addressed when investigating this area of inquiry. For teacher educators examining language teacher education literature, careful attention needs to be paid as to whether they want to query teachers' understandings of language teaching methodology and the applied linguistics subfields or investigate teacher classroom practices. As in all fields of study, readers of teacher education literature need to go beyond what is written on the page and make direct connections with their own teaching experiences. In gathering a more complete understanding of language teacher competency, future studies that encapsulate research from across the different subfields within applied linguistics (e.g., discourse analysis, SLA) and from teacher education would be beneficial. A triangulation of methods that bridge teachers' understandings of the various knowledge domains, their thought processes during the various teaching components, and their actual classroom teaching would provide for further insight into teacher competency as it factors into the language learning process.

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Chapter Two

Teachers of Heritage Language Speakers: Perturbing Assumptions and Possible Solutions

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Given that today's foreign language classrooms are increasingly populated by heritage language speakers, this paper argues that *all* foreign language teachers should receive preparation for working effectively with these students. We briefly summarize the differences between heritage and foreign language learners before presenting a general set of competencies that successful teachers of heritage language speakers should have. We then consider three specific languages—Spanish, Chinese, and Russian—before concluding with resources and concrete suggestions for future directions in language teacher education regarding heritage language speakers.

Introduction

In 2007, 20% of all school-aged children in the United States spoke a Language Other Than English (LOTE) (American Community Survey, 2007). This means that today's foreign language classrooms are increasingly populated by heritage language speakers (or heritage speakers)—students who grew up developing proficiency in a LOTE. Such students may enroll in formal classes in a "foreign language" that is in fact their heritage language. A large and growing body of research suggests that specialized separate classrooms for heritage speakers are justified for linguistic, academic, and affective reasons (American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese [AATSP], 2000; Colombi & Alarcón, 1997; McGinnis 1996; Potowski & Carriera, 2004), yet only 10% of secondary schools (middle and high schools) in 2008 (Rhodes & Pufahl, 2010) and 18% of postsecondary institutions in 2000 (Ingold, Rivers, Tesser, & Ashby, 2002) offered separate courses for heritage language speakers. Thus, it is becoming increasingly common to find heritage speakers mixed into classes designed for "traditional" foreign language learners.

For this reason, we argue in this paper that not only teachers of separate heritage speaker courses, but *all* foreign language teachers should receive preparation for working effectively with heritage speaker students. Yet opportunities for teachers to learn about how to work effectively

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with heritage speakers are rare. To date, there is no textbook on heritage methods; there are no standards for heritage teacher preparation, no state-sponsored certification of heritage language teachers, and no national language standards for heritage language speakers. This means that even at institutions with heritage speaker programs, teachers typically do not receive adequate preparation to work with these students. Calls for Spanish heritage teacher training began appearing over thirty years ago (García-Moya, 1981), but to date no formal national surveys have determined how many pre-service teacher-training programs include issues related to teaching heritage language speakers.

This paper briefly summarizes the differences between heritage language (HL) and foreign language (FL) learners before presenting a general set of competencies that successful teachers of heritage language speakers need to have. It then considers three specific HL cases—Spanish, Chinese, and Russian—before concluding with resources and concrete suggestions for future directions in language teacher education regarding heritage language speakers.

What is Different About Heritage Language Speakers?

We briefly consider here the general linguistic and affective profiles of students and the ideal goals of HL vs. FL courses, and then provide greater detail regarding the teaching of Spanish, Chinese, and Russian. A primary challenge is the wide range of proficiencies and motivations represented among HL students. For example, in some parts of the country, the majority of HL students are first-generation immigrants and are, therefore, proficient to some degree in their heritage or native language. In other areas, HL students belong to the third generation (the grandchildren of immigrants) and are English-dominant. Increasingly common is the case of students from multiple generations and proficiencies in the same classroom. Some are quite fluent, while others only have receptive abilities; some can read and write, while others cannot; some are familiar with multiple registers and cultural processes and products, while others do not have this background. This variety of HL proficiencies requires that HL teachers be particularly adept at differentiating instruction to meet the needs of the different groups—even more so when FL students are in the mix as well.

As important as HL speakers' linguistic profiles are their affective needs. Many display insecurity about their heritage language and are hesitant to undertake formal study of what to them has always been an informal language. They may also reject their HL because they have internalized messages about its inferiority or undesirability, which is not uncommon in a linguistic culture as fiercely monolingual as that of the United States (Potowski 2010). These

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issues should be addressed in heritage-speaking populations, not least of all because language attitudes can affect language learning (Gardner, 1982).

Although it is not a primary goal of this paper to argue for the need for separate HL courses, we take a moment here to point out that the presence of heritage speakers in FL classes affects both placement and pedagogy. FL placement is a fairly straightforward process. Typically, students with no previous coursework in a language are assigned to the first level of instruction, and others are placed according to well-established formulas of equivalency and sequencing of courses (e.g., one year of high school equals one semester of college; in order to enroll in a course at a certain level, you must have completed coursework at the prerequisite level). Even when a long time has elapsed since the completion of prior coursework, placement is still fairly deterministic: students who cannot correctly conjugate certain verb forms, for example, likely belong at a beginning level of instruction, while those with a good command of certain grammatical systems probably belong at the intermediate or advanced levels, depending on their command of other structures and vocabulary. Teachers who have worked with HL speakers will recognize that the above FL hierarchies are not valid for them. For example, HL speakers can be at a loss to spell verbs and pronouns that they employ with ease in conversation. They may be able to conjugate some verb tenses with fairly high rates of accuracy but produce stigmatized or non-standard forms. They may speak the HL with some fluency but have limited or no academic background in the language, in some cases being completely unable to read or write it. Placing HL speakers in FL courses often results in disorientation and frustration on the part of teachers and learners alike (Potowski, 2002; Rodríguez Pino, 1997; Scalera, 2000), and a lack of correspondence among teaching methods, materials, and goals, and student needs (Draper & Hicks, 2000; Valdés, 2002).

The goals of well-structured heritage language courses are clearly driven in part by the linguistic and affective profiles just outlined. Valdés (1997) proposed four goals for HL instruction: (1) maintenance of the HL; (2) acquisition of a prestige variety of the HL; (3) expansion of students' bilingual range, including grammatical, textual, and pragmatic competence; and (4) transfer of literacy skills between languages. Another set of goals for heritage language students and curricula was produced by a collaboration between Hunter College and the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) (Webb & Miller, 2000). In that volume, Scalera (2000) proposed the following goals of HL instruction: learning about students' heritage countries and how their cultures, customs, and religions were developed; understanding the usefulness of the heritage language, and developing increased self-

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monitoring abilities and confidence that continued use of the heritage language will lead to greater proficiency; integrating language experiences across the curriculum and across language arts skills; and including literature, social science, and history related to students' countries as well as to their daily lives. Finally, the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, long interested in the experiences of heritage Spanish speakers, has also published a set of recommended topics that HL courses should address (2000, p. 83), several of which overlap with the goals proposed by Valdés (1997) and Scalera (2000). These include student motivation and self-esteem, language formality, regional and social diversity, strategies for language expansion, and increasing awareness of metalinguistic skills and cultural diversity.

The works cited here provide a picture of what HL instruction should look like, distinguishing it quite clearly from traditional FL instruction. So what should be the parameters of teacher education for HL instructors?

What Do Effective Teachers of Heritage Speakers Need to Know?

The preceding sections have demonstrated that HL students have different linguistic and affective needs than FL students. It should be clear that, as a result, HL instruction should occupy itself with a very different knowledge base and set of skills than does FL instruction. However, the following assumption is evident throughout the United States: That teachers who have studied FL acquisition and have been trained in FL methodology will make good HL teachers. This occurs even at institutions that are responsive enough to heritage speakers to offer a separate HL track. It is useful to illustrate this problem through a comparison with the field of English teacher training. Nearly all English departments maintain a clear curricular distinction between those preparing to become ESL teachers and those preparing to become Language Arts teachers for fluent English speakers. It is not assumed that ESL teachers will be successful Language Arts teachers, nor vice versa. In fact, state requirements demand separate coursework and award different endorsements and certifications in these two fields. The FL field is in dire need of recognizing a similar important distinction.

Table 1 (García & Blanco, 2000) gives a list of what HL teachers should know in order to be successful.

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Table 1. Necessary Teacher Competencies for Teaching Native Speakers of Spanish

Teachers of heritage speakers should meet the requirements expected of all teachers of Spanish. In particular, teachers of heritage speakers should demonstrate the following competencies:

- Advanced language proficiency
- Knowledge of appropriate pedagogical principles in language expansion and enrichment
- Theories of cognitive processes that underlie bilingualism
- Theories of social and linguistic processes that underlie bilingualism and languages in contact
- Knowledge of the sociolinguistic dynamics of the heritage language around the world and as a viable system of communication in the United States
- Knowledge and understanding of the connections of the students' home culture with those of their families' countries of origin

(Based on García & Blanco, 2000, p. 88)

Most of the areas in Table 1 are not covered in most FL methodology courses, notably all but the first bullet point. Nor are topics such as bilingualism, language contact, and sociolinguistic variation likely to be studied by teachers while they are undergraduates or graduate students in predominantly literature-based programs. The Hunter College-ACTFL collaboration (Webb & Miller, 2000, p. 83) also offers a list of competencies and practices for teachers of heritage languages. Some are similar to those offered by the AATSP (including a firm background in sociolinguistics and an understanding of the cultural backgrounds of the students). Additional points in Webb and Miller's (2000) list of required heritage teacher competencies include:

- Understanding the social, political, and emotional issues associated with having various degrees of proficiency in one's heritage language
- Being aware of students' attitudes toward learning their heritage language
- Incorporating personal voice into the instructional program, thereby nurturing self-esteem
- Advocating for heritage learners and promoting the importance of the heritage language program within the school

Many additional points not specified in these lists are crucial for HL teachers. Top among them is skill in placement testing and assessment (Otheguy & Toro, 2000; Potowski, Parada, & Morgan-Short, 2012), because even students living in the same community can have varied linguistic profiles. Some of them may, in fact, be better served by regular FL classes.

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Furthermore, noting that well-designed HL courses should look more like Language Arts courses than like FL courses, Potowski & Carreira (2004) explored the standards of the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) and found them a good source of additional curricular goals and teacher competencies. (Martinez' 2003 piece on critical dialect awareness fits well within the concerns of the NCTE). Teachers of HL learners need effective instructional strategies that work in multilevel classes to promote student interaction and production in the language both within and outside the classroom and program. They must be able to develop proficiency at appropriate levels, including students who will use the language for family and community interactions and those who will use it at advanced levels for academic and professional purposes. It also behooves them to be able to help students see the value of prestige varieties of the language in a sensitive and sociolinguistically informed and responsible way, use technology to facilitate instruction and broaden language use opportunities, and document student achievement in ways that are aligned with content and proficiency standards, yet also target specific HL needs.

The wide variety of HL proficiencies, and in particular classes with a mix of HL and FL learners, requires strong teacher skills in differentiation (Tomlinson, 1999). Differentiated instruction has received a great deal of attention as an effective way to deal with mixed-ability classrooms. A differentiated classroom offers a variety of learning options so as be responsive to the needs of different students. Key tenets of this type of instruction are that (1) differences among students shape the curriculum, (2) ongoing assessment of students is built into the curriculum, (3) learning materials for students at multiple levels are available, (4) variable pacing is utilized, (5) students play a part in setting goals and standards, (6) varied grading criteria are used, and (7) work is assigned to students by virtue of their level of readiness.

Given the above descriptions of well-designed HL instruction, we must ask ourselves whether traditional FL teacher training programs are adequate to prepare teachers competent to provide such instruction. Potowski and Carreira (2004) analyzed 37 FL methods course syllabi in 23 states[1] and found that only one textbook mentioned heritage language issues (even though some of the universities were located in areas with heritage Spanish-speaking populations large enough to support heritage Spanish courses for undergraduates at those very universities) and of the seven most popular course textbooks, only two mentioned HL issues, for a total of eight

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[1] Although the sample of syllabi is not large enough to make generalizations about FL methods instruction in the United States, the courses represented by these syllabi are clearly insufficient to prepare teachers who work with heritage language speakers. In addition, an informal survey taken of teachers in twelve states revealed that only one state had requirements for such teachers, but no state had standards for heritage language instruction (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2001). No state currently offers certification or endorsement for public school teachers who teach heritage language courses.

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pages. This is clearly insufficient to address the issues just described. We are all too aware that most pre-service FL teacher preparation curricula are already overtaxed in efforts to meet state and national standards, but the perturbing and harmfully incorrect assumption described at the beginning of this section further complicates the goal of having FL teachers learn how to work effectively with heritage speakers.

Before moving to the language-specific cases, a word about appropriate curricula for HL courses is warranted. A staple of typical FL courses is an examination of the countries in which those languages are spoken—thus, Spanish courses often study the literary and cultural production of Spain and Latin America, Polish courses those of Poland, Japanese courses those of Japan, etc. With the large and in most cases growing populations of heritage speakers in the United States, it is incumbent upon the profession to incorporate the cultural productions, linguistic practices, and experiences of U.S. communities who speak the LOTE under study. This is important not only in providing HL students a way to connect with the course material, but also in legitimizing U.S. LOTE-speaking communities for FL students as well.

We now consider the three specific HL cases of Spanish, Chinese, and Russian. Each case is divided into three main areas: a general description of these language communities in the United States; a description of their proficiency in the HL, the implications for course placement, and their motivations for formal study of the HL; and current trends in HL curriculum for that language. The cases are followed by resources and action items for improved teacher development in working with HS populations.

Heritage Spanish Speakers

U.S. Spanish-Speaking Communities[2]

Spanish is the most commonly spoken language other than English (LOTE) in the United States, with the 2007 Census update citing 34.5 million speakers (American Community Survey, 2007). There was 62% growth in the Spanish-speaking population between 1990 and 2000 and a further 23% growth between 2000 and 2007. In fact, it is predicted that Latinos/Hispanics may contribute more net growth to the U.S. population than all other groups combined after 2020 (U.S. Census, 2000). The United States is the fifth largest Spanish-speaking nation in the world, having more Spanish speakers than any other nation except Mexico, Colombia, Spain and Argentina. Spanish is also the LOTE with speakers from the greatest number of different countries: 19 Latin American countries were present in the Hispanic category of the 2000

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[2] For more details about Spanish in the United States, see Potowski and Carreira (2010).

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Census. The Spanish spoken in these countries is mutually intelligible, yet different linguistic and cultural backgrounds create a mosaic of varieties of Spanish.

According to the 2000 Census, the three largest Hispanic groups in the United States are Mexican (59%), Puerto Rican (10%), and Cuban (4%). Typically there have been large concentrations of Mexicans in the Southwest, Puerto Ricans in the Northeast, and Cubans in Miami. However, more diverse communities are beginning to emerge; larger U.S. cities such as New York, Los Angeles and Chicago are also beginning to see individuals of mixed Hispanic ethnicity, such as "MexiRicans" (Potowski, 2008). The Center for Immigration Studies (2003) estimates that an average of 1.5 million immigrants arrive in the United States each year, 46% of whom come from Spanish-speaking Latin American countries; Mexico is the country of origin of most of these immigrants (64%). The nation's highest concentrations of Hispanics are found in New Mexico (which is 44% Latino), California (36%), Texas (35%), Arizona (29%), Nevada (24%), and Florida (20%). There has also been unprecedented growth in other areas—for example, North Carolina saw over 500% growth in its Hispanic population between the 1990 and 2000 Census. Approximately 70% of U.S. Latinos (28 million out of 42 million) speak Spanish at home, meaning that one in 10 American households is Spanish-speaking. At the same time, 71% claimed in the 2000 Census to speak English "very well" or "well."

Thus, the U.S. Latino and Spanish-speaking population are both numerically large and geographically concentrated. Geographic concentration has been shown to play a major role in the preservation of minority languages (Portes & Rumbaut, 1996, p. 229). Notwithstanding these demographics, sociolinguistic studies clearly point to a shift to English. Like almost every other language other than English in the United States, Spanish is generally not spoken fluently if at all by the third generation (the grandchildren of immigrants). The rate at which Spanish erodes varies considerably across geographical areas but appears to be particularly accelerated in the Southwest, a situation that may be explained, at least in part, by the low socioeconomic standing (and thus lower status) of the Spanish-speaking population in this area (Bills, Hudson, & Hernández-Chávez 2000; Rivera-Mills, 2001). Studies of New York City paint a less negative picture, perhaps due in part to the relative recency of migration there. Recent studies of the Miami-Dade area (Boswell, 2000; Lynch, 2000) present a healthy picture of Spanish use, and both studies connect this situation to the strong socioeconomic value of the Spanish language in this area. It must be noted, however, that older studies of Spanish in Miami point to rapid loss of Spanish along the generational principles operating in other parts of the country (García & Otheguy, 1988; Portes & Schauffler, 1996). In general, though, most evidence suggests that the

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ongoing generational loss of Spanish in the United States is swift and pervasive (Rumbaut, Massey, & Bean, 2006; Veltman, 2000).

Proficiency, Placement, and Motivations of Heritage Spanish Speakers

Valdés (1997) classifies students in Spanish classes for Spanish speakers into eight categories according to their linguistic and academic skills. Linguistically, these students can range from being fluent speakers of a prestigious variety of Spanish to having only receptive skills in a contact variety of rural Spanish. Some students have basic to good academic skills in English and Spanish, while others have well-developed skills in one language but not in the other. Native Spanish speakers often find foreign language curricula do not meet their needs, much as native speakers of English would feel about a course for students learning English as a second language.

Silva-Corvalán (1994) and others have noted that the grammatical and lexical properties of U.S. Spanish vary by generation. By and large, the Spanish spoken even by first-generation Latinos is characterized by the use of some English words and expressions. The Spanish of second-generation Latinos shows a higher frequency of English borrowings relative to that of first-generation speakers. In addition, it exhibits the following grammatical tendencies: (a) simplification of the verbal system (particularly in mood and aspect) and prepositions, (b) overextension of one "to be" verb, "estar," at the expense of the other, "ser," (c) code-switching (mixing of English and Spanish) and (d) a preference for periphrastic constructions over synthetic verb forms, such as "voy a comer" ("I'm going to eat") vs. "comeré" ("I'll eat"). Other common phenomena are borrowing and semantic extensions. (Potowski 2005 offers a brief summary of U.S. Spanish for teachers of heritage learners.)

Variable proficiency creates problems when trying to place students into appropriate courses. However, to date there are no published placement exams for heritage Spanish speakers aside from the *Prueba de Ubicación para Hispanohablantes* (Otheguy & García, 2002), which does not separate heritage language speakers from second language learners. Thus, there is currently no easy solution to the thorny challenge faced by schools that need to separate students into a basic language track or a heritage track.[3]

Motivations for Spanish HL vary. Some students are interested in Spanish for professional purposes, while others have mostly personal goals of communicating with family members.

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[3] The University of Illinois at Chicago has developed an online placement exam that, based solely on linguistic criteria, distinguishes heritage speakers from second language learners and then places students into the appropriate level in each track (Potowski, Parada, & Morgan-Short 2012).

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Several chapters in Valdes et. al (2006) touch upon these goals among California college students, and reports from the National Heritage Language Resource Center's national survey (Carreira et. al. 2007) further elucidate students' motivations for formal study of their HL.

Appropriate Curricula for Heritage Spanish Speakers

Potowski & Carreira (2004) proposed that courses for HL should more closely resemble native language arts courses than FL courses. That is, students shoullld focus on reading and writing, with appropriate support strategies, as well as developing formal Spanish vocabulary and register. Specifically, they proposed that, in addition to the National FL Standards (1996) and the heritage language goals proposed by Valdés (1997), the AATSP (2000), and Webb & Miller (2000), the field of teaching Spanish to Spanish-speakers should draw from the national English language arts standards (National Council of Teachers of English, 1996) to conceptualize its aims. They also proposed that the field produce a set of national SNS standards that can then feed into state certifications or endorsements in SNS teaching.

Heritage Chinese Speakers

U.S. Chinese-Speaking Communities[4]

With almost 3 million speakers, Chinese is the second most common non-English language in the United States (American Community Survey, 2007). There was a 75% increase in the U.S. Chinese-origin population between the 1990 and 2000 Censuses. The data suggest that rather than forming a totally assimilated group, the Chinese population is a relatively new immigrant group, in that 71% of the population in 2000 were foreign-born. Moreover, out of the Chinese foreign-born, about 75% of them arrived after 1980, which indicates that the majority of the Chinese population in the United States is comprised of individuals who arrived as adults or between the ages of 6 and 18, and therefore have fully or partially acquired Chinese as a first language.

The first wave of Chinese immigrants arrived in the United States during the 1840-era California Gold Rush. Chinese immigration then followed patterns of U.S.-China relations and U.S. immigration policies. The first-wave arrivals were mostly Cantonese-speaking peasants, until the Chinese Exclusion Act in 1882 suspended the immigration of Chinese laborers for 10 years. Subsequently, there were two more major waves of Chinese immigration, one spurred by the 1949 Communist revolution and the other by the dramatic changes in the late 1970s.

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[4] For more details about Chinese in the United States, see Xiao (2010).

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Compared with their first-wave counterparts, the second- and third-wave arrivals were not only more educated and financially better off, but arrived during better immigration policies and U.S.-China relations. Most Chinese immigrants were congregated in Chinatowns in the western states and territories. California and New York house the largest Chinatowns, including both longstanding communities and newer ones. Despite a long history of ethnic congregation, there has been rapid acquisition of English among Chinese-speaking communities. Data from the 2000 Census show that out of the two million Chinese speakers 5 years and older, 70% speak English "very well" or "well." There is also a very clear shift to English with each increasing generation (Bailey, 2004, p. 274).

Proficiency, Placement, and Motivations of Heritage Chinese Speakers

Before considering the distinguishing features of Chinese heritage language (CHL) learners, it is important to consider the reasons that it is important to take them seriously as a learner population. Consider the estimates in Table 2 of enrollments, extrapolated for the year 2009 based on previous surveys.

Table 2. Chinese Language Enrollment Estimates in the United States–2009

Institutional type/level	Enrollment estimate
Community schools–Taiwan immigrant (NCACLS, 2009)	100,000
Community schools–mainland immigrant (CSAUS, 2009)	60,000
K-12 (extrapolated from McGinnis, 2005)	45,000
Higher education (extrapolated from Furman, Goldberg, & Lusin, 2007)	53,000

These are very rough estimates, especially the data from pre-collegiate settings, and there is considerable overlap in students between the community school enrollments and many K-12 programs. However, it's clear that even by conservative estimates, the majority of students studying Chinese in the United States—at the least, 60%—are doing so in programs within which the majority are Chinese heritage language (CHL) learners.

CHL learners are distinguishable from more prototypical FL learners regarding their linguistic cultural, and motivational profiles. Linguistically, CHL speakers have varying competencies in the four modalities. Unlike the true beginner learner who starts from ground zero in speaking, listening, reading, and writing, CHL learners tend to have their skills on an incline with listening generally strongest, followed by speaking, reading, and then writing as the weakest. The term coined for many CHL students is "near-native listener" (cf. "near-native

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speaker" or "native speaker") to emphasize that for many of those students, productive skills are significantly weaker than receptive skills in the spoken language. In addition, what have been termed "Chinese dialects"—an attempt to adhere to the geopolitically-based notion of a first or primary national language divided into regionally-based dialects—are in fact mutually unintelligible languages, unified only by the common logographic script. Thus, for purposes of learning the standard (Mandarin) language, a native speaker of Cantonese may indeed be said to know how to "speak Chinese," but only one version of it.

It is also important to consider the wide diversity of homeland "Chinese cultures." The geographical settings within which substantial Chinese immigrant populations have developed over (in some cases) hundreds of years have come to reflect various hybrid versions of what one may attempt to define as the "core" of Chinese culture. For Taiwan, the Japanese occupation of the island in the 20th century until the end of World War II had a significant impact. For Hong Kong, the British imperial influence is still substantial. Similar melding of indigenous and Chinese cultures may be seen in Indonesia and Singapore, as well as in Chinese communities throughout the world. All of these groups can experience different degrees of assimilation into American culture. Directly relevant to our current challenges in CHL education in the Unites States is the often conflicted nature of the CHL learner feeling at once neither Chinese nor American—as one of McGinnis' students once expressed, it seemed to him that McGinnis was "more Chinese" than he was based on McGinnis' advanced proficiency in Chinese (personal communication).

Within the last several years, two major books reporting research on heritage language learners have appeared—one for several East Asian languages (Kondo-Brown, 2006) and one exclusively on CHL (He & Xiao, 2008). Among the studies are several focusing on CHL motivation and factors affecting student success in maintenance or enhancement of language and cultural skills. Li (2006) notes that while "parents can play a significant role in shaping their children's success…achieving such success will require concerted efforts between parents, public schools, and community organizations" (p. 31). Many CHL learners find themselves not strongly connected to their linguistic and cultural heritage, either because multiple generations of family members have lived in a foreign culture, or because an immigrant Chinese family chooses not to maintain their language and cultural traditions once they have left greater China. For such learners, rediscovering or even discovering one's "roots" is significant and sufficient motivation for pursuing Chinese language study.

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For those more instrumentally motivated CHL learners, however, while personal identity is important, finding a job within which one can use Chinese language skills is equally so. Most commonly, one sees CHL learners (and indeed, Chinese language learners in general) pursuing career goals in the fields of business and government. Less commonly seen but nonetheless potentially productive vocational tracks include work in science and technology, agriculture, and medicine. In fact, Lu & Li (2008) claim that "contrary to previous findings, heritage language students are more influenced by instrumental motivation than non-heritage students," but "are less influenced by situational factors (such as teacher effect, effect of mixed classes) than non-heritage language students" (p. 89).

Agnes He (2008) proposes an "identity model" that posits that "CHL development takes place in a three-dimensional framework of time, space, and identity" (p. 109). Yet she does not merely focus on the individual learner, but rather considers the ways in which the CHL learner interacts with "multiple communicative and social worlds….to develop hybrid, situated identities and stances" (p. 109). Even with this substantial and expanding body of empirical knowledge regarding the CHL learner, it is somewhat disconcerting that much of the focus within the broader field of Chinese as a FL has been less on the pedagogical treatment of CHL learners and more on CHL learners as potential teachers, as seen in Stewart and Wang (2008). While the shortage of teachers is significant, qualified teachers will be even harder to find if they are not successful students themselves.

Appropriate Curricula for Heritage Chinese Speakers

The selection of appropriate curricula has required a dual response to the developmental needs and the cultural complexity of CHL learners. In the former regard, neither pre-adolescent nor adolescent learners can be best served by Chinese language textbooks designed primarily for American college and university students. At the same time, merely adopting primary and secondary school textbooks published in Taiwan or in the People's Republic of China (as was the general pattern for Chinese community schools well into the 1990s) is no more adequate an approach. As observed by Pey-Fen Wang, "[t]he theme or subject matter of some lessons is not well suited to the cultural background of heritage students in the United States. Many lessons...reflect the cultural perspective of Taiwan, which is very different from the students' perspectives and daily experiences" (Wang 1996, p. 22).

This leads to the second challenge of how to adequately respond to an American CHL student population that is far from homogeneous. With over a century of Chinese immigration to the United States and attendant community school development, CHL programs may well

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include first, second, third and even fourth generation Chinese heritage learners. As a consequence, these students' connections with and cognitive awareness of their "native" culture will lie somewhere on a very broad and diverse continuum. Moreover, one cannot really speak of **a** Chinese culture, but rather of a range of Chinese **cultures** encompassing many geographical origins, multiple dialects (or more precisely mutually unintelligible Chinese **languages**; e.g., Cantonese vs. Mandarin), and significant sociopolitical diversity. Ultimately, decisions about curricular appropriateness for CHL can only be made on a local level.

Heritage Russian Speakers

U.S. Russian-Speaking Communities[5]

According to the American Community Survey (2006–10 five-year estimate), the 830,000 speakers of Russian in the United States make Russian the eighth most commonly spoken language other than English. It is noteworthy that between the 1990 and 2000 Censuses, the number of Russian speakers increased by 191%, the greatest increase of all the languages included in that 10-year period. This upward trend continued, albeit less dramatically, between 2000 and 2007, with an increase of 20%. Immigration increases are especially noticeable from 1988–1994, when more than 300,000 immigrants arrived from what is now the former Soviet Union. According to the U.S. Department of Justice, 80% of these immigrants were Jewish (Chiswick, 1997, p. 233).

Russian explorers may have reached Alaska as early as 1648, but the first documented American settlement was on the Aleutian island of Kodiak in 1784. Czar Alexander II sold Alaska to the United States in 1867, after which most of the Russians returned to their homeland, but many Aleuts and Eskimos had converted to Russian Orthodoxy, and many Russian Orthodox "Old Believers" have their own old-style Russian villages in Alaska today (Black, 2004). Over several decades, hundreds of thousands of Ukrainians, Belarusians, Lithuanians, and Poles emigrated from the Russian Empire and arrived at Ellis Island. The imperial Russian government, however, prohibited ethnic Russians from emigrating. In 1917, the communist revolution terminated the imperial era of Russian history and an estimated one million Russians fled the country. The majority of the émigrés of this period were members of the aristocracy and intelligentsia, but many accepted humble jobs in their new country. Immigration from the Soviet Union slowed down in the 1930s and 1940s, mainly due to the restrictions imposed by Stalin's government.

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[5] For more details about Russian in the United States, see Kagan and Dillon (2010).

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The second wave of Russian immigrants arrived after World War II. According to a Hoover Institution researcher, details about this wave are "almost impossible to document" (Shmelev, 2006, p. 6). The vast majority had been brought out of the Soviet Union by the German army as forced laborers or were prisoners of war, and they refused to return to their homeland after the war. Many changed their names and identities for fear of persecution by the Soviets. The third wave began in the early 1970s, when Soviet Jews, as political refugees, were granted virtually unlimited immigration by U.S. authorities, who pressed the Soviet government to release them. In 1987, Gorbachev launched the fourth wave of Russian immigration, when he announced that victims of religious persecution had permission to leave the Soviet Union for the first time in seventy years (Hardwick, 1993, p. xi). Many Soviet Jews, who for many years had been denied permission to leave, finally obtained exit visas and emigrated to the United States and other countries, most notably Israel. Estimates by the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service in 1990 indicate that one-quarter million Soviet Jews were living in the United States. According to unofficial estimates, however, the number of people who relocated to the United States from the Soviet Union approached one million (Kishinevsky, 2004, p. 5).

The majority of immigrants of the third and fourth waves were well educated, had studied English, possessed professional skills, and acclimated rapidly to the U.S. lifestyle, finding good jobs by legal means. This "rapid linguistic and economic mobility" enabled most to become invisible in the American society (Kishinevsky, 2004, p. 5). According to the 2000 Census, almost three million U.S. residents describe themselves as having Russian ancestry. They include those whose ancestors came from the Russian Empire in the 19th or early 20th century or from the Soviet Union after World War II, as well as those who arrived with the most recent waves of immigration (although Russian ethnicity does not always correlate with being a speaker of Russian). The greatest concentration of Russian speakers are in the Eastern and Western states, as is generally the case with other U.S. immigrant populations; New York and Los Angeles are home to the greatest concentrations of Russian speakers.

Proficiency, Placement, and Motivations of Heritage Russian Speakers

The history of immigration just described plays a key role in our understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of Russian heritage language (RHL) speakers. In terms of providing language education, we only need to be concerned with the two most recent waves, since only they can be expected to have proficiency in Russian. The level of competence in Russian of the children of the third and fourth waves of immigration is directly tied to the amount of education they had received prior to immigration (Kagan & Dillon, 2006). RHL learners can be divided

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into four groups according to their age at the time of emigration, linguistic biographies, and resulting language competence (Table 3).

Table 3. Groups of Heritage Russian Language Learners

	Education	**Russian proficiency**
Group 1	Graduated or almost graduated from high school in Russia or a former Soviet republic.	Fully developed grammatical system, native range of vocabulary, full understanding of and connection to Russian culture.
Group 2	Attended school in the former Soviet Union for five to seven years, therefore experienced an interruption in Russian language development in adolescence.	Strong knowledge of Russian grammatical system, but without the same range of vocabulary or register as educated native speakers.
Group 3	Attended elementary school in the former Soviet Union	Have some Russian literacy but their language development was interrupted at an early age (7–9), so range of vocabulary is limited. When they take Russian classes, they often recover some of the 'lost' language.
Group 4	Emigrated as preschoolers or were born in the United States to Russian-speaking parents and have been educated primarily or solely in English.	Never used Russian outside of home. Consequently, vocabulary is limited to home sphere. Typically do not have a strong control of Russian grammar. Reanalyze their language at a later age to arrive at a different grammatical system (Polinsky, 2000).

Sources: Kagan, 2005; Kagan & Dillon, 2001

Groups 1, 2, and 3 can be expected to have global but imperfect and incomplete knowledge of the language. Experience indicates that they sound almost like native speakers. They can produce natural sounding chunks of speech, including native-like pronunciation and word order. A fourth group, the lowest in the hierarchy, emigrated at a pre-school age or were born outside the former Soviet Union. Their competency in Russian is the weakest of all the groups; they bear a greater resemblance to FL learners.

A shift to English has been rapid among Russian-speaking immigrants in the United States. Russian, like other immigrant languages, is used primarily in the home. Unlike many other immigrant groups, the majority of Russian-speaking immigrants do not live in an ethnic community; they tend to disperse very quickly into the general population. According to Rumbaut et al. (2006), 35% of Mexicans in the United States retain strong language skills beyond the second generation, while only 3% of European immigrants do. We expect the offspring of Russian speakers to fall into this latter category. There are very few Saturday schools

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for Russian-speaking children, there are no immersion programs, and Russian is not taught in many schools. It falls entirely upon families to teach their children Russian if they feel it is important to preserve the language. However, Lavretsky, et al. (1997, p. 337) note that Russian parents generally do not insist on speaking Russian to their children and grandchildren, and that it is common for children who came to this country before entering school to not have speaking, reading, or written knowledge of Russian.

Linguistic knowledge of RHL speakers includes the following (Protassova, 2007):

- Like many bilinguals, they use code-switching between Russian and English and are able to choose their own code-switching strategies.
- They use colloquial words and phrases, relying more on oral language.
- Confusion of case forms, aspect, and word formation on the morphological level are evident, as well as incomplete acquisition of verb conjugation.

Protassova (2007) explains that for non-heritage learners, the first and second languages remain “separate and distinct,” whereas for heritage learners, the two are conflated because “the order in which they acquired the languages conflicts with their relative mastery of each. Therefore, their problems may persist even after a considerable amount of formal instruction.” Some RHL capabilities are actually a double-edged sword. For example, Romanova (2007) cautions that in the case of literacy, “even a small degree …can affect heritage learners’ morphological processing,” prompting her advice that teachers inquire into the educational background of these students.

Those RHLs who are able to use the language effectively in everyday interactions typically also have an emotional attachment to the language and culture, and a connection to their family background and history (Polinsky & Kagan, 2007). This emotional attachment is a primary motivator for heritage speakers, and it is a line of demarcation between them and L2 learners. An online survey conducted by the National Heritage Language Resource Center (Carreira & Kagan, 2011) points to the main reasons why HL speakers choose to study their heritage language. This understanding, an understanding of which may assist educators in developing curricula more likely to retain these students in language programs and propel them toward higher levels of proficiency. Of the almost 300 RHL respondents, 65% wanted to communicate better with family and friends in the United States, 60% indicated they wanted to learn about their cultural and linguistic roots, and 45% wished to communicate better with family and friends abroad. One third are motivated by plans to travel to the former Soviet Union. Notably, only 14% of the respondents indicated their motivation as “because it is easy for me,” which is contrary to the

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belief of some Russian instructors that HLs hope to get an “easy A” in Russian courses. Only 36% indicated a desire to pursue professional opportunities, suggesting necessary work in educating RHLs on the professional value of advanced proficiency.

Appropriate Curricula for Heritage Russian Speakers

A successful course for RHL speakers will be based on the linguistic and affective differences just outlined that distinguish them from L2 learners. Unlike a Russian FL course, in which the vocabulary presented is standard and formal, and grammar is taught in small increments and is, in most cases, prescriptive, the baseline for RHL speakers is the language of the family and the community, rooted in everyday interaction, and thus representing a living language with all of its imperfections and shortcuts (Kagan & Dillon, 2009). Polinsky (2000) believes that vocabulary is one of the best indicators of HL learners’ overall proficiency in the language. Designers of a successful RHL program will pay serious attention to the issue of motivation, because teaching HLs what they already know or what is beyond their ability will likely damage or even extinguish their motivation.

RHLs, like other heritage learners, have complex relationships to their heritage language, and the successful curriculum will concentrate on maximizing their “investment” in working toward higher levels of proficiency (Norton, 1997). A motivation- and relationship-based curriculum will draw on the assets of the RHLs that have been catalogued by numerous researchers. In their matrix, Kagan and Dillon (2009) recommend a macro approach to teaching grammar to RHLs, as opposed to the micro approach that characterizes foreign language instruction. Macro approaches include content-based, project-based, and task-based instruction and teaching grammar by concept rather than incrementally. The ideal curriculum for the heritage learner will be inquiry-, content- and task-based, and it will go beyond the classroom walls to include experiential learning in the environment of the family, the community (both émigré and in the country of origin), and the worldwide web.

We concur with Andrews’ (2008) observation about the heritage speakers who populate many Russian-language classrooms: “[They] will not remain there if we are unable to address all their needs with the required sensitivity and understanding.”

Teachers of Heritage Language Speakers: Challenges and Opportunities

We have just described the features and instructional opportunities and challenges of three specific heritage languages in the United States—Spanish, Chinese, and Russian. This section turns to broader needs of teachers across language groups. It discusses the contexts in

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which language teachers work, the needs of FL and HL teachers, resources available, and next steps that we might pursue together to ensure that a high-quality practitioner workforce is in place for heritage language education. As the readers of this volume are aware, language education in the United States takes place in a variety of venues, which include PreK-12 public and private education; community-based schools and programs (such as after-school programs, Saturday and Sunday schools, summer camps); higher education (university students studying languages and prospective teachers studying language in pre-service programs); federal education programs in agencies including the Defense Language Institute and the Foreign Service Institute; proprietary, business-run language programs; and in-service teacher education through workshops and institutes. HL students can find their way into all of these contexts, and educators working in any of them may face a similar negative national climate regarding instruction in languages other than English.

While there have been national calls for multilingual competence (Jackson & Malone, 2009) in addition to research showing the benefits of proficiency in more than one language (Bamford & Mizokawa, 1991; Breton, 1998; Grosse, 2004; Hakuta, 1986; Holt, 2008; Jackson & Malone, 2009; National Education Association, 2007), there are also challenges to putting programs in place that will achieve the goal of a language competent society, in which individuals are proficient in English and at least one other language. Education systems in the United States are experiencing considerable challenges in establishing and maintaining programs that focus on proficiency in languages other than English. For example, we are seeing a decrease in the number of language programs in elementary schools, with the majority of our efforts redirected to developing English language proficiency and math and science knowledge to comply with No Child Left Behind (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2009). Lack of understanding of language learning processes and limited research supporting the value of first language proficiency in second language learning have resulted in some uninformed calls for complete focus on English at the expense of other languages (e.g., a recent example appears in the *Houston Chronicle*–Rossell, 2009). There is limited articulation in language learning opportunities across grades, language proficiency levels, programs, and education venues, such as between K-12, community-based, and university efforts (Asia Society, 2008). Language teachers have limited opportunities for professional development, and many language programs, and the educators in them, work in isolation, with few opportunities to share knowledge and resources. A recent focus in the federal government on developing proficiency, teacher knowledge and skills, and articulated programs in "critical need languages" (Arabic, Chinese, Hindi, Persian, Swahili,

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Turkish, and Urdu) is promising to reverse these trends in the learning of some languages, but this new focus does not apply to all languages.

A more ideal context for language education in the United States would include a nationwide understanding of the value of proficiency in languages other than English and of developing heritage language speakers as highly proficient bilinguals, clearly articulated goals for student achievement that would include proficiency at high levels and ability to function effectively in multiple contexts and for a variety of purposes, systematic methods for identifying and developing instructional programs, materials, curricula, and assessments (both placement and progress), logically sequenced, articulated courses that move students from heritage community to PreK-12 to college and university programs, systems for awarding credit for language study within and outside the education system (for example, German HL community programs in Connecticut now offer high school credit), credentialing of and systematic, ongoing professional development for language educators, and collaborations among a variety of stakeholders—business and industry; government and non-governmental agencies; community-based, K-12, and university partners—to build and sustain effective programs.

Conclusions and Next Steps

The following three principal conclusions emerge from this discussion:

1. There is a pressing need for the incorporation of HL issues into mainstream FL teacher practices and discourses, including FL textbooks, pre-service preparation programs, in-service activities to maintain certification, and state endorsements.
2. The importance of engaging HL teachers in meaningful teacher development means that we must also develop alternative experiences, such as national online courses.
3. As heritage language speaker populations continue to grow, FL programs in the United States must adjust their curricula to reflect the experiences of these communities. They should also actively recruit HL speakers as teacher candidates and as teacher professional development faculty.

Heritage language educators have limited time and often work in isolation, without knowledge of the resources and connections available to them and without support to attend workshops and summer institutes devoted to their needs. Working together would ensure that these educators have what they need in order to work effectively in their contexts. Several suggestions follow:

- Since 2000, ACTFL and Weber State University in Utah have collaborated in offering an online FL teaching methods course. A nationally recognized group should collaborate with educators in developing and offering an **online course for HL**

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teachers. Such a course would be accessible to teachers around the country and provide centralized and convenient access to resources, instructional strategies, and best practices. It would also contribute to building community among teachers working with the same language and in the same program type.

- Given the rarity of fully-fledged courses on HL teaching (such as those at Hunter College, California State University-Long Beach, the University of California at Davis, the University of Illinois at Chicago, New Mexico State University and Illinois State University), pre-service teacher education curricula should incorporate **modules on HL education**. This can take the form of dedicated HL readings (such as selected chapters from Brinton, Kagan, & Bauckus, 2008, or Potowski, 2005 for Spanish), but authors of the most common FL teaching methods textbooks should also incorporate chapters on the topic of HL teaching. Particularly when the probability of encountering HL students is high, teacher education programs should devote at least one session of their methods coursework to HL issues. It is professionally irresponsible to graduate teachers with no sense of what to do or where to turn.
- In a more top-down approach, local Boards of Education should develop **state endorsements in HL teaching**. This solidifies the concept that a regular FL teaching certificate is insufficient to prepare teachers for working effectively with HL students. The endorsement could be partially fulfilled with a nationally recognized online course such as that recommended above as well as additional workshops.

As we have seen, our knowledge of HL learners must not be narrowly confined to the area of linguistic proficiency, but must also take into consideration wider issues of affect and motivation. This way, we gain a deeper understanding of how to better calibrate our teaching practices and curricula to meet their needs.

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Chapter Three

When Language Teacher Educators, Language Policy Makers and Politicians Meet: Lessons From the South

Adriana Gonzalez, *Universidad de Antioquia, Colombia*

Language policy design and implementation often create scenarios where teacher educators, policy makers and politicians meet, even though they are rarely interlocutors. In this paper, the author critically explores the role of Colombian language teacher educators in the implementation of the National Program of Bilingualism—a language education policy that aims to promote mass English teaching—and presents ten lessons learned in their interaction with policy makers and politicians. The paper highlights the need for more social and political engagement on the part of teacher educators, and the inclusion of more North-South dialogue for the purposes of consolidating teacher education agendas.

Introduction

The theme of the CARLA 7th International Conference on Language Teacher Education, Expanding Our Horizons, is an excellent framework for this paper. The conference welcomed me as a plenarist, and I was deeply honored to bring into this academic space the voices of many teacher educators. I felt committed to spread the message of those who will not be able to attend the conference because they cannot afford the travel expenses, may not have the English proficiency required to present at this event, or whose voice is not recognized yet. I also write on behalf of the thousands of foreign language teachers in many countries, the immense territory of the planet known now as The South, but previously called the Third World. There, many of us are not native speakers of the languages we teach, and we struggle with different kinds of social, economic, educational, and political issues in our daily jobs.

I will share some reflections about the new roles imposed upon teacher educators and teachers as we have expanded our horizons beyond schools and universities to face the challenges of new realities. Although I will refer primarily to situations in Colombia, similar trends occur in other countries in the South (Hu, 2005; Mok & Lo, 2007; Park, 2011; Pini & Gorostiaga, 2009; Tatto, 2007; Tatto & Mincu, 2007) and in developed countries (Zeichner, 2010; Zeichner & Ndimande, 2008) because education is affected by global neo-liberal movements. In times of educational changes, new educational policies impose challenges for teachers in areas of effectiveness, competitiveness and accountability. In the design and

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implementation of these policies, teacher educators usually have to deal with policy makers and politicians because "this neo-liberal logic transforms education from a public good into a private consumer item" (Zeichner, 2010, p. 1550). In the case of Colombia, the national language education policy, Bilingual Colombia, has represented a way to establish new forms of interaction between the educators of teachers, policy makers and politicians. From the different scenarios in which we have converged, we have agreed and disagreed on various issues that have helped us learn the lessons I want to share in this paper.

Background Information

Colombia, as is the case in many countries in the South, has striking differences between its urban and rural areas in terms of income, public services, standards of living, access to education, and development rates. According to a 2010 census, Colombia has around 45 million inhabitants, who are culturally and ethnically diverse. Spanish is the primary language but there are 64 indigenous languages (González & Rodríguez, 1999; Landaburu, 1999; Spolsky, 2004), a Caribbean English-based Creole, called Islander, (Bartens, 2003) spoken on the islands of San Andrés and Providencia, and Palenquero, a Spanish-based Creole (Dieck, 1998; Patiño Roselli, 1992; Schwegler, 1998). According to the World Bank, Colombia's nominal Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was estimated in 2010 to be U.S. $429.866 billion, ranking us in the 28th position. In GDP per capita, Colombia occupied the 83rd position in the world according to the International Monetary Fund at U.S. $9,445 for 2010.[1] Although education is a major component of our government's plans, the national budget for this has decreased in the last decade due to prioritization of the national security and the defense of democracy.

In an attempt to raise the standard of living in the country, the central government proposed some educational agendas that emphasize the promotion and use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) and English learning (Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 2008). These two aspects are considered to be important components of the skill sets that competent citizens require to be part of a globalized world in the 21st century and to compete in the labor market. In 2004, the Ministry of Education proposed the National Program of Bilingualism (NPB) or "Bilingual Colombia" to support English teaching and learning. This language policy aims to promote the acquisition of English language skills among Colombians so that national English standards are achieved by 2019. Although English plays a major role in the current education of Colombia, it only became a part of our language education policy in the

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[1] Retrieved from http://www. Indexmundi.com/Colombia/.

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1940's through cooperation with American and British governments in bi-national centers (García et al., 2007).

English has been mandatory in K-11 classrooms in Colombia since 1994. However, various aspects represent profound differences between the public and private education sectors in terms of the time devoted to instruction, resources, teachers' certification and language proficiency, and opportunities to use the language. In the public education system, students may have one hour of English per week in elementary schools and two to three hours per week in high schools. On the other hand, private schools may dedicate from three to 10 hours to English instruction per week in elementary education and five to 10 hours per week in high schools. Elite schools may have much more time allocated to English instruction because most of their curriculum is taught in English using content-based instruction (Ordóñez, 2004). The availability and use of resources to teach English may vary from having only some chalk, a chalkboard and a few textbooks in some public schools in rural areas to having different audio-visual, digital and printed educational materials, school supplies, and specialized software in some private urban schools. The national educational legislation requires an undergraduate degree from teachers of English; nevertheless the majority of elementary school teachers, particularly in the public system, have majored in other areas. Private schools usually have better prepared teachers, as they require an English university degree from their faculty. Regarding the teachers' language proficiency, González (1995) found that public school teachers tend to be more likely to undergo language attrition than private school teachers. Additionally, the initial mass testing of teachers carried out by the Ministry of Education in Bilingual Colombia showed that the language proficiency of the majority of English teachers corresponded to level A2 of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Cely, 2007; Hernández, 2007), the scale adopted for Colombia. Finally, the opportunities to use English are greater in urban areas than rural areas because there one is more likely to find speakers and learners of the language, access to information, and professional demands to be proficient in English.

Although Colombia is a multilingual country, Bilingual Colombia has reduced its target of bilingualism to a duo of languages. English has a dominant presence over Spanish, and the other languages of the country are disregarded. Questions surrounding this issue are elaborated by De Mejía (2004, 2006).

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Bilingual Colombia as a National Language Education Policy

Issued in 2004, the National Program of Bilingualism (NPB) or "Bilingual Colombia" policy set the goals of English proficiency for students and teachers. The British Council, as advisors to the Ministry of Education, has had a major role in the policy design and implementation. The agency has led the construction of the national English standards based on the CEFR, the mass testing of English teachers and students, the use of alternative teaching certifications such as the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) and the In-Service Certificate for English Language Teaching (ICELT) (González, 2009), the promotion of a professional development program (Hernández, 2007), and the initiative to assure the quality of university-based foreign language teacher education programs (Moss, 2011). The role of the British Council is well described on a poster displayed in language centers and universities titled "Colombia Bilingüe: Are you in?" The image shows six people: a young boy at the lowest level of a set of stairs, followed by a slightly older girl, a pre-adolescent girl, a teenage girl, a young man, and a female teacher at the highest level. Under each person there is one of the proficiency levels of the CEFR and an English test recommended for the age population, beginning with the Young Learner Exams (YLE) for levels A1 and A2, and finishing with the TKT.

The conception and implementation of the policy has generated different reactions from local scholars that may fit into what Bhatt (2001) calls linguistic imperialism and econocultural models. Some Colombian researchers (González, 2009, 2010; Guerrero, 2008, 2010, 2011) agree with Shohamy (2006) in her analysis of similar language policies when she states that they usually fail to examine whether they are feasible; are "imposed by policy makers through different mechanisms, for political and social reasons, without attention being paid to the needs and wishes of those affected by the policy and those expected to carry it out" (2006: 143); are supported by powerful organizations like testing agencies, usually ignore the connection with actual language learning, do not have basis in reality despite appearing to have good intentions on paper, and are determined by political rather than pedagogical factors. Some others see the policy as a chance to use models of teacher training, exams and teaching materials that are internationally valid and that "should not be seen as a threat but as an opportunity to widen our capacity to interact with the world" (Salamanca, 2007, p. 70, own translation).

The implementation of language policies may generate different kinds of tensions, as shown by Canagarajah (2005, pp. 194–195): within policy discourses, between policy-makers and the community's expectations, among the different orientations of the same policy, intended policy and the realized effects, between the policy and practice, between the policy effects on

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different social groups serving the interests of elites, and within identity. The author says that rather than perceiving these tensions "as unusual, we have to see them as normal, as language planning involves a constant negotiation of the interests of different social groups and of the changing priorities of a community" (p. 195).

Teacher Educators, Policy Makers and Politicians Meet

Policy, practice and politics in teacher education are closely related.

> In a certain way, policy is politics, and that, given the increasingly politicized society in which we live, there is very little policy, and perhaps, to a lesser extent but still the case, there is very little practice that is not shaped by larger political issues related to ideas, values, morals, and priorities as well as power, influence, and alliances. (Cochran-Smith, 2006, p. xxvii)

The implementation of language policies creates a scenario where teacher educators, policy makers and politicians meet because they are all involved at various levels. "Although the entanglement of teacher education policy and practice with politics is inevitable—and at times blatantly obvious—it is all too seldom made explicit and visible in the discourse of the field" (Cochran-Smith, 2006, p. xxv). In the case of Bilingual Colombia, we have shared spaces in which we have found areas of agreement and disagreement. We all interact as policy makers design the policy, teacher educators are involved in the implementation, and politicians are often in charge of the decision-making process surrounding the implementation. Opinions and views of each other affect our work and determine the way that we relate to one another. Teacher educators have shown two tendencies in their participation in the implementation of the policy: on the one hand, we find those who have had a more receptive approach to the government actions led by the British Council, and on the other hand, those who have adopted a more critical role. In the first group, teacher educators have participated in the promotion of professional development programs implemented in a cascade approach, and based on international models, have adopted international certifications and tests, endorsed the use of central knowledge, and embraced the standardization of curricula and teacher education practices. In the second group, teacher educators have taken up a critical position regarding policy documents, shown an open stand against imposition, defended academic autonomy, engaged in public debates about the hidden agendas of the language policy, carried out local studies on the conditions of English learning and teaching, and, as an interesting side effect, increased the amount of publications in refereed journals and presentations at academic events (Cárdenas, 2006, 2010; González 2007, 2009; González, Cárdenas, Alvarez, Quintero & Viáfara,

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2009; Guerrero, 2008, 2010, 2011; Sánchez & Obando, 2008). In our country, as in many other countries, policy makers, including education policy makers, are often technocrats who hold neo-liberal positions about education, have a strong background in economics and administration, and may work with advisors from the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank, (Zeichner, 2010; Zeichner & Ndimande, 2008). Additionally, politicians are generally mistrusted, have a long tradition of corruption, may have little knowledge about education, and have very few scholars in their parties. The NPB has had an impact on the political campaigns of future mayors and governors as many of them promise to make towns or states bilingual in their terms.

I have identified myself with a critical view of Bilingual Colombia, and along with many other teacher educators, have been part of a movement to question the scope and views of teachers and teacher education. Among the main flaws of the policy we stress:

- the perpetuation of inequalities between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in urban and rural areas, private and public schools, and their varying proficiencies in English (González, 2007; González, Montoya & Sierra, 2002);
- the unreadiness of the country to attain the targets of the policy under the current educational conditions (Cárdenas, 2006; Sánchez & Obando, 2008);
- the use of alternative and additional certifications such as the ICELT and the TKT that screen, discriminate and exclude teachers and label them as "internationally certified" or not (González, 2009); although the NPB has motivated more investment in ELT, it has definitely made it a profitable business for educational agencies and publishers (Usma, 2009);
- the views of EFL teachers as invisible actors whose roles may be equivalent to clerks, and technician/marketers who are openly treated with disdain in the policy documents (Guerrero, 2010); and
- the constant claim of professional development as an opportunity to not only include teachers' voices, but involve them in a real co-construction of agendas (Cárdenas, González, & Alvarez, 2010).

As a consequence of the results of the mass testing of EFL teacher's proficiency, there has been an open controversy about these teachers' qualifications to teach English. For some, the universities are responsible for the lack of preparation of the teachers the country needs to implement the language policy. In response to the apparent deficiency of the preparation programs, the Ministry of Education issued an initiative to assure their academic quality through the intervention of friendly peers to assess the program and propose an improvement plan, supervised by the British Council (Moss, 2011). Local and regional authorities demand from universities compressed professional development programs in which the teachers may reach the

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same language and teaching standards attained in the regular five-year university-based teacher education programs. Institutions that accept the pressure for fast results and promise to make teachers bilingual may obtain in return public resources to design their professional development programs. The money gained in these programs is beneficial for the universities because they need to be financially self-sufficient in times of frequent education budgetary cuts.

Lessons Learned in the South

The interaction with policy makers and politicians poses certain challenges to teacher educators in the South that require an active reaction from us. In this contact we have learned new things and redefined our roles. We have learned these important lessons:

Lesson One: Teacher Education Goes Beyond Educating Teachers in the Classrooms or School Settings.

The initiatives to contribute to the development of teachers at the pre-service or in-service level are "part of a complex web of policies and practices constructed by individuals and groups interacting at institutional, local, national and global levels" (Ginsburg & Lindsay, 1995). In that sense, the teachers' knowledge base needs to be expanded beyond the three hats teachers wear as linguistic/cultural mediators, methodological mediators and professional mediators to "a more critical, socially, culturally and politically aware knowledge-base" (Kramsch & Ware, 2004, p. 29). Kramsch & Ware (2004) propose six domains that the intercultural foreign language teacher should have: expert subject matter: linguistic and interactional competence; interpretive and relational competence; methodological competence; intercultural attitudes and beliefs; and a critical cultural stance; plus the new challenges of teaching in technology-mediated contexts. I would highlight the critical cultural stance as particularly important for our setting. There is a need to raise teachers' awareness about the dynamic nature of the socio-economic, cultural and political conditions of the contexts of foreign language use, and within which our foreign language teaching occurs. To do that, teachers and future teachers should have contact with fellow citizens outside the classrooms to understand the real purposes of learning a foreign language in Colombia. Additionally, this contact may lead to the collaboration that teacher educators require "in the struggle to protect and strengthen both public K-12 education and a strong role for college and universities in teacher education" (Zeichner, 2010, p.1550).

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Lesson Two: Teacher Education Involves Political Action for Educational and Societal Change.

Teacher education is a political action because it is related to power issues and societal problems that occur at various levels. Teacher education is often used to prepare more efficient and effective teachers who may contribute to the growth of the economy or the perpetuation of the political system (Ginsburg & Lindsay, 1995), and Colombia is not the exception for those international practices (Usma, 2009). Defining the approaches to critical language teacher education, Hawkins & Norton (2009), citing McDonald & Zeichner (2008), state:

> 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. (Hawkins & Norton, 2009, pp. 32–33)

Under this paradigm of critical teacher education, teacher educators are expected to be involved in political actions to improve the quality of education itself and the search for social justice in other contexts. In the South, teacher educators are even more obliged to be involved, as our societies are generally unequal and strikingly unfair in terms of distribution of power, wealth, and resources. In our case, the language policy overtly disregards the linguistic rights of the indigenous people, placing English as the dominant language.

Lesson Three: Teacher Educators Must Learn the Language of Politics.

It is hard to see teacher educators as actors in political arenas. Some people say we are supposed to stick to our job and avoid the confrontation of ideas or struggles that express a critical view of education or language policies. Nevertheless, our critical consciousness is required because we represent and give voice to teachers, students, and communities. Correa, González, Sierra & Usma (2010) found in their study that the majority of EFL teachers and educational authorities in charge of the implementation of the language policy do not know the real implications of the NPB and have embraced the discourses of accountability and competitiveness as positive for our education. This lack of knowledge has been used by politicians and policy makers to shape discourse about education and to impose their views of English as the panacea to access the labor market and better life conditions, as many assume it to be.

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To express what we believe in and to be involved in actions leading to educational change, we need to speak the language of politics. This means we need to emulate the mechanisms of dissemination of information, call for action, communication of achievements, and power of conviction, among others, traditionally used by politicians to share their messages. All these mechanisms should serve the purpose of informing the school members and communities about the policies, and their hidden agendas and implications for teaching practices. It is our challenge to learn how to effectively communicate our ideas, goals and limitations and use our knowledge to raise awareness on our needs involving our communities in the search for better education and schools.

Lesson Four: Teacher Educators Must Seek Opportunities to be Interlocutors of Policy Makers.

As teacher educators, we are informed citizens that need to exert our rights in educational arenas in order to make our voices heard. We have to take advantage of our knowledge and speak on behalf of those who do not have a voice and advocate the cause of a more egalitarian education. Although many educators and teacher educators may be reluctant to take a public stand on certain issues, our silence deprives education of a major interlocutor with policy makers and politicians. According to Goodlad (2006, p. xv), "the public discourse about education and schooling is diminished when well-educated citizens choose not to be involved. When educators are mute, experience and knowledge relevant to the conversation is missing." We are to promote and take an active part in debates and open discussions with those who design the policies about issues in language teaching and learning. It is important to procure spaces of participation to achieve acknowledgment of our views. Seeing that it is difficult to obtain spaces at the policy design and decision-making levels, we can create academic spaces where policy makers can present their ideas and discuss major issues with us.

Lesson Five: Teacher Educators Are to Educate Politicians and Government Staff About What Teaching and Learning a Language Entails.

Policy makers make decisions about the implementation of language policies, and politicians use the possible benefits of the policies in their campaigns for elections. Once they obtain the position, they align the policy to their government action plans and administer the education budget to obtain the expected results. Unfortunately, most of these decisions disregard the realities of the classrooms because government staffers do not usually know much about education. In our work with politicians and government staff, we have taken advantage of our position as well as educated parties and have used the research-based work of our university to

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share some basic knowledge about the processes of learning and teaching a foreign language, second language acquisition, and the realities behind the premises of the ideals of bilingualism for our country. We have taken advantage of formal and informal meetings as well as academic proposals to address these topics. In two cases, we have persuaded the decision makers in education offices to consider our proposals for the professional development of EFL teachers. Contrary to the promises of fast and effective training and pre-established agendas of the programs proposed by some publisher companies and non-university private agencies, we have designed long-term programs that combine English language development and situated methodologies. As a consequence of this action, we have had in Medellín the only professional development program in the country that has been funded by the city education board for 5 years, a great achievement considering that we have had two different mayors in that period of time and that some other proposals might have cost less.

Lesson Six: Teacher Educators Need to Unveil and Deconstruct Discourses About Teachers' Responsibility in the Success of Policy Implementation.

In Colombia, as in other countries in the South, discourses about the teachers' responsibility in the success or failure of language policies are present in the mass media and have penetrated the minds of many citizens. For EFL teachers, we find newspaper headlines in our country, Chile, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica addressing the issue of English teachers' limited language proficiency, mainly for those in the public education sector. In Bilingual Colombia, testing the teachers' proficiency in English allowed the Ministry of Education to conclude that our teachers were not prepared to teach the language because of their insufficient proficiency and their lack of effective methodologies. That was the justification used to introduce actions to remedy this situation—such as a professional development program based on the ICELT, the recommendation of the TKT, and intervention in university-based foreign language teacher education programs. Parallel discourses about the teachers' lack of commitment to the profession, lack of interest in being professionally updated, and excessive interest in teachers' union movements have been considered the cause of the lower quality of public education. We have the ethical responsibility to unveil those discourses and raise awareness about the complexity of teacher's jobs and the diverse, and sometimes adverse, circumstances of teaching in schools. Issues such as low salaries, crowded classrooms, increasing workloads, lack of resources, little social recognition and social pressure should be considered alongside the positive impact that teachers can have. Moreover, the complexity of the act of teaching and the

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collective responsibility to attain better education levels need to be part of our message to everyone.

Lesson Seven: Educate Teachers About Language Policies as Early as Possible.

The analysis of language policies should not be a marginal component of graduate courses. Getting to know and exploring the basis and implications of language policies should be a part of the education of teachers in their undergraduate preparation. They need to gain awareness of what the policies imply and act critically upon them. This understanding is important for all teachers and not exclusively for those who have the privilege to pursue graduate studies, which in our context tend to be a minority. We need also to include the review of language policies as a component of in-service programs so that teachers can participate in discussions and express their opinions in academic and political scenarios.

Lesson Eight: Teacher Educators Need to Use and Defend Local Knowledge as a Key Element in Our Work.

Local knowledge and situated learning gain importance in the implementation of language policies as a counterpart to the discourses and practices of academic colonialism (González, 2007). They are particularly valid in settings where the imposition of foreign models and agendas for teaching and professional development prevail. As teachers and teacher educators have shared responsibility in the construction of knowledge, it is our duty to promote and defend the use of local knowledge. We are to value local studies and acknowledge the particularity of teaching and learning (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2003). This has paramount importance in the South where central knowledge and teaching practices are often imposed by international education agencies and publishing companies with the compliance of governments. Many teacher educators in Colombia and in other countries in the South have made conscious efforts to disseminate local literature and studies for two main reasons: one, because they are pertinent and significant; and two, as a way to strengthen the bases of critical discourses and practices. Although it is not easy to transcend the borders of national publications, we are gaining experience and savoir-faire to reach further audiences and break the paradigm of theory consumers.

Lesson Nine: Teacher Educators Need to Keep in Mind Our Social Responsibility and Ethical Role.

Language policies usually go beyond the teaching and learning of languages. They relate to broader issues such as peoples' language rights, identity, democracy, and inclusion. We must establish connections between these issues and our analysis so that we can keep in mind our

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social responsibility and ethical role to promote educational change and social justice. The imposed agendas of language policies may ignore the consequences of language choices on the lives of students and teachers because they usually focus on the seemingly effective side of learning a new language.

Lesson Ten: Teacher Educators Need to Persist, Resist, Insist and Never Desist.

In times of global neo-liberal practices, teacher educators have to become advocates of the causes of pluralistic education and social justice. We have to be persistent in our efforts. This persistence may encourage us to resist the imposed discourses and practices, show a critical view of them and engage in political debates. Using Manfred Max-Neef's (2008) metaphor of the mosquito cloud launched against the rhinoceros, we have to resist seemingly undefeatable powers with the sum of many individual voices. We have to insist on our ideals, making them a constant message to teachers, students, communities and ourselves. We cannot desist from our responsibility to achieve better education for our students and better conditions for language teachers.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have attempted to show how the horizons of teacher education have expanded in the South, mainly in the interaction of language teacher educators with policy makers and politicians. Based on an analysis of the social and educational challenges and the changes imposed by neo-liberal agendas to the educational community in Colombia, a country in the South, I presented 10 lessons that may be useful to the causes of teacher education in the North. The lessons highlight the need to have a stronger presence for teacher educators in the social and political arena in order to gain the respect and recognition of those who design and make major decisions in the implementation of language policies.

As a final word, I would like to say that this may be the time for teacher educators from the North to approach the South and embrace our experience. We have more similarities than differences in our jobs educating teachers.

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Chapter Four

What Do ESL Teachers Need for Their Professional Development? The Voice from Ontario

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The professional development of in-service English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers has become an important subject of empirical study in the field of education. To date, there has been little research investigating the professional development (PD) needs of ESL teachers in Canada. In this paper, we report findings from our pilot study with 20 ESL teachers from four language institutes in Toronto, Ontario. Findings show that in-service teachers improve their professional skills in different ways. Many teachers appreciate learning from their mentors and colleagues but prefer formal education. However, in-service ESL teachers' PD needs are insufficiently met, and they still need more support from their institutions.

Introduction

Over the past 20 years, the number of international students in Canada has increased rapidly (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2008). In 2007 alone, 64,636 international students entered Canada to study at various levels. Among these, 33,423 students registered in Canadian institutions of higher education. According to Citizenship and Immigration Canada (2010), the top 10 source countries for international students are China, Korea, India, France, Saudi Arabia, United States, Japan, Mexico, Germany, and Brazil. Since most of the students who speak English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) in their home countries do not meet the language requirements, they enroll in various intensive English language programs prior to commencing their main courses of study. The ESL teachers in these language programs are responsible for helping these students become linguistically competent for their studies at universities and colleges. Given that the population of ESL students is increasing in Canada, the field of second language teaching is expanding to meet the demand. As a distinct field within the educational domain, ESL teaching has many unique characteristics. ESL teachers work in an environment where the medium of instruction is also the subject of instruction (Hammadou & Bernhardt, 1987). ESL teachers practice their craft in a wide variety of instructional environments, and as a result often teach in relative isolation from other ESL educators. The knowledge base of ESL teachers is particularly unique, as they come from diverse educational backgrounds when they enter the profession, from majoring in English and linguistics in their

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undergraduate studies to majoring in engineering, chemistry, and other science areas. Whatever their backgrounds, however, their opportunities for in-service professional development (PD) are limited (Chafe & Wang, 2008).

In-service teachers' PD is crucial for students' learning in the ESL context (Sparks, 2002). Numerous studies have been conducted on a wide range of issues related to ESL teacher education. Researchers' and teacher educators' concerns include preparation and development of the professional knowledge base (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Hegarty, 2000; Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Tedick, 2005; Vélez-Rendón, 2006), teaching language skills (Andrews & McNeil, 2005; Barnes, 1996), planning for instruction, methodology, and classroom management skills (Johnson, 1992; Mullock, 2006), using technology in instruction (Barr, 2004; Cunningham & Redmond, 2002; Velazquez-Torres, 2005), meeting the needs of socially and economically diverse students (Achinstein & Athanases, 2005; Johnson, 2006), and professional growth (Epstein, 2001; Richards & Farrell, 2005). However, very little research (Epstein, 2001) has documented teachers' PD needs specifically in the Canadian context. In the socioculturally constructed world, ESL teachers are social beings. Those in Canada have PD needs that are specific to the Canadian context and which might be different from those in other English-speaking countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom. Therefore, in this study we hope to fill the research gap.

To better understand ESL teachers' PD activities and needs within the Canadian context and the challenges they face in their professional development, we conducted a mixed-method pilot study in Ontario, due to that province having the largest number of immigrants and international students among all provinces and territories in this country (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2010). In this paper, we present the preliminary analysis of the data. We hope that the voices of Canadian ESL teachers will provide a reference for future policy-making, policy administration and evaluation, and Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) training programs in Canada.

Literature Review

As Peyton (1997) suggested, teacher knowledge should be consistently renewed and revitalized throughout a teacher's professional life, and teachers themselves play a vital role in improving the effectiveness of their own teaching (Richard & Nunan, 1990). Mounting evidence shows that PD for in-service teachers can increase the positive feelings of teachers toward their teaching, and thereby enhance students' learning (Darling-Hammond, 1998). Becoming an

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effective teacher requires the ability to analyze and reflect on one's own teaching practice, and then modify and improve one's actions (Darling-Hammond, 1998).

Acquiring this skill and subsequently developing an improved practice involves more than just reading and participating in discussions. Studies indicate that teacher learning is best done through study, active participation, reflection, collaboration with other teachers, and close observation of students and their work (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Farrell, 1998; Lakshmi, 2009; Park et al., 2007). This learning process cannot take place only in pre-service teacher training programs, nor can it happen with in-service teachers who lack knowledge regarding how to analyze their own practice.

Terdy (1993) proposed several in-service PD models for ESL teachers. The first involves the transmission of key teaching skills, such as specific techniques for teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The second model entails encouraging in-service teachers to reflect on their practices and set up idea-sharing relationships with other teachers. Thirdly, in recognition of the isolation in which some ESL teachers operate, Terdy (1993) strongly advocated the use of mentoring and partnering between teachers in order to foster connections. Likewise, Park et al. (2007) maintained that teachers can serve as excellent resources for each other. They found in their studies that teachers "develop 'collective teacher knowledge' by talking to each other in ways that could be regarded as 'professional theorizing'" (p. 370).

The research literature suggests that in-service teachers should stay abreast of new developments in the teaching profession. In the Chinese context, Cheng and Wang (2004) surveyed the PD needs of 47 in-service secondary teachers of English in mainland China. Their findings indicated that teachers of English there wished to learn more language teaching methods, such as communicative language teaching as well as computer-assisted teaching and learning. The teachers also wanted to improve their teaching by pursuing formal educational opportunities such as working on advanced degrees. In comparison to the educational contexts in some Asian countries, the constantly changing face of the student population in Canadian schools necessitates ESL teachers' ongoing PD. Even experienced teachers need to continually upgrade and adjust their knowledge in order to remain abreast of the frontline requirements of their classrooms. Recently, Mak (2010) investigated the PD needs of Hong Kong ESL teachers. Her research findings showed that Hong Kong ESL teachers prefer PD activities that required short engagement time and could be of immediate and direct benefit to their teaching.

In the North American context, Kohl (2005) found that K-12 ESL and foreign language teachers in North Carolina were interested in collaborating with other teachers, traveling or

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studying aboard, attending professional conferences, observing other teachers, and participating in in-service activities. Epstein (2001) explored the PD needs of six language teachers in Western Canada. Three of these were teaching English for Academic Purposes, and three were teaching in adult immigrant ESL programs. Epstein identified a list of those ESL teachers' PD needs and demonstrated that the teachers' preferences for different types of PD depended on their work environments and student populations. In response to questions concerning perceived barriers to PD, Epstein received a variety of replies, such as time constraints and low administrative support for such activities. Her findings have shown the distinctive challenges faced by ESL teachers. To increase the research area of ESL teachers' PD, we designed our survey study to explore the related issues in a broad sense.

Research Design

The purpose of this research study was to investigate the PD needs of Canadian ESL teachers at the tertiary level. To this end, we addressed the following two research questions:

1. What are the professional development needs of ESL teachers at the tertiary level?
2. What challenges do ESL teachers at the tertiary level face in their professional development?

We conducted this pilot study in Ontario in the spring of 2008. We contacted four ESL teachers from different language institutes and asked them to distribute the questionnaire among their colleagues. Three of these institutes were associated with community colleges and one was a private language institute. Most of the students in these language institutes were either studying at the college level or preparing for language proficiency exams to enter colleges. Out of a total of 30 questionnaires distributed, 20 were returned completed. Before the teachers filled out the questionnaire, they were informed in writing that their participation in the study was voluntary, that they had the right to withdraw from the research without giving a reason at any time, and that they could request removal of all or part of their data. Teachers were not obliged to answer any questions that they found objectionable or that made them uncomfortable. Teachers were requested to sign and return the consent form together with the questionnaire. To ensure anonymity, we provided two envelopes so that teachers could return the questionnaire and consent form separately.

The questionnaire (see Appendix) included 15 questions in a mixed format of multiple choice and open-ended questions, centering on areas of personal background and pre-service education, English language teaching experience and contexts, and PD activities and needs. The survey data were analyzed using SPSS 15.00. Since only 20 ESL teachers participated in this pilot study, only descriptive analysis was conducted. Our participants were told beforehand that they did not have to answer any questions they did not want to, and some participants therefore chose not to answer all of the questions.

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Findings

This section reports the findings, summarized according to the themes that emerged: the teachers, their teaching contexts, their PD activities and PD needs, and the challenges that they faced in their PD.

The Teachers

The demographic information collected in this study consisted of gender, age, educational qualifications, and number of years teaching. Table 1 presents a summary of the profiles of the ESL teachers who participated in the study.

As shown in Table 1, of the total number of 20 respondents, 13 were females (65%) and seven were males (35%). Only 15 teachers responded to the question about their age. Their ages ranged from 21 to 49 years, with 86.7% of the participants being over 30 years old. As far as their teaching experience was concerned, 13 out of 19 teachers had been teaching for five years or longer, and three had taught for over 15 years. With regard to their educational qualifications, 17 (85%) had obtained a Bachelor's degree, eight of these (40% of total) had received or were in the process of obtaining a Master's degree, and three had only a TESL certificate of some kind.

Table 1: Demographic Descriptions of the ESL Teachers

Variables	N=20	%
Gender	**N=20**	
Female	13	65.0
Male	7	35.0
Age	**N=15**	
21-29	2	13.3
30-39	7	46.7
40-49	6	40.0
Teaching Experience	**N=19**	
1-4 years	6	31.6
5-9 years	5	26.3
10-14 years	5	26.3
Over 15 years	3	15.8
Educational Qualifications	**N=20**	
Certificate	3	15.0
B.A.	9	45.0
M.A. / M.Ed.	8	40.0

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The Teaching Contexts

The teaching contexts in this section include information related to participating teachers' workplaces. In the survey, we asked for the number of employers that teachers had at the time, the educational qualifications required to teach in their institutes, their workloads, and class sizes. We also looked into their teaching responsibilities and how their teaching was evaluated.

Table 2: The Teaching Contexts of Canadian ESL Teachers

Variables	N = 20	%
Number of Employers	**N = 20**	
One	16	80.0
Two	2	10.0
Three	2	10.0
Qualifications Required to Teach ESL	**N = 20**	
TESL Certificate	5	25.0
TESL/Bachelor's degree	13	65.0
TESL/Bachelor's degree/Master's degree	2	10.0
Teaching Hours Per Week	**N = 18**	
Less than 10 hours	8	44.4
10-19 hours	5	27.8
Over 20 hours	5	27.8
Average Students Per Class	**N = 19**	
5-9 students	2	10.5
10-14 students	5	26.3
15-19 students	7	36.8
20-29 students	5	26.3

From Table 2 we can see that most teachers (80%) worked for only one employer, while 20% worked for two or more. Class sizes in the four schools varied from fewer than 10 students to more than 20. According to their responses, 65% of the teachers mentioned that a TESL certificate and a Bachelor's degree were required to teach in the ESL programs in their institutes, but some teachers also pointed out that for temporary contracts, many options were available. In Ontario, as in all of Canada, a TESL certificate or equivalent as well as a degree is necessary to teach in any government-funded ESL program. In some private language schools, exceptions might be possible.

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Our data show that most of these teachers had limited teaching hours. Only five out of 18 teachers (27.8%) had over 20 teaching hours per week, another five were teaching 10–19 hours per week, and the rest were teaching less than 10 hours per week. In Ontario, ESL teachers who teach at least 20 hours per week are considered to be full-time teaching staff. Only full-time teachers would have benefits such as health insurance, paid vacations, and so on. In order to have more teaching hours, some teachers taught in more than one school, so even though some teachers taught more than 20 hours in total, they were not considered full-time teachers at any one institution. This situation had an impact on how the ESL teachers viewed their teaching as a career and on their decisions regarding whether or not to continue teaching in the future.

As the data in Figure 1 below indicate, ESL teachers' responsibilities may also include testing, student placement, and material and curriculum development, in addition to actual classroom teaching. One teacher reported that her job responsibilities also included doing research.

Figure 1: Canadian ESL Teachers' Responsibilities in School

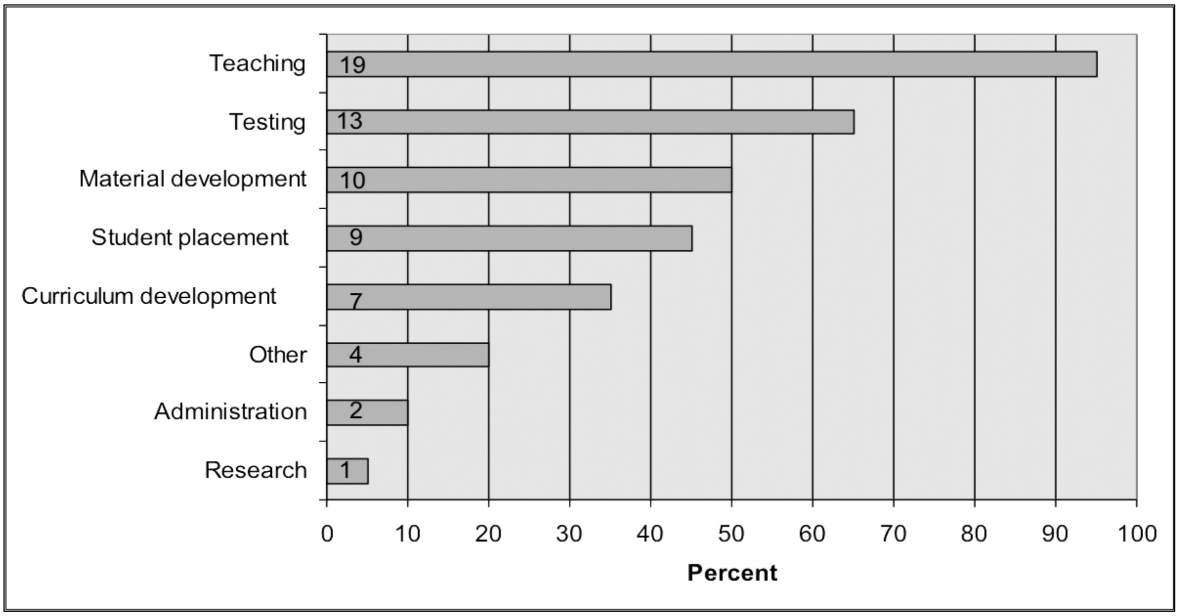

Figure 2 shows participants' responses to the question of how their teaching is evaluated in their institutes.

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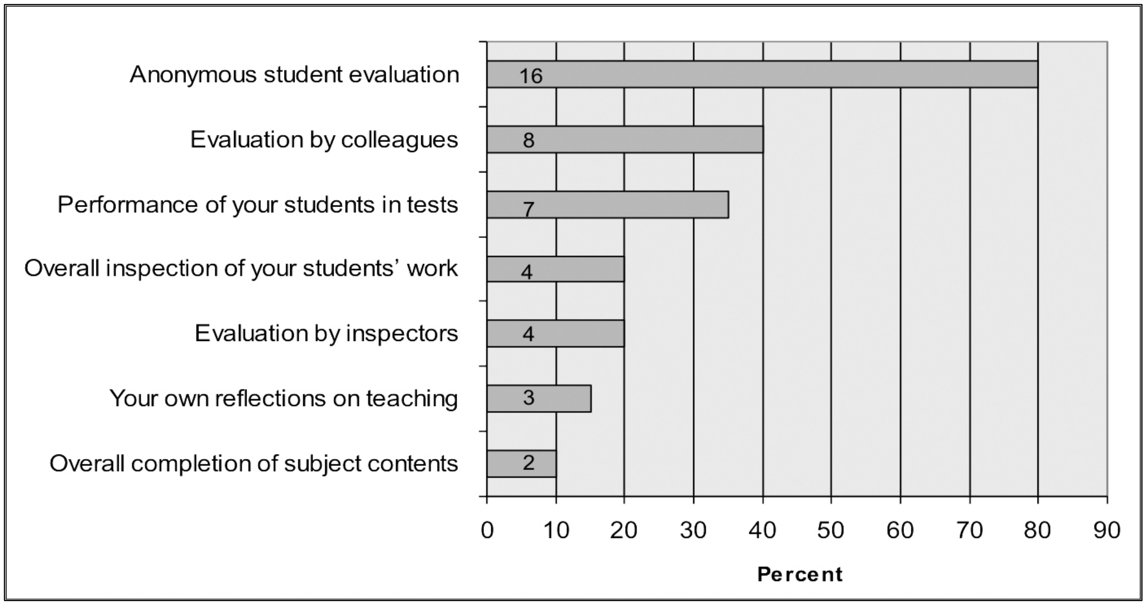
Figure 2: Evaluation of Canadian ESL Teachers' Performance



Eighty percent (80%) indicated that the main evaluation method was "anonymous student evaluation," 40% reported "evaluation by colleagues," and 35% "performance of students in tests." The participants also mentioned other evaluation methods, such as overall inspection of students' work, evaluation by inspectors (20%), self-reflection on teaching (15%), and overall completion of subject matter (10%).

Teachers' Professional Development

This section focuses on activities related to ESL teachers' professional development. Specifically, it discusses what kinds of PD activities these teachers had participated in over the previous five years (Figure 3), which learning experiences had contributed to their PD (Table 3), what they wished to learn more about regarding language teaching (Figure 4), and ways to improve their teaching (Figure 5).

When asked about the kinds of PD activities they had participated in over the previous five years (see Figure 3 and Table 3 below), 75% of the teachers indicated that they had attended workshops, and 70% stated that they had observed other teachers' classes and attended scholarly and professional conferences. In addition, 61.1% of the teachers felt that working with other teachers in their schools had contributed to their PD. About 11.1% commented that membership in professional teachers' associations, accessing internet resources, and writing reflective journals had also helped their PD to some degree.

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Figure 3: PD Activities Participated in by Canadian ESL Teachers Over 5 Years

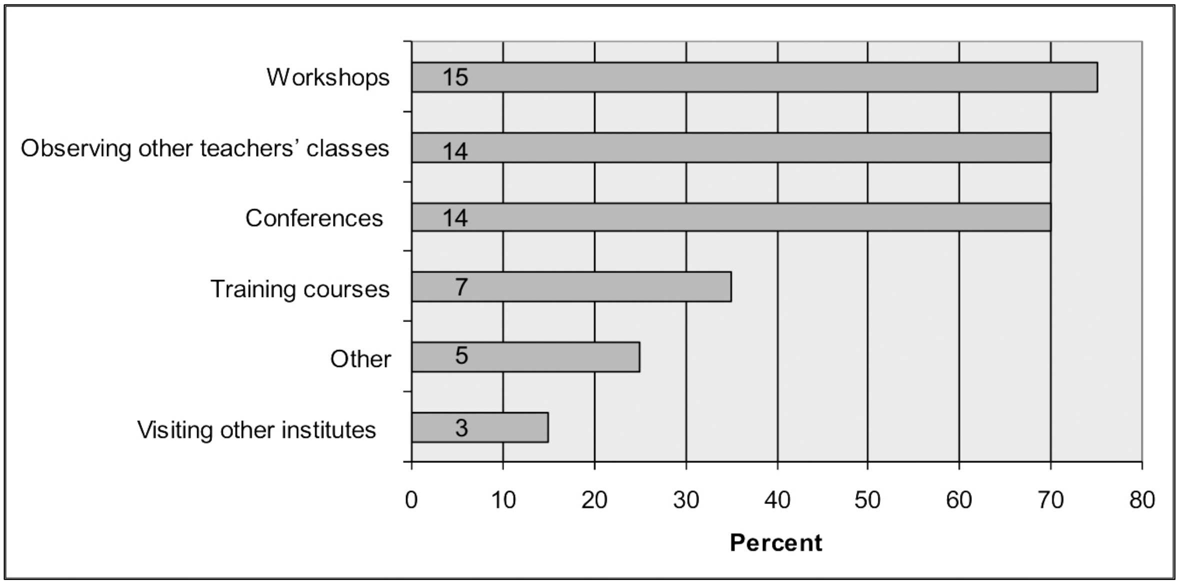

Table 3: Learning Experiences Contributing to PD of Canadian ESL Teachers

Variables	N = 18	%
Working with other teachers	11	61.1
Membership in associations	2	11.1
Internet resources	2	11.1
Writing reflective journals	2	11.1
Other learning	1	5.6

When asked what they would like to learn more about regarding English language teaching (see Figure 4 below), 70.6% of the teachers stated that they wanted to learn more about computer-assisted language learning, and 35.3% expressed a wish to know more about testing and evaluation. In terms of methods of learning, Figure 5 below shows that teachers wanted to learn teaching skills in different ways: formal teacher education, learning from their colleagues and mentors, and so on. In particular, 51.4% of the teachers in our study wanted to learn through formal educational opportunities and by receiving feedback from observers. Forty percent of the teachers wanted to learn through working with their colleagues, 33.6% through working with a mentor, and 13.3% through attending workshops and summer courses. However, none of the participants wanted to learn about language teaching through distance education.

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Figure 4: What Teachers Want to Learn About Language Teaching

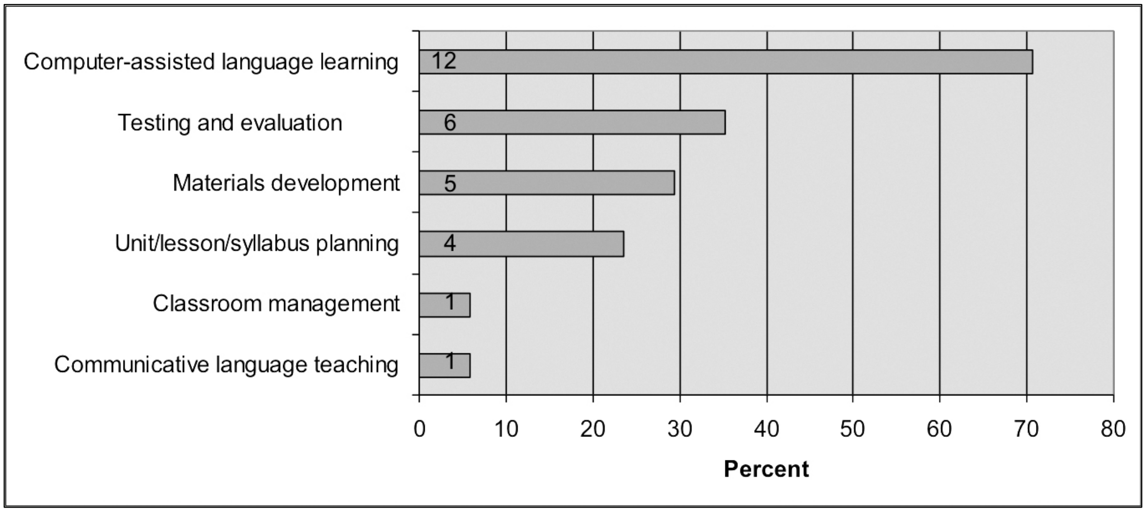
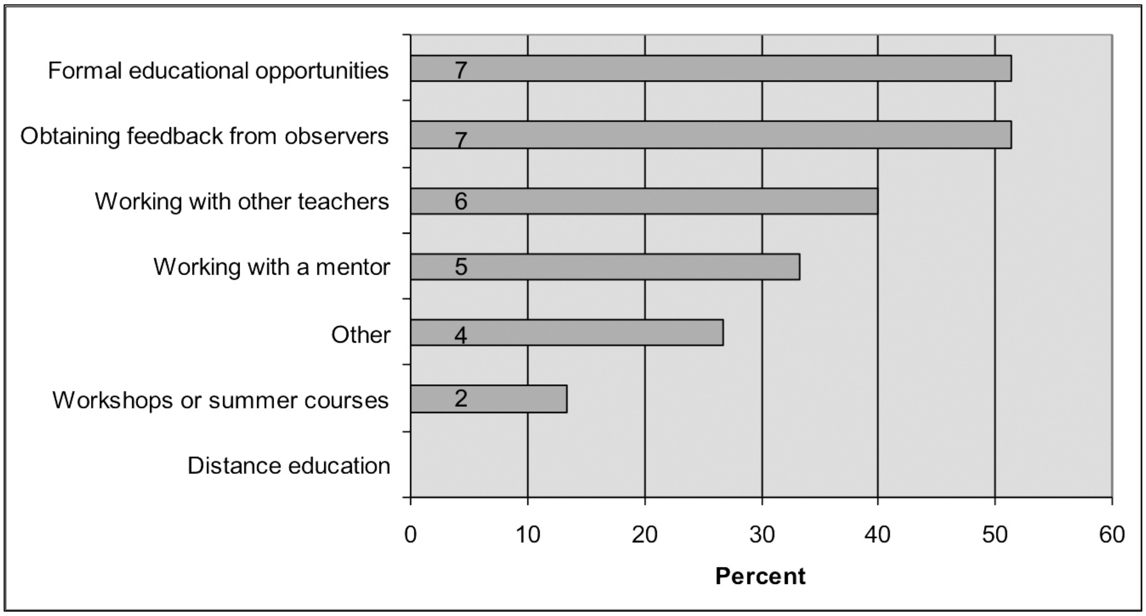


Figure 5: Methods of Learning Teaching Skills



Challenges in Canadian ESL Teachers' Professional Development

In the survey, an open-ended question was used to ask ESL teachers about the challenges they faced in their professional development. As discussed in the previous section, most ESL teachers had limited teaching hours at their primary institution, and in order to gain more teaching hours, they worked in more than one language institute. Most teachers expanded on this situation in their replies to the open-ended question regarding challenges. While some felt

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that their employment did not seem very promising, others were concerned with their financial situations, and still others were unhappy about not being paid for their preparation time. Regardless of the reasons for their individual worries, they were all concerned with making enough money and finding a full-time position with job security.

The results indicated that these teachers felt they needed more pedagogic support. As the data show, many teachers wanted to learn computer-assisted language learning, and some wanted to know more about writing and assessment. The teachers in general felt that they needed more support for teaching students of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, while certain individuals found it challenging to teach large groups of monolingual students. There were teachers who found it difficult to implement critical pedagogy in their teaching practices, while many teachers appreciated learning from their mentors and colleagues but still preferred formal education. Oftentimes teachers were eager to improve their teaching, but stated their concerns over the costs of additional training. Additionally, many teachers felt that lack of funds and lack of support for their professional development from their institutes was a concern, and felt that their PD needs were not being sufficiently met.

Discussion and Conclusions

This study explored the professional development needs of in-service ESL teachers in the Canadian context. As Canada has attracted a large population of immigrants and foreign students, the ESL teaching profession has grown rapidly. However, many teachers in our study did not hold a full-time position, nor did they have tenured employment with benefits. In the survey, 25% of the teachers were not sure if they would remain in the ESL teaching profession, with most of the segment relating their indecision to their employment situations and financial benefits.

The research literature promotes the importance of mentorship and peer support (Park et al., 2007; Terdy, 1993) and informal learning within the community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). One of the PD models that Terdy (1993) proposed involves mentoring in key teaching skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing, but our study shows that opportunities for such mentoring for Canadian ESL teachers remain limited. Many teachers only had the PD experiences of attending workshops and observing other teachers. Some teachers pointed out the lack of support mechanisms at the institutional level to facilitate their PD, and all wanted to have more support for their professional development.

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The individual ESL teachers in our study had diverse educational backgrounds and teaching experience, and so had different individual PD needs. In the survey, some expressed their wish to learn more about language teaching pedagogy in order to help their students achieve better performance, and some also wanted to learn specific language teaching skills such as that of teaching writing.

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has become increasingly popular in language classrooms, which demonstrates the significant role that technology can play in language teaching and learning. However, recent studies show that teachers have experienced challenges and difficulties integrating CALL and other technological aspects into their ESL classrooms (Stockwell, 2009; Velazquez-Torres, 2005). In the present study, over 70% of the teachers surveyed showed strong interest in learning more about CALL.

This survey is the first step in helping us understand the status quo of Canadian ESL teachers' PD needs at the tertiary level. We acknowledge that the participants in the study were from small institutes in Ontario and that therefore their workplace cultures may not be the same as in other organizations. It is therefore necessary to explore the PD needs of Canadian ESL teachers on a broader scale, for example, teachers from government-funded ESL programs in universities, colleges, and communities in Ontario as well as other provinces and territories. It would be enlightening to compare the PD needs of ESL teachers in these different settings. In terms of methodology, we recognize the limitations of this small case study, i.e., using a questionnaire with a small group of participants from a single province. Due to the small sample, we could not conduct a more detailed analysis and were consequently only able to look at the data at the descriptive level. Therefore, a larger-scale survey study needs to be conducted in Canada, followed by focus group discussions with ESL teachers and interviews with ESL administrators in order to further investigate the support mechanisms offered to ESL teachers for their professional development. All these research endeavors will provide a richer source of data, which will allow a more in-depth exploration of the issue.

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Appendix

ESL Teachers' Professional Development Needs in Canada (Pilot Study)

Instructions: This questionnaire is designed to understand the professional development of teachers like you who teach English in tertiary ESL programs in Canada. The questionnaire consists of three parts: your **educational background**, your **teaching context**, and your **professional development**. Please put a tick [√] next to your appropriate choice. Thank you very much for your help.

Part One: About You and Your Educational Background

1. What is your gender? [ ] Female [ ] Male
2. What is your age as of May 1, 2008?[ ]
3. How long have you been teaching ESL?
   (1) [ ] less than one year
   (2) [ ] 1-2 years
   (3) [ ] 3-4 years
   (4) [ ] 5-9 years
   (5) [ ] 10-14 years
   (6) [ ] 15-19 years
   (7) [ ] over 20 years
4. What are your qualifications in English language teaching? (check all that apply)
   (1) [ ] certificate (please specify) ______________________________
   (2) [ ] Bachelor's degree (please specify) ______________________________
   (3) [ ] Master's degree (please specify) ______________________________
   (4) [ ] other (please specify) ______________________________

Part Two: About Your Teaching Context

5. How many institutes are you working in now?
   (1) [ ] one
   (2) [ ] two
   (3) [ ] three
   (4) [ ] more than three
6. What formal qualifications are required to teach ESL in your institute?
   (1) [ ] TESL Certificate

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(2) [ ] Bachelor's degree

(3) [ ] Master's degree

(4) [ ] other (please specify) ____________________________

7. How many class hours per week are you teaching in total?______ hours.
8. How many students on average are there in each class? ______ students.
9. What are your responsibilities in your school (check all that apply and put an asterisk * beside your main responsibility)?

(1) [ ] teaching

(2) [ ] curriculum development

(3) [ ] material development

(4) [ ] research

(5) [ ] administration

(6) [ ] student placement

(7) [ ] testing

(8) [ ] other (please specify) ____________________________

10. How is your teaching evaluated in your institute (check all that apply and put an asterisk * beside the primary one)?

(1) [ ] your own reflections on teaching

(2) [ ] performance of your students in tests and exams

(3) [ ] overall inspection of your students' work by your institute

(4) [ ] overall completion of the subject contents

(5) [ ] anonymous student evaluation of teaching

(6) [ ] evaluation by colleagues

(7) [ ] evaluation by inspectors

Part Three: About Your Professional Development

11. What professional development activities have you participated in over the past five years?

(1) [ ] conferences

(2) [ ] training courses

(3) [ ] workshops

(4) [ ] visiting other institutes

(5) [ ] observing other teachers' classes

(6) [ ] other (please specify) ____________________________

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12. What other learning experiences have contributed to your professional development?

(1) [ ] membership in professional language teachers' association
(2) [ ] internet resources (participation in listserves, worldwide web resources)
(3) [ ] working with other teachers in my institute
(4) [ ] writing reflective journals about my teaching
(5) [ ] other learning (please specify) ______________________________

13. What would you like to learn more about English language teaching?

(1) [ ] communicative language teaching
(2) [ ] materials development
(3) [ ] classroom management
(4) [ ] testing and evaluation
(5) [ ] unit, lesson, and curriculum (syllabus) planning
(6) [ ] computer-based and computer-assisted teaching and learning
(7) [ ] other (please specify) ______________________________

14. In what ways would you need to improve your language teaching most?

(1) [ ] formal educational opportunities such as an advanced degree (specify degree to be sought) ______________________________
(2) [ ] formal distance education (home study) courses and/or programs
(3) [ ] workshops or summer courses (specify topic or topics)
____
(4) [ ] working with other teachers at my level
(5) [ ] working with a mentor with more experience and expertise
(6) [ ] being observed by others and receiving feedback
(7) [ ] other (please specify) ______________________________

15. What are the challenges you are facing in your professional development?

(1) ______________________________
(2) ______________________________
(3) ______________________________

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Chapter Five

Teaching in the Target Language: A Pedagogical Value Under Attack?

Mark Warford, *Buffalo State College (SUNY)*

Maximal teacher use of the target language (L2) is a tested pedagogical value in the language teaching profession that has experienced a recent resurgence in frameworks for language teaching and language teacher education. However, recent research has raised important questions about classroom code-switching and how best to situate L1 vs. L2 in classroom discourse. The potential gap between research and standards is particularly problematic given that it sends teachers mixed messages at a time when empirical studies suggest many are not teaching in the L2 to the maximum extent possible. The goal of this critical review of the literature is to contextualize the debate in ways that illuminate the emergent L1 vs. L2 polemic.

Introduction

Bernhardt and Hammadou (1987), in speaking to the uniqueness of the foreign language (FL) teaching profession, stated that "in foreign language teaching, the content and the process for learning the content are the same. In other words, in foreign language teaching, the medium is the message" (p. 302). For most of its modern history, the FL profession has attached great importance to maximal teacher use of the L2 in instruction. For example, teaching in the L2 is the cornerstone of proficiency-oriented instruction (Omaggio, 1984). Standards for language teacher preparation further emphasize the value of maintaining instruction in the L2 (Department of Educational Standards, 1990; Office for Standards in Education, 1993; INTASC, 2002; NCATE, 2002). More recently, ACTFL advanced a position statement advocating 90%-minimum teacher use of the L2 (ACTFL, 2010). Though teaching in the target language is well established as a pedagogical value in FL instruction, preliminary results of classroom observation and self-report surveys indicate that teacher use of L2 is not employed to its full potential (Allen, 2002; Calman & Daniel, 1998; Wong, 2005). Undermining a definitive picture of how much L2 teachers use in the classroom is the fact that there is currently no streamlined, tested measure to track the central classroom discourse categories of interest in the study of code-switching between L1 and L2, nor is there a means to measure the extent to which teachers value L1 vs. L2 and actually put their beliefs about navigating between the two linguistic codes into practice in actual classrooms. Over the years, surveys have been used either in isolation as a component of a

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larger study of teacher beliefs (Allen, 2002; Brosch, 1996; Rhodes, & Branaman, 1999) or in conjunction with a direct observation method, often involving the coding of classroom discourse tallies measured, for example, in intervals of five second beeps (Duff & Polio, 1990; Macaro 2001). While the surveys offer a more comprehensive view of the quality of the teacher decision-making process, L2 use is exaggerated (Edstrom, 2006; Kalivoda, 1983; Levine, 2003; Mollica, 1985; Polio & Duff, 1994). While the 'beep' method of calculating L1 vs. L2 in teacher talk provides a more objective measure of the extent to which FL teachers stay in L2, it tends to address proportions of class time rather than the actual quantity of L1 vs. L2 from bell to bell. Setting aside the vicissitudes of measuring FL teachers' use of the L2, the emergent trend in research on FL teacher code-switching suggests that our classroom use of L2 may be both meager and inflated in the reporting.

Despite mounting evidence of insufficient target language use in foreign language teaching, the last several years have seen a tidal wave of criticism leveled against minimizing L1 in the classroom (Atkinson, 1993; Cook, 2001; Macaro, 1995, 2001). Cook (2001) and Py (1996), borrowing from research on discourse in bilingual education, contended that code switching (switching between two languages) between L1 and L2 is appropriate for a bilingual setting such as a FL classroom and that the "L2 straightjacket" (Cook, 2001, p. 410) forces students and teachers to play artificial roles. Macaro (1997) argues that there is no principled justification for (near-) exclusive use of L2 in the classroom. However, there is not a single piece of evidence in the research literature to counter the argument that L2 should be the default medium of instruction, even among critics of near-exclusivity of L2 use (Atkinson, 1993; Cook, 2001). As one critic of near-exclusive L2 use in the classroom stated, "failure to engender enough use of the target language in the classroom is one of the major methodological reasons for poor achievement levels in language learning" (Atkinson, 1993, p. 4).

This discussion of teacher use of the L1 vs. L2 will begin with a brief modern history of L2 pedagogy, consider what current national standards have to say about L1 vs. L2 in the classroom, and establish what research has shown with regard to L1 vs. L2 in terms of the quantity and quality of teacher talk in the FL classroom. Upon that foundation, I will consider the claims made in the commentary on classroom code-switching and advance seven important themes that this chapter addresses in promoting more L2 in the discourse of FL classrooms.

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The Evolution of Foreign Language Pedagogy and L1/L2

In spite of consistent findings in favor of maximizing L2 in the classroom,[1] maintaining the L2 as the medium of instruction has waxed and waned in the modern history of theory and practice in FL pedagogy. Before the 1950s, the grammar-translation approach, as its name connoted, involved analyzing the L2 in English (Omaggio, 1984); thus the L1 was the medium of instruction. Behaviorist views of FL teaching and learning ushered in audio-lingual methodology (ALM), which centered on the repetition and memorization of L2 dialogues. L1 was deemed a bad habit to be avoided at all costs. Use of the native language in FL classrooms, after having been nearly eradicated within a behaviorist framework, re-emerged in the 1960s, partly in response to the growth of cognitive psycholinguistics, which viewed language learning as rule-governed behavior. Deductive approaches like cognitive code methodology encouraged bottom up processing, from explaining rules in L1 to a series of graduated practice activities that moved from mechanical to meaningful and communicative varieties (Chastain, 1970). In contrast to ALM's earlier exclusion of L1, L1 dominated as an analytical tool for learning L2 rules. Though the 1970s witnessed an eclectic array of approaches, cognitive code asserted itself as the status quo in FL teaching (Krashen, 1982).

The proficiency movement (Cook, 2001; Macaro, 1997, 2001), which began in the late 1970s, represented a significant shift back to conducting language classes in the L2. A combination of trends combined in ways that were favorable to integrating more of the L2: public support for intensive, immersed FL learning (Kalivoda, 1983), the maturation of second language acquisition (SLA) research and the consequent emphasis on input and interaction over explicit rule learning as the primary focus of language development (Krashen, 1982; Wong, 2005), the proliferation of proficiency-oriented methodologies in Europe (Omaggio, 1984), the rise of sociolinguistic competence as a central feature of L2 proficiency (Savignon, 1985), and finally, the publication of ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (2007), which spawned proficiency-oriented instruction (Omaggio, 1984), an approach that emphasized classroom use of the L2. Not all teachers and researchers have been keen on a diminished role for L1 or explicit instruction, and DeKeyser (1997) held that explicit grammar instruction (EGI) in L1 potentially provides a useful interface between input and acquisition.

The 1990s to the present have witnessed the rise of Sociocultural Theory (SCT) as a way of understanding the FL classroom. SCT researchers have buttressed the resurgent view of L1 as essential in learner cognitions and validated a role for L1 as a tool that helps students mediate FL

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[1] See Turnbull, 2001 for complete review.

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learning experiences, particularly in the context of paired or group activities (Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; Brooks & Donato, 1994: Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). The question of how to translate this view of L1 as a language learning tool into effective practice remains to be addressed. While Adair-Hauck and Donato (2002) and Wells (1999) maintain a maximal teacher use of the L2 stance, other SCT researchers like Antón and DiCamilla (1999) and Lantolf and Poehner (2007) suggest that if L1 is an important tool for student learning, then the teacher should openly embrace its use. Studies of teacher-learner interaction in SCT studies have not attended to teacher selection between L1 and L2, which is significant, given that Antón's (1999) and Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie's (2002) discourse samples evidence teacher student metalinguistic dialogue in which the teacher maintains L2 while the student may opt for L1.

Thus, in the discourse on teacher use of L1 vs. L2 over the past five decades, the paradigmatic pendulum has swung mercilessly between the native and target language without ever reaching equilibrium. In this context, a variety of countries have introduced standards for teacher code-switching in the FL classroom. These frameworks, which will be discussed in the next section, vary widely in their commitment to teaching in the target language, though a vast majority center attention on the importance of teacher use of L2.

L1, L2 and Standards for Foreign Language Teaching

A global perspective on standards for classroom code-switching between L1 and L2 paints a diverse portrait of how, when and to what extent the L1 fits into foreign language teaching. For example, Pufahl, Rhodes, and Christian (2001) found in their survey of FL teaching standards from different countries that bilingual countries or countries in which minority languages figure prominently tended to stress the importance of L1. While issues of power and identity dominate this trend, it is also common knowledge that minority and bilingual language learners benefit from a balance of literacy between their L1 and L2 (Cummins, 1987).

In France, the Ministere de L'Education Nationale (1993) asks teachers to wean students gradually from their native language. In contrast, most other national frameworks for language teaching feature some kind of support of maximizing teaching in the target language. The UK is the most supportive of L2 teaching and consequently the most restrictive with regard to use of L1. According to Macaro (1997), the Modern Foreign Languages framework for language learners, "Communicating in a foreign language must thus involve both teachers and pupils using the target language as the normal means of communication" (DES, 1990; Macaro, 1995, p.

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16). Also, L2 is viewed "as the normal means of communication" (as cited in Chambers, 1992, para 3.18). Macaro (2001) reports that UK standards for FL teaching have embraced the 'virtual exclusion' of English, a position to which he expressed strong opposition. It is important, however, to bear in mind that he was responding to the empirical reality that 94 to 100% L2 was integrated into the discourse of the student teachers he was investigating. Moreover, the student teachers were fiercely committed to their national framework in spite of his resistance to the strict L2 integration stance and the challenge that it represented in their practice teaching.

Instead of an 'exclusive' position, other countries have adopted a somewhat more qualified take on maintaining teaching in L2. According to Macaro (2001), the term 'maximal' as applied to L2 use, which is somewhat less ambitious than the 'virtual exclusion of L1' approach embraced by Britain, ostensibly recognizes there may be instances in which recourse to L1 is warranted. The word 'maximum' is a common adjective in the language used in guidelines for FL teaching standards in reference to teacher discourse, though frameworks are somewhat dodgy in their articulation of just what it is that 'maximal' teacher use of L2 means, and none that I know of have committed to a minimum percentage of L2 that would even come close to what apparently has been realized in the UK, at least among Macaro's (2001) pre-service teachers.

In the United States (see Figure 1), Hadley's (2000) Five Hypotheses of Proficiency-Oriented Instruction, I, Corollary 4, stated: "The proficiency-oriented classroom is one in which such natural acquisition opportunities are exploited as fully as possible" (Hadley, 2000, p. 83). However, as mere extrapolations from the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (2007), a document that did not directly address pedagogical approaches, the Five Hypotheses did not carry the same clout as a national framework. It was not until 2002 that professional standards for U.S. foreign language teachers were published. The Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) and the National Council for Accreditation in Teacher Education (NCATE) both worked with the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) in the design of guideline outcomes in foreign language teacher preparation. In both cases, as in the case of proficiency-oriented instruction, the emphasis is on teachers' using the L2 to the maximum extent while ACTFL-NCATE (2002) Standard 3.a (Understanding Language Acquisition and Creating a Supportive Classroom states: "They [the candidates] use the target language to the maximum extent possible" (p. 42).

The INTASC (2002) standards are more explicit in their attempt to promote extensive teacher use of L2. Principle 1 (Content Knowledge), for example, asserts, "They [the candidates]

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can effectively conduct classes in the target language at all levels of instruction" (p. 13). Principle 4 (Instructional Strategies) contends:

> Language teachers understand that consistent and comprehensible use of the target language during class time is fundamental to the language learning process. They make the target language comprehensible to students by using gestures, visuals, paraphrase, repetition, less complicated syntax, and by speaking at a rate that students can understand. They modify how they interact with students in the target language depending on the students' language proficiency and the content of the lesson. Language teachers know that by using these strategies they will maximize their ability to conduct the class in the target language and thus minimize the need to use English. (p. 20)

With regard to establishing positive learning environments, INTASC Principle 5 stresses, "Language teachers understand that an environment in which communicative interactions occur in the target language is essential for effective language learning" (p. 25). Principle 6 (Communication) asserts that language teachers value the importance of communicating in the target language inside and outside the classroom and use the target language for a variety of purposes. For example, they use the target language for classroom management, giving directions, and informal conversations outside of class. They seek out and provide ways for students to use the language outside the classroom (e.g., email exchanges, conversation groups, video clubs, cross-age tutoring, target language publications, and investigations into their own community where the target language might be used) (p. 27) and later, "Language teachers know that in order for students to develop proficiency in the target language the use of the target language must outweigh the use of English" (p. 29).

INTASC departs from its counterpart in a way that recalls recent classroom-based studies in sociocultural theory by underscoring the utility of the L1 for students: "Teachers also realize that students may use English at times during class and can differentiate when the use of English supports language learning and when it does not" (p. 33). Finally, INTASC Principle 9 (Reflective Practice), underscores clinical research on teacher discourse as a vital tool for professional development: "They reflect on various aspects of their teaching, such as target language use during instruction" (p. 43).

In Canada, the maximal position is more implied than stated, and the emphasis seems to be on setting L2 as the default medium of teacher discourse. Canada's National Core French Study (LeBlanc, 1987) offers a national level framework for language teaching that emphasizes proficiency-oriented approaches, including the integration of content-based instruction. According to Diffey (1992), "Material from each syllabus is taught in the target language"

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(p. 214), though definitive statements regarding standards for code-switching are not directly stated. In a bulletin directed toward parents' questions about Core French, Turnbull (2012) advanced the following implications of Core French: "French should be the language of communication in the classroom, with teachers speaking and writing French as often as possible. Students should be encouraged to do the same, but difficulties may need to be accommodated in English." A closer analysis of Core French (LeBlanc, 1987) reveals that such recommendations may not be warranted. LeBlanc draws the distinction between "doing things with the language" vs. simply "learning it" (p. 3), emphasizing message over medium-oriented classroom communication in L2; real communication (a message-orientation) takes precedence over the manipulation of particular formal features (a medium-orientation). Core French also stresses "a sound knowledge of the nature of authentic communication and its possibilities in the classroom" (p. 15).

The most convincing case for an emphasis on maximal teaching in L2 perspective finds its foundation in the Communicative/Experiential Syllabus (LeBlanc, 1987). In addition to opportunities for direct contact with native speakers, this section of Core French stresses that the classroom environment should maximize opportunities for interaction in L2 vis-à-vis "Class management and routine exchanges in the second language" and "Communications within the second language class (instruction, other interaction) in the second language at all times/at selected periods" (p. 34). In the absence of a coherent set of standards for language teaching, each province is left to its own devices, a context that Diffey (1992) found untenable: "provincial autonomy has led to duplication and fragmentation, undermining to some extent the advantages of a well-defined and well-funded national purpose" (p. 213).

From language use stances ranging from 'weaning off L1' to 'maximal' and '(near-) exclusive,' there appears to be extensive support of teaching in the target language in the frameworks advanced by various countries in North America and Europe for foreign language teaching, although the French framework proposes an adjustment period. A closer look at the extent to which the target language is sustained in foreign language classes in these countries offers a more complete picture of what is happening. The central question to bear in mind in this phase of our exploration is, to what extent do actual practices mirror current standards for classroom code-switching? It is also important, as you will see, to consider the influence of social context on classroom code-switching. The next section reviews the present conditions of foreign language teaching and learning in light of research on students' and teachers' perspectives on teacher L2 use. In both cases, I will try to keep present the interaction of sociocultural context,

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level, second vs. foreign language and language minority vs. majority settings, as well as other factors that influence the way we weigh the L1/L2 debate.

How Much L2? When? How? A Review of Research on Teacher Talk in FL Classrooms

Survey research on L1 vs. L2 has investigated what instructors believe and do with regard to delivering instruction through the L2. With regard to the L2 teacher's tendency to fall back on L1, it is important to recognize that this inclination is clearly situated in specific socio-historical contexts (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002), and any teacher looking for guidance in choosing between two language should carefully weigh the perspectives represented in the literature in light of such social contextual considerations. There are, for example, inherent differences between FL contexts (learning the L2 as a foreign language associated with a non-dominant country) and SL contexts (learning a second language of the dominant country into which one is trying to acculturate and/or gain citizenship), with regard to perceptions of power and authority (Atkinson, 1993; Fathman, 1978; Maple, 1987) between language dominant and language minority groups. Diminishing the native language in a classroom of socially and economically disadvantaged immigrants in an inner city Anglo and American ESL classroom clearly has different connotations when compared with the same conditions applied to a foreign language classroom in an upper class, white suburb. To suggest that staying in Spanish in a classroom in a white middle class suburb connotes 'linguistic imperialism' is hardly defensible.

A variety of studies, ranging from the K-college level, have measured the extent to which foreign language teachers teach through the medium of the target language. At the university level, measures of the ratio of L1 to L2 vary considerably both within and between studies. Duff and Polio (1990), for example, reported 10 to 100% L2 integration among instructors. Levine (2003) reported that 60% of the instructors used the L2 80 to 100% of the time. Surprisingly, higher L2 integration in Levine's study was associated with lower levels of student anxiety. Warford (2007) found that full-time faculty taught more in L2 (mainly to exclusively) compared to adjuncts and area K-12 teachers. Urban teachers used significantly less L2 in the classroom. In a study of post-secondary level French in Australia (Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002), average teacher L2 integration was rated at 92.1%.

With regard to L2 integration in U.S. K-12 classrooms, there is very little research on the extent to which Foreign Language at the Elementary School (FLES) teachers teach in the target language. Though exclusive use of L2 is a long-standing value in FLES teaching (Curtain, 1991), Connor's (1995) study of Illinois FL teachers showed elementary teachers using the L2

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extensively but not exclusively. However, their counterparts at the secondary level only reserved around half of classroom discourse to L2, with a sharp increase at the third year of study. The pressure to cover grammar was cited by high school teachers as an impediment to teaching in the target language. Wing's (1980) K-12 survey determined that teachers used L2 about 50% of the time, but only half of that L2 was characterized as really communicative. Rhodes and Branaman's (1999) national survey of foreign language education in the United States (N=3184, 55% return) noted a slight increase in L2 integration at the secondary level compared to results of a 1987 questionnaire, with an increase from 18 to 22% of the respondents indicating that they taught in L2 most of the time (75 to 100%). The number of respondents who indicated teaching in the L2 50 to 74% of the time decreased, however, from 54 to 47%. Furthermore, the number of teachers who indicated teaching in L2 less than 50% of the time increased from 28 to 32%. In the 1997 study, only 1% of the respondents indicated teaching the entire time in L2. Allen's (2002) survey of K-12 teachers in several Midwestern states (N=699) found a similar proportion of teacher L2 use. Membership in ACTFL or other FL professional organizations and familiarity with the national standards (National Standards for Foreign Language Learning Project, 2007) predicted greater L2 integration. Overall, it would appear that K-12 FL teachers in the United States teach in the target language only about 50% of the time, though these figures may apply more definitively in secondary levels than in elementary level contexts. Considering the tendency for respondents to exaggerate their L2 use (Edstrom, 2006; Kalivoda, 1983; Levine, 2003; Mollica, 1985; Polio & Duff, 1994), the percentage of actual classroom use of L2 may be lower.

In Canada, there are fewer studies to consider, but the overall picture of teachers' use of L2 appears to be similar in frequency to that in the United States. Shapson, Kaufman and Durward (1978) reported that only 26% of elementary FL teachers in a Canadian school district were following the prescribed 75% minimum L2 usage. Calman and Daniel (1998, cited in Turnbull, 2001) reported that nearly half of grade five teachers (42%) used the L2 less than half of the time. At the secondary level, Calman and Daniel's report on a study in a central Canadian urban district that revealed that a meager 17% of grade 8 teachers integrated L2, well beneath the 95% target set by policymakers. Turnbull (1999) noted a variation between 24 to 72% L2 integration among four ninth-grade French core teachers in Canada.

It is interesting that both the United States and Canada have been somewhat vague in their approach to the promotion of staying in L2 in teaching. Canada continues to leave code-switching policy-making to each province. Though the United States has developed frameworks for pre-service (NCATE) and beginning (INTASC) teachers that emphasize maximal teacher use

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of L2, only one of the guidelines, ACTFL-NCATE, actually requires institutions that prepare teachers to demonstrate that their teaching candidates have the knowledge, skills and dispositions to teach in L2. Though many teacher education programs are NCATE-accredited, very few programs, at this writing, have achieved full national recognition status. What happens when more stringent guidelines are set for teaching in L2? Macaro's (2001) study of L1 vs. L2 among his secondary level student teachers suggests a wide gap between British and North American perspectives on teacher education and code-switching, further underscoring the need to qualify claims about teacher use of L1 vs. L2 according to specific cultural contexts.

In sorting out the arguments on the topic of FL teacher code-switching, there are a number of claims about who is using the target language in the classroom and to what extent. A common assumption, for example, is that higher teacher L2 proficiency somehow translates directly into maximal L2 use. There is little evidence to support this. Studies of foreign language teachers in Canada (Turnbull, 1999), the United Kingdome (Mitchell, 1988) and Italy (Macaro, 1995) have demonstrated that lack of self-confidence in L2 ability contributes to avoidance of teaching in L2. Whether or not their actual abilities hold them back is unclear; in the case of Turnbull's (1999) study of Core French teachers in Canada, teachers were more capable in French than they thought themselves to be. Even native speakers, contrary to what one would expect, do not necessarily teach in L2 to a considerable degree (Kim & Elder, 2005; Polio & Duff, 1994). It is also widely assumed that experience leads to more target language teaching. We just noted the high levels of L2 use among UK pre-service teachers (Macaro, 2001). This stands in sharp contrast to resistance to teaching in L2 that Mitchell (1988) encountered among in-service British teachers, though this finding preceded the introduction of more stringent national standards for teacher L2 use. Macaro (1997) found that the level of experience of secondary level Welsh high school teachers was not associated with use of English vs. the target language. Likewise, Rose's (2003) study of FL teachers in a Virginia school district actually showed less experienced L2 teachers reporting more L2 use than more experienced teachers. One folk theory is that teachers should use more L1 at the beginning stages of instruction. In fact, as Knop (2012) states, "The vocabulary and grammar in the first year are very concrete and can easily be acted out or visualized" (p. 3). Rose's (2003) study showed a U-shaped curve, with mostly L2 at the beginning, followed by some intrusion of L1 in the middle and returning to maximal L2 use at the higher levels of instruction. Macaro's (1997) teachers did not believe that L2 integration should be gradually increased as pupil competence increases and expressed confidence in their ability to modify L2 input to make it comprehensible. Teachers believed that

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articulation across age and levels was an important factor in ensuring continuity of L2 integration.

Looking beyond overall proportions of L1 to L2 use in the classroom, researchers have also focused on the extent to which teachers integrate the L2 according to various categories of teacher talk in order to obtain a relative picture of how teachers negotiate between L1 and L2 across a variety of classroom discourse categories. Consult Figure 2 for a global summary of the research on what teachers believe and do in negotiating between L1 and L2 across the various discourse categories. Though the figure grossly lumps studies regardless of design and sample size considerations, it clarifies that there is considerable variation in teacher usage of L1 and L2 in a majority of the categories, particularly with regard to common classroom procedures and instructions, offering feedback on progress, as well as the teaching of grammar and culture. In the case of grammar instruction, L1 was felt to benefit the teaching of more difficult concepts (i.e., Schweers, 1999). What is striking is that only one category emerged as being conducted mainly in L2: mechanical exercises or drills (Levine, 2003; Macaro, 1997). If the only area of teacher discourse in which practitioners maximize L2 resides in drills, drills being increasingly under fire as incongruent with SLA research (Wong & van Patten, 2003), a sobering trend emerges, one suggesting that use of L2 is failing to make its way into real communication in the FL classroom. Such trends bode ill for the capacity of classroom discourse to furnish the kinds of opportunities for input and interaction that SLA requires.

Given the reliance on self-reporting that pervades most classroom code-switching studies, we should interpret these results with caution; there is a well-established tendency for teachers to exaggerate the extent to which they teach in L2. Considering the likelihood of a halo effect, the percentages of L2 use reported fall well-short of the maximum extent to (near-) exclusive L2 prescription commonly found in the standards literature, lending support to a portrait of teacher L1 usage as resilient in the face of policies and conventional wisdom (Atkinson, 1993; Chambers, 1991; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002).

Commentary on Code-Switching in the FL Classroom: Weighing the Claims

Given the variety of perspectives reflected in the literature and actual classroom practices, it is not surprising that we should encounter a range of arguments both for and against the use of L1 in the L2 classroom. Those in favor of (nearly-) exclusive use of L2 in the classroom cite a variety of reasons for their position. Kalivoda (1983) argued that the public understands that learning in L2 leads to more proficient use, though my own recent experiences in school districts

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around the country strongly suggest otherwise. Others argue that authentic, interactive use of L2 is vital to the development of interactional competence (Osborne, 1999). There is also the often-cited 'dependency on L1' or tuning out syndrome (Danhua, 1995; Kalivoda, 1990; Schmidt, 1995; Wong-Fillmore, 1985) associated with too-liberal integration of L1. Also, in sharp contrast to the issues of language dominance and student agency that emerge in SL learning contexts, some argue that in FL contexts, where a non-dominant language is being taught to speakers of a dominant language, the extensive use of L1 diminishes the currency of L2 (McShane, 1997).

As I pointed out earlier, there are a number of studies across countries and levels that show that students understand the importance of teaching in L2 and are receptive to the notion (Levine, 2003; Macaro, 1997; MacDonald, 1993; Moskowitz, 1976). In addition, such studies suggest that students are less anxious and more capable than we think in terms of learning through the L2 (Levine, 2003; Polio and Duff, 1990). Osborne (1999) raised the issue of lingering neglect of listening comprehension in FL classrooms, a problem that L2 use in teaching can conceivably address. Also, learning-disabled students are better at attending to meaning-centered classroom communication than focus on form in L1 (Ganschow, Sparks, & Jaworsky, 1998). Others have argued that the current problem is not too much L2; it is the opposite (Allen, 2002; Polio & Duff, 1990; Turnbull, 2001; Warford, 2007).

There are those who criticize the stance that L1 should be removed from the FL classroom. Certainly, the proficiency movement of the 1980s cannot speak to the current climate of public ambivalence about L2 proficiency, a trend that might partially account for the fact that teachers apparently continue to use a lot of L1 in the classroom. The stance that learners should be dissuaded from using L1 is difficult, if not impossible to defend given recent attention in SCT research warranting its utility as an essential tool for L2 development, as noted earlier. However, Centeno-Cortés' (2004) study of private verbal thinking contradicts mainstream thinking in SCT research, suggesting that L2 at more advanced levels of study may actually leak into students' metalinguistic thinking, a finding later confirmed by Broner and Barnes-Karol (2010). In SL settings, where there is the uneasy juxtaposition of an instructed dominant language and learners whose L1 is non-dominant, allowing learners to use L1 reduces students' sense of insecurity and powerlessness (Cook, 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 2002). L1 may serve as a tool teachers can use to express empathy and build rapport with students (Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002; Castellotti, 1997; Polio & Duff, 1994; Schweers, 1999), though there is no evidence that the same goal cannot be achieved through teacher use of the L2. Finally, it cannot be assumed that L2 exclusivity translates directly into students' language development (Chavez, 2003; Guthrie,

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1984). Rather than focusing myopically on ratios of L1 to L2, the profession might find it more useful to consider the quality (not just the quantity) of teacher L2 for student learning.

Conclusion

Contrary to widely held professional values and standards, extensive integration of the L2 as the medium of instruction does not appear to be happening in FL classrooms. Based on the research currently available, teacher integration of L2 outside of the UK appears less than impressive. The predominance of L1 for most categories of classroom discourse, a trend that appears to transcend national borders and levels, has relegated L2 mainly to mechanical drills as the only area of teacher discourse in which teachers do not tend to favor the L1. In distilling what we know about teachers and learners in North American classrooms, we are presented with a view of learners who are by and large at least ambivalent if not amenable to L2-medium instruction, yet rarely able to find willing partners in their teachers. Though it is clearly appropriate to leave a measure of professional judgment to the individual teacher according to his or her own particular socio-educational context, decades of research and recently introduced teaching standards underscore the importance of maximizing opportunities to develop interactional competence through sustained, real communication in L2. Some call for training in ways of teaching foreign languages through the second language (Atkinson, 1993; Lacorte, 2005; Pearson, Fonseca-Greber & Foell, 2006), though my own review of FL methods course syllabi on the FLTeach website indicates very little direct treatment of the knowledge and skills that lead to successful target language use in teaching.

This review suggests the need to direct attention to the major areas of instruction where L2 is underutilized: empathy and rapport building and classroom procedures, as well as grammar and culture teaching. In the meantime, it is clear that haphazard and meager target language integration will continue unless we systematically look at classroom discourse, from the general features of L2 teacher talk and how to make it comprehensible to students, to the tools and techniques that will promote more and better target language teaching in discourse areas where it appears to be most challenged: rapport-building, management, grammar and culture teaching. Finally, we also need to learn how to systematically reflect on our own classroom code-switching in order to find out where our core beliefs and socio-educational realities might sanction intentional changes in our teaching practices that move teacher talk in the direction of L2. In my experiences training teachers to integrate more of the target language in their teaching, there has not been a single category of classroom discourse in which that they have not found

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some morsel of opportunity to move from L1 to L2. Clearly the opportunities for encouraging more teacher use of L2 are vast and diverse; however, they will main largely untapped until teacher educators, administrators and policy shapers take up the cause.

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Chapter Six

Burnout and the Beginning Teacher

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Exploratory Practice (EP) has been developed in the general context of teacher and learner development, mostly in schools in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. It started in the early 1990s in reaction to the perception of imminent teacher burnout, and followed the observation that some teachers in Rio were asking their learners to help them understand things that puzzled them in their classes, things that, if left unaddressed, might lead to burnout. This process seemed to be important in helping them find renewed interest in their work, and so it became a cornerstone of EP. Burnout has since become an even more significant problem around the world, so it is timely to consider: a) if pre-professional teacher preparation (or initial teacher training for some) might itself be contributing to burnout, and b) if EP might help put teachers in a stronger position to resist the pressures that lead to burnout. We will first examine burnout itself in the field of language teaching, looking at its potential origins in the technicist expectations people have about teaching in general, and about language teaching in particular. After discussing how these expectations have become extremely powerful in teachers' careers, we shall consider their potential origins in what happens during pre-professional preparation. After looking at EP as a less technical and more human perspective on what it means to be a language teacher, we will finally consider, from experience in Rio de Janeiro, what the challenges and potential benefits are of bringing EP into pre-professional language teacher preparation.

Introduction

Burnout "is often expressed as a feeling that the job is no longer bringing the satisfaction it once did, and that it is no longer even interesting—just profoundly tedious, and desperately hard" (Allwright, 2008, p.129). More specifically, "teachers complaining of burnout report being psychologically as well as physically exhausted" (p.129). Sadly, burnout is now such a significant phenomenon that it deserves more attention than our usual preoccupation—teaching quality. This is because it is not only a widespread and serious social and psychological phenomenon among teachers, it is also, and crucially, a threat to the very teaching quality we would wish to protect and promote.

Breen (2006) uses Lyotard's notion of 'performativity' (Lyotard, 1984) to suggest that government, and lower management, pedagogic policies lead to burnout because they focus on measured performance, and that these policies are based on two unproven assumptions:

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> that whatever teachers achieved before is inadequate and that systems of bureaucratic surveillance of teachers' work will improve their students' performance. (Breen, 2006, pp. 206–207)

Breen also notes that:

> The more overt results have been the 're-skilling' of highly experienced senior teachers into managers of people and resources and an escalating exodus from the profession. (p. 207)

He goes on to detail other results of this focus on performativity:

> More covert effects of the judgment of a teacher's worth, primarily in relation to nationally or internationally determined benchmarks of the outcomes of teaching, include the displacement of the teacher's broader and more interpersonally sensitive educational aims and the day-to-day process of enabling learning to occur within the complexities of a particular situation. (Breen, 2006, p. 207)

So burnout is a work*load* issue, but burned-out teachers also feel that they cannot work to their own educational aims. Instead they must work to narrowly specified and (from their point of view, and ours) educationally impoverished, externally imposed aims that are deliberately standardised rather than 'interpersonally sensitive' (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, pp. 7–10, 19–20). In short, the quality of their lives *as teachers* is under threat, and perhaps seriously compromised.

Burnout and Technicist Expectations

Focusing on measured performance is highly stressful, then, not just because it increases the workload, but also because it compromises teachers' intellectual and pedagogic freedom. It is seen as *anti*-educational, we suggest, because it rests on a technicist view of teaching, rather than the more 'human' one teachers might prefer to prioritise.

Technicism rests on the notion that language teaching is essentially a technical matter, a matter of finding the right *technical* solution, rather than an 'interpersonally sensitive' one, to whatever problems arise. This recalls the very old, but by no means dead, issue of finding the best method for language teaching (Prabhu, 1990). Method is a technicist notion, a means of technical control of teaching, and therefore, at its most extreme, of learning (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, pp. 51–52). This preoccupation with control is powerfully seen in Breen's reference, above, to the 'bureaucratic systems of surveillance' that are expected to improve students' performance.

If technical control is the key to successful learning performance (rather than just a bureaucratic convenience), then teaching quality can legitimately be judged in terms of a

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teacher's mastery of the 'right' technical teaching skills. The means of control also gives a means of evaluation, for those in power at any level, from governments to local managers in private language schools. In management terms it is entirely reasonable for those in power to want to know that the people they employ to teach are competent, and to want to use 'transparent,' 'objective' measures for the purpose. In practice this means evaluating teachers in technical terms. And so a teacher's career progress depends on 'performing' in accordance with this technical view of teaching, at the expense of any more 'interpersonally sensitive' one. This approach can lead to burnout if it makes experienced and mature teachers feel that their 'sense of plausibility' (Prabhu, 1987) about what it means to be a good teacher is threatened.

Ironically, however, the seeds of burnout may be planted right at the beginning of a teaching career, during pre-professional preparation. Experience suggests that some features of burnout can already be found in trainees, especially during the teaching practice element of training courses, when they are acquiring the 'basic technical skills' of teaching, and so when the seeds of a technicist perspective on language teaching are also most likely to be planted.

Technicism in Language Teacher Preparation

For the technicist message to prevail and color a teacher's subsequent career, it is not necessary for language teacher preparation courses to teach explicitly that language teaching is essentially a technical matter. Indeed it is quite unlikely that any narrowly technicist message will be *explicitly* taught, given the very wide acceptance among language professionals that language teaching is much more complex than that, and must include the human dimension, must be 'interpersonally sensitive' to be educationally complete.

But pre-professional teacher preparation, like all human activities perhaps, carries implicit messages (a 'hidden curriculum') as well as explicit ones. These implicit and explicit messages may differ according to the programs' underlying rationales. Whatever the orientation of any program, however, there will be courses about language, about language teaching, and about language learning. All of these are likely, both explicitly and implicitly, to carry a strong message about just how complex the topic is, about how it could not possibly be merely a technical matter. But it seems much more difficult to carry that message, certainly implicitly, and perhaps even explicitly, through the teaching practice element of pre-professional teacher preparation courses, through the evaluation of teaching practice and the whole process of qualifying people to become teachers.

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This is because, like employers, teacher preparation institutions need a relatively simple and transparently measurable system of accountability. That necessarily works against the complexity message, but it fits perfectly the technicist one. Future teachers do need to develop basic teaching and classroom management skills, and these are what can be observed and evaluated in a relatively transparent and 'objective' way. Their mastery by trainees will therefore largely determine future access to a teaching career. It is not surprising, then, if these technical aspects come to dominate trainees' thinking and to define for them what teaching is really all about.

This is all the more likely because teaching practice puts trainees in a most vulnerable situation psychologically. For Clifton (as cited in Fullan, 1991, p. 294): "practice teaching is very much a question of 'survival in a marginal situation.'" Trying to develop their identity as 'teachers,' learner-teachers have to face groups of learners who may or may not be inclined to help, and who apparently have the capacity to destroy them psychologically, just if they feel like it. It is hardly surprising if learner-teachers themselves look for the relatively objectively manageable notion of technical control as the key to their psychological survival, as well as to their eventual qualification as teachers (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, pp. 65-7).

So, even if teacher preparation professionals do want to convey the message that language teaching is a complex but essentially human endeavor, it would be understandable if trainees left with the notion that it is actually a technical matter after all. They might then more readily accept that particular perspective from management during the early part of their careers. Unfortunately, such professionally debilitating messages persist well beyond the teaching practice stage. Teacher supervision and consultancy practices (Miller, 2001; 2003; Miller et al., 2009a) in language institutions also tend to follow technicist orientations, potentially raising the workload and cognitive pressures so high that teachers realize they are not able to be the sorts of teachers they really want to be.

We propose, therefore, that the field of language teacher preparation needs a more human framework of principles and practices. The rest of this paper provides a description of Exploratory Practice as just such a framework, and shows how it has been developed in pre-professional language teacher preparation.

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Exploratory Practice as a Human Alternative to Technicism

The Origins and Development of Exploratory Practice

We present the ideas of Exploratory Practice (EP) as a macro teacher development process (Allwright, 2001). To contextualise our latter presentation of EP work in pre-professional teacher preparation, here are two illustrations of situated pedagogic practice as a 'human' alternative to pedagogic technicism: a) Allwright's 'discovery' in 1991 at the Cultura Inglesa Rio (Allwright & Lenzuen, 1997) of teachers doing already what he had sketched out in embryonic form as 'exploratory teaching' in his 1991 book with Kathi Bailey, and b) the later development of 'Exploratory Practice' in the context of public and private sector schools and language institutes in Rio de Janeiro state (Miller & Bannell, 1998; Miller et al, 2008; Miller, Cunha & Members of the Rio de Janeiro EP Group, 2009b; Miller, 2010).

The teachers in the first context, who were attempting to understand what puzzled them in their classes by using familiar pedagogic activities, appeared to be privately trying to cope with a feeling of burnout caused by the perceived pressures for technicist innovation in their institution. These highly experienced teachers were devising their pedagogic investigative procedures to understand what was going on in their classrooms. Sadly, however, in discussion they revealed that they did not see their work as valid research. In retrospect, we could say that they were victims of the technical formalities expected within the teacher-as-researcher movement—more specifically, action research (Nunan, 1993)—and of the technicist philosophy that surrounded them in their workplaces.

Moving to the second context, several hundred public and private sector teachers have, since 1991, joined EP workshops and teacher development programmes professionally organised by the 'founding' practitioners (currently members of the Rio EP Group and of the EPCentre). In collaboration with the Pontifical Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro (PUC-Rio), the state teacher association (APLIERJ) and municipal and state education departments (SME-Rio and SEE Rio), EP has been developing in independent, non-institutional settings, importantly on the basis of non-compulsory attendance. Rio EP work has therefore grown as an expanding community of practice (Wenger, 1998), free from institutionalised and technical accountability of teachers', learners', or coordinators' understandings, or of teaching, learning or teacher development outcomes. *Understanding* is prioritised and, at the same time, the inherent difficulty of accounting for understandings and of articulating lived understandings (Allwright, 2002) is continuously acknowledged. Rio EP Group members—exploratory teachers, academics, and exploratory learners—are personally attracted to the 'human-ness' of the Exploratory Practice ideas (Cerdera,

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2007, personal communication) and have been naturally protecting the ideas from becoming systematised in technical ways, and thereby 'fossilised.'

The strongest contribution of EP to the desired anti-burnout practitioner movement lies, we believe, in creating opportunities for those involved to become more humanly active and, therefore, stronger agents in their own personal professional lives. If burnout happens not only through direct workload pressures but also as a consequence of excessive accountability to external pressures, leading to a strong effacement of professionals' autonomy and individual identities (Ballone, 2002; Zagury, 2006), then stronger teacher agency is crucial (Allwright, 2008; Archer, 2000). The strengthening of practitioner human agency implies teachers, learners and learner-teachers valuing the tact of teaching (Van Manen, 1991), trusting their intuition (Atkinson & Claxton, 2000), (re)discovering their own sense of plausibility (Prabhu, 1990), (re)gaining the confidence to teach (or learn) according to their own BAK systems (Woods, 1996). In short, teachers can work to understand the human agents they really want to or can be. For learners, it means becoming more explicit agents of their participation in teaching-learning processes, looking for opportunities to be taken seriously by the educational system (Allwright & Hanks, 2009). For learners becoming teachers, it involves trying to discover who they are as human beings and what sorts of teachers they can work on becoming. We recognise that anti-technicist processes in the development of human agency can be slow and painful to implement, but they need to be fundamentally associated with educational macro proposals (like EP) for the new generations (Wells & Claxton, 2002; Rose, 2006). They are, undoubtedly, intertwined with human affect and power relations that are socio-historically constructed in the classroom, the school, and society at large.

The Principles of Exploratory Practice

Like the central ideas of EP discussed above, the principles of EP have emerged collaboratively from practitioners' involvement with the approach, from their situated 'work for understanding' carried out in various contexts. The statements below represent the ideas that currently orient what we think we do within EP as well as what we understand EP to be:

- Put quality of life first.
- Work primarily to *understand life*, in the language-classroom or in other contexts.
- Involve *everybody*.
- Work to bring people together.
- Work also for mutual development.

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- *Integrate* the work for understanding into classroom or other professional practices
- Make the work for understanding and for integration *continuous*

Fostering such principled processes, we propose, can help in-service teachers and their learners to recover from burnout, or future teachers to prevent burnout from entering their, and their future learners', professional lives.

When teachers, and their learners, are given the opportunity to think about what *puzzles* them about what happens in class—not just about the *problems* that they would like to solve—life issues emerge. They naturally *prioritise quality of life* when they ask themselves such questions as: "Why do my students irritate me?" or "Why do my learners like me?" or "Why are our English classes so cool?" So EP's first principle prioritises *quality of life*—something we all have a sense of as human beings, however difficult it is to explain and define (Gieve & Miller, 2006; Wright, 2006). The pedagogic-therapeutic potential of EP discourse (Sette, 2006) becomes clear when practitioners try to understand the complex oppositions between life and work, between quality of life and quality of work, beyond the more obvious quality *vs.* quantity issues. In relation to our issue of burnout, EP offers practitioners a collegial forum for claiming back their right as human beings to value the *human* quality of their life at work more than its *technical* quality.

Our second principle introduces another human element: our need or natural drive to *work for understanding* 'what is going on' (Goffman, 1974) in interaction and make interactional inferences that allow us to act accordingly (Gumperz, 1982). Over the years, EP's focus on understanding, rather than problem solving or creating immediate change, has been a productive approach to burnout. EP creates discursive space for professionals to address the unrealistic dualistic disintegration between life and work, which according to Satish Kumar (2001) may be the origin of human crises. EP teachers and learners who work for understanding have reported a sense of professional relief and relaxation that has helped them cope with institutional pressures. The fact that practitioners involved in EP work make direct connections with their personal lives suggests that EP could also be thought of as *living to understand*.

The notion of work, in its social aspects as well as its strong ethical preoccupations, is also central to EP (Miller, 2010). The human basis of the next three principles: "Involve *everybody* in this work," "work to *bring people together,*" and "work for *mutual development*" has had a recurrently strong impact on EP practitioners. Tensions appear to relax and a betterness in quality of life is felt when exploratory professionals really involve others fully. Enhanced

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awareness of such social and ethical issues within EP has helped bring new energy and strength to worn-out human relations in classrooms.[1]

Our long-term experience gives us confidence to say that the principles that highlight EP *integration* and *continuity* are especially important for keeping alive, from the very early professional stages, the centrality of a) connectedness (Palmer, 1998) in our necessarily social and emotional lives, and of b) participant involvement in the process of understanding lived experience (Van Manen, 1990; Reason, 1988, 1994; van Lier, 1994, 2000). These two will, we suggest, serve practitioners longer and better than technical professional skills.

The above principles represent what EP recognises and values: the complexity of life (both inside and outside the professional setting), the interweaving of life and work, the productive strength of collaborative work for understanding, of involvement and of mutual development. In the next section, we show how the ideas and principles of EP have oriented work in initial language teacher preparation especially in relation to preventing burnout.

Exploratory Practice in Pre-Professional Language Teacher Preparation

Our starting point is to identify the people on preparation courses as *learners* first and foremost. Allwright and Hanks (2009) offer five propositions about learners:

1. Learners are unique individuals who learn and develop best in their own idiosyncratic ways.
2. Learners are social beings who learn and develop best in a mutually supportive environment.
3. Learners are capable of taking learning seriously.
4. Learners are capable of independent decision-making.
5. Learners are capable of developing as practitioners of learning.

We extend these learning principles to ‘learners becoming teachers.’ We thus see learner-teachers as unique individuals who learn/teach and develop best in their own idiosyncratic ways, in a mutually supportive environment, who are also capable of taking learning/teaching seriously, of independent decision-making, and of developing as practitioners of learning/teaching.

We work jointly with learner-teachers to *understand* what happens in our Teaching Practice classrooms and in the language classrooms where they spend a large amount of their time during these courses. As for our in-service work (Lyra, et al., 2003), we orient the Teaching

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[1] For a moving example, see Santiago, 2006.

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Practice course at PUC-Rio, Brazil, towards our own professional whys. This opens up ample discursive space for quality of life issues to emerge more intensely than technical or quality of work issues. To engage future teachers fully in the processes of *involvement*, *union*, *mutual development* as well as *continuity* that characterise EP, we integrate the English and the Portuguese Teaching Practice classes for one of our two weekly sessions.

We co-construct our sessions as opportunities for jointly formulating our *puzzles* regarding our lives as learners in the classrooms, as future teachers, as trainees, as teachers, as teacher educators, etc. We encourage our learner-teachers to raise issues about their school years and their classroom observation experience, and foster the discussion of these lived experiences as powerful reflection opportunities—a personal professional investment into their future. Even at this pre-professional stage, extremely mature puzzles emerge: “Why do I find myself taking things personally in class?”; “Why do teachers only think of grades as possibilities for motivating learners?” and “Why is there so much aggression in classrooms and in schools?” Also valuable to all has been the chance to reconceptualise the micro-lessons taught to peers as ‘work for understanding, rather than merely as opportunities to demonstrate that we have mastered pre-determined micro-skills or techniques. We do this by reflecting on the basic question “What have I/we understood while preparing, teaching, participating, and/or observing this micro-lesson?” In the process, enhanced understandings may be developed about important pedagogic issues. Problematising the notion of teaching points with learner-teachers, for example, makes space for the more productive notion of ‘learning opportunities’ (Allwright, 2005).

By engaging in planning micro or full lessons as opportunities to understand puzzles raised and discussed in the Teaching Practice group, the learner-teachers integrate an investigative attitude into their early pedagogic practice. They begin to plan lessons as series of learning opportunities about teaching, via the use of potentially exploitable pedagogic activities (PEPAs). The PEPA is a fundamental notion within EP that encourages the use of any slightly adapted pedagogic activity to address locally important or intriguing issues. For example, using a text, a video, a class debate, an adapted grammar exercise to discuss classroom life, rather than, say, malaria, or any other coursebook suggested topic with which learners or teachers may not relate. As Allwright and Hanks (2009) discuss in their extensive and illustrative coverage of PEPAs, such activities can provide concrete pedagogic antidotes to burnout. Thus, practitioners stimulate and satisfy their professional curiosity, exercise their courage to try to understand intriguing classroom issues, develop their creativity by adding another dimension to their teaching, and are fortified against burnout in the process.

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Instead of focusing on the ability to plan a technically good lesson, and by problematising instead the conventional notion of planning to control, we introduce the novel concept of ‘planning for understanding’ (Allwright, 1997, 2003). The resultant lesson plans are manifold: they include not only the work to be done for language teaching/learning but also organise the work that will generate helpful information to better understand a question or puzzle. For example, one of our learner-teachers planned a lesson motivated by her puzzle: “Why don’t my students respect their speaking turns?” Working with the meanings of traffic signs in English, the learners also used them to consider the rules of classroom conversation. The pedagogic activities she devised offered opportunities for them all, the teacher included, to reflect on and enhance their understandings of who interrupted and who was interrupted. From their understandings, the class spontaneously discussed and proposed a code system aimed at fostering more interactional respect.

Asking “what did you understand during the Teaching Practice course and why?” generates yet more opportunities for integrating the learning and understanding of human, non-technical personal and professional matters. Exploratory learner-teachers, we find, are highly aware of quality of life issues in their overall university experience—as students in general and as learner-teachers in particular, and as future teachers at the laboratory schools. Their documented reflections are evidence of future teachers who, at the start of their careers, have already raised and reflected upon some of the educational, socio-cultural and ethical complexities involved in the professional life they are starting (Miller, et al., 2009c; Góes Monteiro, et al., 2009). Just like other exploratory teachers and learners (Cunha, 2004), they find in the framework of EP a pedagogical, ethical and therapeutic space in which to share puzzles and understandings. But, of course, we all face countless tensions and challenges.

Introducing EP into the Teaching Practice course highlights tensions between learner-teachers’ previous school education, traditionally built upon compartmentalised knowledge-making, and the sharing, interdisciplinary, co-constructed pedagogic practice we propose. We notice an underlying discomfort when our questioning and reflective posture meets our learner-teachers’ desire for clear and precise instruction from others. We willingly face this dilemma of creating such pre-professional stress, hoping thereby to foster opportunities for enhancing self-knowledge and strengthening self-esteem. As teacher educators, this is our biggest challenge. It is also our most hopeful investment: fortifying future teachers against the pressures of school life that threaten eventual burnout.

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The Way Forward

We look towards a world in which technicist thinking is reversed—a world in which teachers and learners become so engaged in working for understanding that, even in the face of institutionalised pressures, they feel strong enough to put classroom life issues before technical improvement, and so be able to resist the debilitating threat of burnout. We have witnessed this slow and quiet pedagogic subversion in progress. We hope this chapter will encourage others to share, and work for, the same vision.

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Chapter Seven

Inclusivity and Trust: A Case Study of Principles in Practice

Judith Hanks, *University of Leeds, United Kingdom*

In recent years, Exploratory Practice (EP) has emerged as a new force in practitioner research in language teaching. Developed in the early 1990s (Allwright, 1991a, 1991b, 1993; Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Allwright & Lenzuen, 1997), EP promotes the idea of learners as well as teachers investigating their own learning and teaching practices (Allwright, 2003, 2005, 2009; Allwright & Hanks, 2009; Gieve & Miller, 2006). In this paper, I suggest that for such collaboration to work in practice, the concept of inclusivity needs to be better understood at both a theoretical and an empirical level. I therefore raise the following questions: What do we mean by inclusivity? How does inclusivity work in practice? What are the challenges raised by a deliberately inclusive stance? Where does inclusivity in practitioner research lead? By examining my own situation as a teacher, teacher educator, learner, course director, and researcher, I consider these questions with a view to gaining a clearer understanding of the "…conditions that facilitate and obstruct the ability of educators to conduct research on their own practice" (Zeichner & Noffke, 2001, p. 324). I conclude that a major issue for inclusivity in the potentially risky area of practitioner research is one of trust.

Introduction

> Learners are both unique individuals and social beings who are capable of taking learning seriously, of taking independent decisions, and of developing as practitioners of learning. (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, p. 15)

In recent years, Exploratory Practice (EP) has emerged as a new force in practitioner research in language teaching. Developed in the early 1990s (Allwright, 1991a, 1991b, 1993; Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Allwright & Lenzuen, 1997), EP promotes the idea of learners as well as teachers investigating their own learning and teaching practices (Allwright, 2003, 2005, 2009; Allwright & Hanks, 2009; Gieve & Miller, 2006). The aim is to bring learners and teachers together as researchers of their own language learning and teaching practices, whilst concurrently practising the target language.

However, this inclusive approach to collaboration in the language learning classroom has implications for teachers, learners, and teacher educators. As Cochran-Smith & Lytle point out: "… teacher research creates dissonance, often calling attention to the constraints of hierarchical arrangements of schools and universities" (1999, p. 22), and EP is no exception. In encouraging teachers and learners to take part in researching their practices of learning and teaching, EP seeks

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to embrace this dissonance, by addressing the questions raised in, for example, Zeichner & Noffke (2001), about who undertakes the research, and who benefits from the findings (Burton, 1998; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Wright, 2005; Zeichner & Noffke, 2001).

In this paper, I suggest that for such collaboration to work in practice, the concept of inclusivity needs to be better understood at both a theoretical and an empirical level. I therefore raise the following questions: What do we mean by inclusivity? How does inclusivity work in practice? What are the challenges raised by a deliberately inclusive stance? Where does inclusivity in practitioner research lead? By examining my own situation as a teacher, teacher educator, learner, course director, and researcher, I consider these questions with a view to gaining a clearer understanding of the "…conditions that facilitate and obstruct the ability of educators to conduct research on their own practice" (Zeichner & Noffke, 2001, p. 324). I conclude that a major issue for inclusivity in the potentially risky area of practitioner research is one of trust.

The Importance of Curiosity

In inviting learners to participate in research work, EP takes ideas about empowering teachers (Stenhouse, 1975) a step further, to meet some of Freire's (Freire, 1970, 1973; Freire & Shorr, 1987) concerns for learners. Language learners in EP are encouraged not only to investigate questions that have puzzled their teachers, but also to help formulate and investigate issues that they are interested in.

This stance is influenced, too, by the ideas of Freire regarding learner participation and takes the position of "… an education of 'I wonder' instead of merely 'I do'" (Freire, 1973, p. 36). EP adopts a deliberate attitude of 'puzzlement' (as opposed to problem-solving). It is argued that use of the words 'puzzling' or 'puzzlement' offers further opportunities for investigation—above all, practitioners (learners as well as teachers) are encouraged not to take action until greater understanding has been achieved. This represents an explicit attempt to move away from the 'problem-to-solution' approach presented by many forms of teacher research. As Wright points out, "Action research tends to be problem-focused, setting up a professional discourse of problem-solving. This has the danger of limiting the practitioner to the status of 'trouble-shooter'" (Wright, 2005, p. 429). EP attempts to reset the agenda, by prioritising the development of understanding, and explicitly aims to develop "understandings [that] are collective as well as individual" (Allwright, 2005, p. 360). The emphasis, then, is on developing understandings (of, for, and by, the participants) about classroom language learning life; the

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hope is that greater understanding will both advance the boundaries of knowledge and, more importantly, perhaps, enhance the quality of classroom language learning life.

However, what constitutes a ‘puzzle’ (and thence ‘work for understanding’) may not always be clear. In earlier work (Hanks, 1998, 1999), I found that the attitude of the puzzler (i.e., the practitioner-researcher posing the question) is crucial in differentiating between a ‘puzzle’ and a ‘problem.’ The same event may be viewed as either a problem or a puzzle, and the action taken may be problem solving or puzzle investigating, depending on the circumstances. In other words, just starting with why is not enough; the question needs to be relevant to the participants, and the participants need to be engaged in a process of developing (often mutual) understanding(s). Rather than leaping to solve the problem (which may be a very real one), the puzzled attitude advocated in EP needs to be genuinely rooted in curiosity (‘I wonder why…?’) and accompanied by a sincere desire to understand.

To take a common example, a typical question raised by teachers is ‘Why do my learners use a bilingual dictionary all the time?’ This can be framed as a problem (‘the learners insist on translating, despite my best efforts’) for which many solutions can be found (systems of rewards and punishments, for example). Alternatively, it can be framed as a puzzle: ‘I wonder why…?’, in which case the teacher and learners can work together to open up the question and try to understand why bilingual dictionaries are used, when might they be useful, when not, and so on.

In the case study that follows, I attempt to unpack issues such as this, with a view to examining the link between the five propositions about learners outlined in Allwright & Hanks (2009) and the seven principles of Exploratory Practice (Allwright, 2003, 2005).

> **Proposition 1:** Learners are unique individuals who learn and develop best in their own idiosyncratic ways.
>
> **Proposition 2:** Learners are social beings who learn and develop best in a mutually supportive learning environment.
>
> **Proposition 3:** Learners are capable of taking learning seriously.
>
> **Proposition 4:** Learners are capable of independent decision-making.
>
> **Proposition 5:** Learners are capable of developing as practitioners of learning.
>
> (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, p. 7)

It seems to me that these propositions, while hardly new to practitioners, are often left unquestioned in teaching, learning, and research. I believe that Exploratory Practice is underpinned by the propositions, yet the inclusivity advocated in EP, including learners as well

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as teachers in the role of researchers, requires some thought. Inclusivity demands trust, both in the learners (that they will be serious and serious decision-makers), and in the principles of EP (that they will support teachers and learners as they begin to conduct their own research).

Seven Principles for Practitioner Research

The above discussion has alluded to some of the principles of the EP framework, and before going further, it is worth examining them in more detail. Allwright (2003, 2005) offers the following principles for integrated research and pedagogy:

Principles of Exploratory Practice

Principle 1: put 'quality of life' first

Principle 2: work primarily to understand language classroom life

Principle 3: involve everybody

Principle 4: work to bring people together

Principle 5: work also for mutual development

Principle 6: integrate the work for understanding into classroom practice

Principle 7: make the work a continuous enterprise

(Adapted from Allwright, 2003, pp. 128-130)

Although they seem innocuous at first sight, they, in common with Cochran-Smith & Lytle's analysis of teacher research, "… interrupt traditional views about the relationships of knowledge and practice and the roles of teachers [and learners?] in educational change" (1992, p. 22), and hence offer a radical move for practitioner research. As Breen suggests, the principles of EP present a "problematic shift in power relations" (2006, p. 216). If learners are to be included as researchers, alongside teachers (the idea of teachers doing research is in itself a contested idea in many quarters) then assumptions about who has the right to do the research, who sets the agenda, and who will gain from the findings, are put under the spotlight.

What Do We Mean by 'Inclusivity' in Exploratory Practice?

Exploratory Practice is distinctive in that it tries to go beyond, for example, Action Research (Altrichter, Posch, & Somekh, 1993; Atweh, Kemmis, & Weeks, 1998; Burns, 1999, 2005; Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2003; McNiff & Whitehead, 2002; Nunan, 1993; Wallace, 1997) by "… explicitly resisting performativity and a preoccupation with

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effectiveness by replacing these with a focus upon teachers' quality of life" (Breen, 2006, p. 216). In order to focus on quality of life, the principle of working for understanding(s) is foregrounded, because: "… understanding and learning are so intrinsically constitutive of life that they cannot be measured in terms of efficiency" (Gieve & Miller, 2006, p. 19), and "…if there really is a good pedagogic reason for embarking upon change in the classroom, then that reason will only emerge from a prior effort to understand the local situation for which the proposed change has been advocated." (Allwright, 2009, p. 26).

In doing so, EP challenges the current popular drive for action for change to improve the efficiency of teaching and learning. For, as Breen points out, such a drive assumes a 'deficiency' on the part of teaching professionals (not to mention learners) before they even start (Breen, 2006). EP, in contrast, attempts to give space to 'key developing practitioners' (Allwright & Hanks, 2009) and devolves power to enable learners and teachers to take control in their professional lives. In this way, EP attempts to address the questions mentioned earlier of: who sets the research agenda, who carries out, and who reports on the research, and above all, who benefits from the research findings, by setting teachers and learners firmly at the centre of the research process.

> By integrating teachers, learners and pedagogic practice within a collegially developed investigative attitude, Exploratory Practice strengthens the agency potential of classroom insiders as those necessarily pivotal in any search for serious understanding of what goes on in classrooms. (Gieve & Miller, 2006, p. 21)

The drive to involve learners "…not as objects of research but as fellow participants and therefore as co-researchers" (Allwright, 2003, p. 129), shows an attempt to address the issue raised, most notably perhaps in Zeichner & Noffke (2001), of the relevance of the research to the participants. EP promotes a collaborative atmosphere in which participant-researchers are working together to develop mutual understanding(s).

I was intrigued to know how far these principles might be taken in my own context. As a practitioner researcher, engaged in a collaborative enterprise, I wondered how much my co-practitioners would want to develop their (and my, and our) understandings about classroom language learning life. How would such work play out in practice?

Issues for Inclusivity in Practitioner Research

The problems of engaging in practitioner research have been well documented elsewhere (Borg, 2007; Burns, 2005; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Kirkwood & Christie, 2006; McDonough &

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McDonough, 1990; Zeichner, 2003): it is noted that many practitioners lack time and resources (mental, physical, financial) to engage in research. Many teachers have cited the lack of relevance to them of either the research agenda, the findings of research, or both, in many practitioner research projects (Borg, 2009; Burton, 1998; McDonough & McDonough, 1990). Finally, the objection is raised (by academic researchers anxious to hold on to their positions, perhaps?) that the participant-researchers (i.e., teachers) lack the requisite expertise to do research well.[1] To sum up, practitioner researchers suffer from the following:

- lack of time
- lack of resources
- lack of relevance of the research agenda to participants
- lack of relevance of the research findings to participants
- lack of expertise of participant-researchers

In response, EP attempts, through the framework of principles outlined above, to address these issues. It is argued that if the research agenda has been set by the participants (i.e., learners and teachers), then the research will, by definition, be relevant to their needs, and the findings will likewise be locally relevant to those involved (Allwright, 2009; Chu, 2007; Johnson, 2002; Kuschnir & Machado, 2003; Lyra, Fish Braga, & Braga, 2003; Perpignan, 2003; Wu, 2006). In addition, by integrating the work for understanding (i.e., the research) into the work of the classroom (i.e., the learning and teaching), the time would (hopefully) be seen as well spent, offering opportunities to investigate issues, while also practising the language. Finally, by advocating the use of "normal pedagogic practices as investigative tools" (Allwright, 2003: 127), rather than complex research instruments, EP attempts to counter the idea that teachers and learners are not researchers and cannot be expected to devote time to become expert academic researchers.

Issues Raised by Exploratory Practice

The principled stance outlined above bears some investigation, however. EP began by defining itself as 'other'—different from Action Research, for example, in that it explicitly resists arguing for change, whether social or political. Yet the interventions of the practitioner researchers in EP inevitably involve change (of practices, for example) and an underlying philosophical approach. This could be problematic. If, as EP advocates, the learners and the

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[1] As reported in, for example, Borg, 2009.

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teachers set the research agendas, what happens if they cannot agree amongst themselves on a systematic set of theoretical constructs (even if they decide not to express it in these words), or if they do not agree on a systematic methodological approach? What happens if the learners or teachers do not share the views described here? What if they just want to come in, do the job (of teaching or learning) and go home again? What if they do not want to be researchers into their own practices?

In my own situation, learners have clear instrumental goals (attaining a high enough level of English to be allowed to start their university degree programmes in the UK), and might not wish to spend time investigating their language learning processes. They might view EP (or any practitioner research) as an unnecessary distraction, and thus not a viable method of teaching, learning, or research. Questions such as these motivated the case study described below.

Case Study: How Does Inclusivity Work in Practice?

Case study approaches to research have a long and reputable history. They provide a means of collecting and interpreting rich data which is rooted in the social world, and which offers a way of developing our understandings of complex social phenomena (Duff, 2008; Stake, 2003). They emphasise the unique and particular (Stake, 1995), they are significant and complete, considering alternative perspectives (Yin, 2003) and they facilitate conceptual and/or theoretical development (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2001). Using a case study offers a study of the mundane, everyday world, while also picking out the particular, individual and uncommon aspects that 'speak' to those outside the immediate social context. With these points in mind, I conducted a case study during the summer of 2007, which I hoped would offer the chance to explore the EP framework in more depth.

The Course: A 10-Week Pre-Sessional (PS10)

The pre-sessional course I describe here runs once a year for 10 weeks (hence the short name used here: PS10), from the beginning of July to the middle of September and focuses on English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The overall aim is to prepare international students for their academic studies at a British university, and to bring their level of English up to a standard considered appropriate. Consequently, PS10 is specifically designed to raise awareness of academic conventions and expectations in a British university, and to provide structure and guidance to help the students raise their level of English in order to perform successfully in their future academic careers.

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The students come from a range of countries around the world, but mainly from the Far East (China, Japan, Korea, Taiwan, Thailand), North Africa, and the Middle East (Libya, Oman, Saudi Arabia). There is a mix of different disciplines and destinations (e.g., Disability Studies, Education, Engineering, Law) and although the majority are destined for post-graduate study, there are also a few students at undergraduate level. Levels of English vary, but as the minimum entry requirement for the course is a score of 5.0 on IELTS (or equivalent), the majority of the students join the course with approximately similar language levels and needs.

This is an intense and intensive period of study, with all those involved working hard to meet the challenges set. Work on PS10 needs to be directly relevant to the students' needs, and is clearly very goal-oriented. Students (and teachers) are highly sensitive to any suggestion that the work they are doing might not be relevant to their studies—and they are quick to complain if their high standards are not met. Very often, the students struggle with both general communication skills in English and with the academic conventions they need to master in order to perform effectively in their chosen academic careers. I wondered: would a process-oriented movement such as EP be sustainable in such a product-centred environment?

The Participants

There were three types of participant in this case study from 2007: one of the teachers on PS10, myself (the course director), and a class of 16 international students.[2] My focus in this paper is very much on the EP work that the *learners* did, as I believe this inclusion of learners as co-researchers is what makes EP distinctive.

The Teacher: Jane

Jane (this is how she has asked to be identified) had worked for many years as a language teacher. Six months before PS10 began, she became interested in Exploratory Practice. Over the following months, she read a number of articles on the subject, discussed her thoughts with others, and tried out EP for herself on a small scale. Shortly before PS10 began, she approached me (as her prospective course director) and asked if she might incorporate EP into her teaching that summer. Her puzzle was "why do I always say 'Do you understand?' all the time?" something that she reflected on during the course but did not actively pursue. I was pleased that she was interested, and following advice to be 'opportunistic' (Wolcott, 1994), seized the chance

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[2] One student did not return his consent form. Since I did not know if this was simple forgetfulness, or a silent withdrawal of consent, I decided not to chase him for it, and to avoid reference to him in either the transcripts or other aspects of the data.

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to ask if we might work together, not only to try out EP but also to record our experiences for my studies. To my delight, she agreed, and our work forms the basis of the case study described here.

The Course Director: Judith

I have been the director of PS10 since 2002. As such, my role as a practitioner researcher is a complex one. I am in a position of authority over both teachers and the students, and however much I try to minimise the effects of this, I have to recognise that the simple existence of the role means that I am associated with a power relationship that could affect all the participants in the study. Consequently, I took pains to ensure that ethical considerations such as informed and voluntary consent, freedom to withdraw from the study, confidentiality, and a commitment to beneficence (and avoidance of harm) were kept to the fore (BERA, 2004; Bridges, 2001; Homan, 2001; Pendlebury & Enslin, 2001; Pring, 2001; Small, 2001; Tickle, 2001; Winch, 2001). I cannot claim to have been perfect, but, in keeping with Pring's (2001) concept of the 'virtuous researcher,' I have done my best to be transparent in my research processes while also respecting the needs of the participants. I take my place, also, as a participant in the case study outlined here.

The Learners

The learners in the study came from one class of 16 students on PS10. In common with many of the students on PS10, they had a minimum level of 5.5 on IELTS, though most in this class had scored rather more than this, and came from different countries around the world (mainly the Far East). They shared common linguistic and academic aims, in that they were all destined to join Master's level courses in business or international relations or journalism. In this paper, I draw on interviews given by three participants from this class: "Val," "Oak" and "Jay" (pseudonyms).

What Actually Happened?

The students had 3 regular teachers, one of whom was Jane. Classes run 9:30–11:00, 11:30–13:00 every weekday, with afternoon classes scheduled from 14:00–15:30, Monday–Thursday. Over the four weeks of the study (the first four weeks of PS10) Jane worked with the same group every morning. Among more traditional lessons on grammar, academic vocabulary, communication skills, she included sessions dedicated to EP twice or three times a week. The first week was given over to students identifying their own puzzles, the second two weeks

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offered the chance for students to investigate those puzzles, and the final week led up to a poster presentation session (see below for further discussion).

Throughout this period, and in the week prior to the beginning of the course, I recorded interviews with Jane. I tried as much as possible to record conversations that Jane and I would have had in any case (whether or not I was doing my own research) as we planned the course, and discussed progress. I wanted to record an accurate account of these meetings and discussions without trying to influence the direction of the conversations (Bailey, 1983; Fontana & Frey, 1998; Fontana & Frey, 2003; Furman & Ahola, 1992; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983). I was aware of the possibility that interviewees might "… say what he or she thinks the researcher wants to hear" (Bailey, 1983, p. 70) and cautious of "…the power of questions to seed ideas" (Furman & Ahola, 1992, p. 16). I therefore did not use a pre-set agenda of interview questions, but rather recorded conversations between Jane and myself as we negotiated our way through the preliminary weeks of planning and delivering the course, and recorded conversations with the students as they carried out their EP work.

So, How Did EP Work in Practice?

Following a short oral presentation on Exploratory Practice (given by me for students to practise listening and note-taking, and to convey the content matter), the learners were invited to identify their puzzles. They did this at the end of the first week, by writing down questions that puzzled them about their experiences of language learning. They then took some time over the weekend to consider their questions. In the second week, they shared their puzzles with the rest of the group (through a mingling exercise), and once some similar themes and interests had been identified, they formed small groups. These groups changed slightly over the week as some people decided they preferred to work alone, while others became more interested in a different puzzle (or different people?) and swapped groups. After the second week, however, the groupings remained stable. The final expressions of their puzzles (from their posters) were as follows:

Learner Puzzles:

- Why do I feel anxiety about studying at a British university?
- Why can't I express my feelings exactly in English?
- Why do I never like writing class?
- Why can't I remember the grammar rules while speaking English?
- Why do international students always stick with others of the same nationality?

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Over the next two weeks, they worked on their puzzles (refining, re-phrasing and re-focusing), variously in class, in the library, sometimes writing up their ideas for homework, with Jane's guidance. In the fourth week, they went out and collected any data they considered relevant, for example, interviews with other students or with the teachers on PS10, interviews with future supervisors or other members of staff in the University, questionnaires for members of the public. They collated and analysed the data thus collected. They then prepared posters to present their current understanding(s) of their work. Finally, they invited other teachers and learners on the course to come into their classroom and listen to their poster presentations. In this way, they investigated their puzzles, while concomitantly practising their English language skills, and, in a low-key way, their academic research skills.

Themes From the Case Study: A Question Of Trust

As this is a preliminary analysis only, I merely sketch out the main themes and issues that arose as I read through my transcripts and listened (many times) to the interviews.

Jane's Perspective (As Teacher and Researcher)

I traced a fluidity of movement in the interviews between Jane and myself, as we negotiated roles and developed our identities and relationships as colleagues, co-workers, co-researchers and friends.

At the beginning (before the course itself began) we both had a high level of anxiety (though mine was often more cloaked than Jane's, I suspect). In our pre-course planning meeting, Jane expressed worries about the practical issues of how to incorporate the EP work in her classes:

> "How am I going to keep them engaged? Because, this comes from the thought of… How am I going to…? What, how much class time am I going to do it…? What am I going to do? Am I going to do… a bit of grammar and address something for half an hour every day…?"

These anxieties were entirely separate from her own EP puzzle; I believe she was here negotiating the difficult waters of introducing an innovation in the classroom, and reconciling the learners needs with the ideas of EP. In the same meeting she went on to express her worries about how to make sure it was meaningful to the students; how to engage and sustain their interest:

> "So first of all, erm, how am I going to ensure the students feel that they are progressing? If they, if they've got their puzzle and I do a bit of grammar and then they start their puzzle…"

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Her worries are entirely understandable, for, as Wu (2002) found when investigating curriculum change in his context, departing from traditional methods of teaching, leaving the course book or other pre-prepared materials behind and dealing directly with the students themselves, can leave the teacher feeling directionless and fearful. What will the students say if they cannot see a clear lesson plan with aims, objectives, and outcomes? As Jane put it:

> "How am I going to get them to feel that *that* is actually a lesson?"

I realised as I listened to the recordings of the interviews that both Jane and I had to trust that the EP framework would, in fact, honour the needs of the learners, and, indeed, the needs of the teacher (and course director). We were taking a risk by embarking into the unknown, and we did not know how our students would react.

Since EP makes a virtue of *not* providing a template for 'how to do EP,' these seemed reasonable concerns to me. As course director, co-researcher, friend, all I could do was to attempt to reassure her by referring to what she does in class normally (EP Principle 6, above)—in this case, agreeing goals with the students, negotiating the syllabus:

> "You do that kind of thing anyway, don't you?"

and referring to the EP principle of relevance to the participants:

> "I think the thing is, if it's relevant to them, they're going to want to do it, if it's something they'd want to spend the time on, and in fact if it's not relevant to them, no amount of cajoling is going to make them do it. The key, the trick is, is for them to find something for themselves that they want, that they really want to know"

As the course continued and we worked with the learners, Jane's confidence grew, and her anxiety decreased sharply, to be replaced by a strongly expressed enthusiasm (perhaps tempered with relief). She used vocabulary such as "thrilled," she talked about "some fabulous stuff" that her students have produced. In the speed of her delivery, the pitch and intonation of her voice, Jane 'sounded' excited and happy:

> "I said [*to the students*]: I am really excited about your puzzles and I'd love to research them myself and everyone was going like this [*nodding*]"

Once the poster presentations took place, this enthusiasm reached a peak:

> "You ought to hear the buzz that's going on there!"

Jane's worries appeared to have evaporated as the learners continued with their EP work and she was clearly impressed with their work.

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Some Learner Perspectives (As Learners and Researchers)

My initial intention had been to record only conversations between myself and Jane as she carried out her EP work, but the students offered another set of perspectives which I felt it was important not to ignore: I wished to "preserve the *multiple realities*" (Stake, 1995, p. 12, original emphases) of what was happening. Space does not allow for a full representation of all the students in the class, so I will focus on three participants only, whose concerns relate, I believe, to the seven principles outlined above. Their stories also raised a number of dilemmas for me as course director, teacher, researcher and participant (see below).

Despite the encouragement of the teacher, and of EP principles, two students chose to work alone. The rest of the class worked in small groups of two, three or four. Jane and I did not try to interfere in these arrangements, feeling that it was more important for the students to be working on something that was relevant to them, than for us to force them to work in groups.

Val

One of these students, "Val" (students selected monikers for the study, or if they could not think of a pseudonym, I supplied one) worked alone on her puzzle: "Why do I feel anxiety about studying at a British university?" During her EP investigation she shared some personal details about her past experiences, which she later identified as having contributed to her fears for the future.

When she arrived on the course, Val appeared to be a very shy, withdrawn young woman. In the first (one-to-one) interview, she spoke extremely hesitantly; indeed, the transcript does not fully convey the number of pauses, fillers, and stumbles in her speech. At times I found it very difficult to make out what she was saying. This may have been due to general nervousness, or a reaction to finding herself in an unfamiliar situation with people she did not know well, and perhaps doing things in class that she was not used to. Nevertheless, she clearly had a lot to say, and wanted to express it, staying behind after class to convey her thoughts to me. She explained that she had thought of her puzzle because:

> "As a general… xxx [*undecipherable*] anxiety… xxx now, er, I, er, because I'm studying here in Britain… xxx anxiety. Whether can I do my… can I understand my lecturers in the class … xxx when my course start… because that time, er, professors, just, er, expect us to do a lot of works in essays, research. [*Speaking clearly:*] This is another language. It is not my own language. That's why xxx I'm worried… The other reason for my anxiety is that: can I do my assessment in my essays, my research correctly if I xxx… [*trails off into silence*]"

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At the time, Val was unable to explain clearly what she wanted to do in order to investigate her puzzle, but after two weeks, she was not only developing her understandings of anxiety (and realising that other students shared her fears), but also sounding more confident and fluent. In the final poster presentation session (after only four weeks), Val spoke publicly in front of the whole class, and teachers. She was still a little hesitant, but able to express herself clearly:

> "My puzzle is about 'Why do I feel anxiety about studying at a British university?' This poster is… depend on… my, my background about IELTS exam which I re-sat it twice and be-became the same and so… that time I … missed my self-confident about English language. But at the moment, er, I feel much better"

Despite the fact that this time there was some background noise, it was much easier to decipher what she said: she spoke more fluently, more loudly, and even with humor. There was much supportive laughter during the whole poster session, and in Val's presentation she even seemed at times to be orchestrating the laughter:

> "ummm… my feelings… they didn't feel like me. For me was very strong… my anxiety was very strong. [*pauses and smiles, followed by group laughter*] Not now. But totally they [*her interviewees*] mention the causes of anxiety for them is changing environment and, er, teaching method, er, because it is different to their national xxx culture and difficult to understand, for example: accent problems, and, er, about vocabulary, and something else make them anxiety. But I think that in that research, is my reference about research [*pointing to her poster*] some researchers believe that anxiety at the beginning of the semester is high, but during the term and the second semester it is reduced."

It seemed to me that Val had developed in three main areas as a result of attending the course and engaging with EP. First, her language skills had clearly improved (though this might have happened without EP, of course). There was a marked increase in her fluency, her range of vocabulary and structures, and she spoke more clearly. Second, as she said herself, her confidence improved enormously over the four-week period (this in itself may have enabled her to access language and skills which she already had, but which anxiety was preventing her from utilizing). Third, she was beginning to engage with the research process itself during her EP experience: she mentioned that she visited the library and read up on her subject (anxiety); she interviewed other students (collecting data, albeit on a very small scale); and she gave a well-structured and coherent poster presentation. During her presentation, her ability to critically evaluate the causes of her anxiety, relating them to literature on student anxiety as a whole, and convey her understandings in an accessible way, illustrated Cochran-Smith & Lytle's definition of research as "…systematic, intentional and self-critical inquiry about one's work" (1999, p. 22).

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In addition, the process of investigating her puzzle seems to have significantly improved her 'quality of life.' As she saw that others suffered from similar anxieties (though perhaps not as severely), she realised that she was not alone. (EP principles of collegiality and mutual development, perhaps?) In finding out what measures she could take to address her concerns (e.g., setting up consultations with her supervisor in advance of her Master's program) she was able to reduce her anxiety to a more manageable level, and get on with her studies.

Oak

In contrast to Val, "Oak" worked in a group with three other learners, all of whom were confident orally. They investigated something that puzzled many of the students in the class: "Why can't I express my feelings exactly in English?" In explaining the impetus for this puzzle, their frustration with the limitations of the language became clear. Oak reported:

> "because sometimes I would like to say a joke… a joke of Thailand, but somebody from UK or Hong Kong, maybe they didn't understand"

and went on to explain that:

> "Um… like yesterday I played football with Jerry and it very fun. So when you ask me 'What do… what did I do yesterday?' I just told you that I play football and, like, it not feel… [*trails off into silence*]"

In conducting their EP investigations, the group discovered not only that they were not alone, but also that there might be ways for them to break through this barrier. They hypothesised the possible reasons that prevented them from expressing themselves more fully, listing a lack of vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation, shyness, and cultural background, as crucial. Again, their presentation was humorously delivered with much laughter, and contained serious points that showed a capacity for analysis and thoughtful reflection. In the work that they did, it seemed to me that they illustrated the propositions listed at the beginning of this paper: that learners are unique individuals and yet also social beings, and who can be trusted to take their learning seriously as they develop as practitioners of learning.

Jay

A third student, "Jay" presented a challenge for me and for Jane, as her puzzle "Why do I never like writing class?" was potentially explosive. In our view, there was a risk that she would offend her writing class tutor when she interviewed him (she did, though they repaired this themselves). There was also a risk that what we perceived as an attitude of negativity might infect the whole class against one of the core components of the course (though this did not happen).

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Nevertheless, we felt we should stick to our EP principles, and did not dissuade her from investigating an issue that clearly was relevant to her.

As we waited for her to begin her poster presentation, I felt a degree of anxiety: this could be a complaint against the course, or against individuals. The room was noticeably quieter as she spoke, and I thought I detected an element of tension in the students as well as the teachers. However, as she began her presentation, I was very pleasantly surprised. Her poster was well thought out, with critical comments balanced with self-awareness and well-researched ideas. She identified a number of negative feelings that she (and other students she interviewed) experienced: that writing classes can be "boring," "stressful," and "frustrating," and that students often felt "tired" in the sessions. But rather than blaming the teacher, or the materials, or some other external factor, she focused on a deeper understanding, writing in large letters on the poster:

> "All these feelings are because of we have difficulty even in our 1st language but we need to be able to write academic writing. The problem is in writing not English" [original emphases]

She concluded:

> "I have read books and talked to students and teachers and I feel it has helped me to encourage myself to like and learn more about writing."

As I read her poster and listened to her speak, I acknowledged that in placing my trust in her; by trusting that she was both serious and capable of independent decisions, I had learned something myself: Jay needed to work these issues out for herself, and I needed to respect her as an individual, who learned in idiosyncratic ways, and who was capable of developing as a practitioner of learning.

My Perspective (As Course Director, Teacher, Participant, Researcher)

From my perspective, there were a number of ethical dilemmas that demanded attention. I needed to make sure that the primary directive of the course (to prepare the students for post-graduate level study in a British university) was met. I also needed to make sure that the students' individual needs were catered for. In addition, I knew that if the EP work was not perceived as relevant to the students' needs, I, as the course director, would have been responsible for diverting the students from their main objective. This could have caused problems for all concerned. As a result, in our preparation meetings, Jane and I thought carefully about what action to take should problems arise. We made a decision to intersperse the EP work with 'standard' EAP lessons that focused on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. In this

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way, we hoped to ensure that the students would not miss out on the more traditional aspects of the course.

Nevertheless, I trusted that the EP principles of relevance to the participants, of prioritising understanding(s) and collegial working would ensure that the students would be investigating something of immediate relevance to each of them (as opposed to, say, a teacher-selected topic such as the problems caused by malaria). In addition, I trusted that Jane, as an experienced teacher, would be able to advise the students appropriately during the EP sessions. In the event, the students out-stripped our expectations, by producing thoughtful and mature work, while maintaining a sense of balance, energy and humour. I believe that they also found their EP work engaging and rewarding (they certainly put a lot of effort into the data collection and analysis, and the poster presentations). It is worth noting that Jane became so convinced of the value of EP that, at her behest, it was incorporated into subsequent summer pre-sessional courses in 2010, 2011 and 2012.

Concluding Remarks: The Importance of Trust

In trusting the learners to be "unique individuals who learn and develop best in their own idiosyncratic ways" (Allwright & Hanks, 2009, p. 7), and allowing for learners to be "social beings who learn and develop best in a mutually supportive environment" (ibid.) I found that they were more than "capable of taking learning seriously" (ibid.) of "independent decision-making" (ibid.) and of "developing as practitioners of learning" (ibid.). I feel I should not be surprised by this discovery, yet it took a degree of courage for me (and probably for the other participants, learners and teacher) to open up research to practitioners; to become truly inclusive in this way.

Incorporating practitioner research into such a highly pressured, goal-oriented environment carried with it an element of risk. As I mentioned above, the challenges and ethical dilemmas of a deliberately inclusive stance are considerable. In addition, if learners and teachers are to be accepted as co-researchers, indeed, if they are to become *the* researchers (the agenda setters, the investigators, the reporters) involved in practitioner research, then Breen's "problematic shift in power relations" (2006, p. 216) is thrown into sharp relief.

Ultimately, though, I feel that the rewards gained by all concerned make the risk worth taking. The learners gained insight into questions that had been puzzling them for some time, and in some cases found ways of 'living their understandings' more comfortably than before, even if they did not solve the problem of, for example: debilitating anxiety; difficulty in

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expressing complex feelings in a foreign language; finding lessons on a particular skill less than thrilling. The teachers (I include myself here) gained insight into the lives of the learners they were working with, and found further respect and understanding for the challenges these learners faced every day. In addition, they, we, enjoyed the process. EAP is often characterised as a dry and rather dull form of teaching, but the classes I saw were lively and engaging, as well as serious in underlying intent.

In conclusion, in order for learners (and teachers) to be included as researchers in their own right, all the participants need to be able to trust one another to be serious, to make decisions, and to develop as practitioners of learning and teaching. If we, as teacher educators, teachers, and researchers, can trust learners, trainee teachers or 'key developing practitioners' to contribute significantly to the body of knowledge, then all stand to gain.

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Chapter Eight

Collaborative Peer Mentoring of Graduate Assistants

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Collaborative teacher development (CTD) is an important part of the professional development of language teachers. However, one major challenge to this process is the possible power differential between collaborators (Johnston, 2009). One solution is for teachers at equal levels to collaborate. This study describes how two graduate assistant (GA) peers, the two authors, explored issues in one's development during her first semester teaching in the United States. This paper describes Man Li's background, methods of the inquiry, and findings. One theme that emerged through our dialogue was how Man Li's academic and professional socialization into another program and culture affected her beliefs and practices as a language teacher.

Introduction

Internationally, more than 80% of English language teaching (ELT) professionals are not native speakers of English (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 91). Although there has been a growing body of research on non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the past decade (Braine, 2010; Braine, 1999b; Kamhi-Stein, 2004; Llurda, 2005), there has been a recent call for more studies that attempt to better understand the experiences of these teachers: a more holistic understanding, allowing more than their language backgrounds to represent or define their experiences (Braine, 2010). The research tradition of case studies has a strong history of doing just that: understanding and interpreting the experiences of an individual or group as they relate to the context around them (Casanave, 2010). There has also been a need for the study of NNESTs to include more empirical, longitudinal, and collaborative methods (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). The current paper uses a case study to build on a burgeoning area of research on NNESTs, enhancing it by studying the professional development of a novice English language teacher in an English as a second language (ESL) environment.

The structure of this paper is as follows. First, a review of literature on NNESTs is given. Then, in order to contextualize this research, we present constructs related to teacher development that will be relevant to the understanding of the data collected (Yin, 2003). This is followed by the methods section, in which we describe the participants, data collection, and methods of analysis. We then present findings and discussion on one of the lines of inquiry explored—academic socialization and its effect on Man Li's teaching. Following those results, we

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posit reasons why our peer-based mentor relationship worked so well. We close our paper with conclusions and implications for teacher education and development.

Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers

The notion of a non-native speaker (NNS) essentially requires the notion of a native speaker (NS). A quarter century ago, however, in reaction to the dominance of the 'native speaker' in linguistics research and discourse, Paikeday (1985) published *The Native Speaker is Dead!* As the title suggests, Paikeday called for a change in the discourse and recommended using the term 'proficient user' to describe someone who can successfully use a language regardless of whether it was their first language (L1) learned. This idea led to work that further explored what it means to be a native speaker of a language (Davies, 1991) and challenged the notion of nativeness and the NS-NNS dichotomy (Nayar, 1994; Phillipson, 1992). Spearheaded by Braine (1999b), this line of inquiry has moved towards research on NNESTs who teach English. NNESTs may be 'proficient users' of English, but because they have been labeled as non-native speakers, they often face challenges different from those of teachers whose L1 is English. While the label of NNS is controversial, the term is useful to describe a concept that many, including highly proficient users, often use to refer to themselves (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). We thus see the label of NNS as a problematic yet useful way to discuss the experiences of NNESTs.

Attention has also been given to NNESTs in order to help legitimize their role in the field of TESOL (Braine, 2010, 1999b; Llurda, 2005). For example, NNESTs formed their own caucus and subsequent interest section within the TESOL organization in 1998, creating a legitimized community of practice (Braine, 1999a). Two goals of this interest section are to promote non-discriminatory teaching environments and to support and encourage the role of non-native speakers in TESOL ("Goals of the NNEST Interest Section," 2010). For recent state of the field descriptions on the area of NNESTs, one can consult Moussu and Llurda (2008) and Braine (2010). Both give overviews of the field, classify areas of inquiry, and summarize what has been found. Areas of inquiry that dominate NNEST research are teachers' perceptions of themselves and descriptions of their experiences in the field (Liu, 2005; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999).

In terms of methods used to collect data on NNESTs, Moussu and Llurda (2008) describe four ways that NNESTs have traditionally been studied: narratives, surveys, interviews, and observations. Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999), for example, used a survey to explore how NNS graduate students studying TESOL perceived themselves and their NS counterparts. One of their

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key findings was that although there appeared to be differences between native and non-native teachers in the eyes of the NNESTs, the NNESTs did not necessarily see themselves as less competent than their native speaker counterparts.

In order to better understand and contextualize NNESTs perceptions and practices, personal narratives (biographies) have also been used. Braine (2010) used this method to study teachers' teaching and learning experiences, giving a clearer picture about how these NNESTs' beliefs and current experiences as language teachers came to be. He noted similarities and differences in his participants' socioeconomic backgrounds, early and higher education, professional development, attitudes, and perceptions. Braine described how such narratives will add to NNEST research and can help inform ELT, textbook design, and second language teacher education (SLTE, p. 72).

An example of a study that explores the socialization of NNESTs through interviews and observation is that conducted by Reis (2010). With sociocultural theory as a lens, Reis employed ethnographic methods to study the role of dialogic narrative inquiry in the professional development of two NNEST teachers with seven and three years of teaching experience in the context of a large U.S. university. Through dialogic mediation, Reis helped his participants develop their understandings of issues such as NS/NNS dichotomy, the native speaker fallacy (Phillipson, 1992), and their own identities and self-confidence as NNESTs.

Árva and Medgyes (2000) used classroom observation and interviews of teachers to explore differences between native (NEST) and non-native English teachers in a foreign language context. These researchers were interested in the differences between the two groups in terms of their actual teaching and stated teaching behaviors. The researchers found that the NESTs spoke better English than NNESTs and were able to be more spontaneous and diverse with their language use in the classroom. NNESTs were found to have stronger metacognitive grammatical knowledge, and they were less tolerant of errors made by students. After analyzing the teaching of their participants, the researchers came to the conclusion that while it might be the case that a trained NNEST is better than an untrained NEST, those untrained NESTs may be able to do a good job at teaching conversation.

Unlike the studies by Reis (2010) and Árva and Medgyes (2000), most research about NNESTs has been conducted in self-reported autobiographical ways without much corroboration with observable data. Moussu and Llurda (2008) have called for methodological exploration, recommending more ethnographic and longitudinal studies to supplement the introspective data that has dominated this area of research thus far. Also, most studies conducted in the area of

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NNESTs are done by researchers who are themselves non-native speakers of English. This leads to another gap in the research, which, according to Moussu and Llurda, is the lack of studies that explore native and non-native teachers collaborating with one another. Braine (2010, p. 88) weighs in on this same idea of NS-NNS collaboration, claiming that such work would lessen concerns of validity and reliability in analyses, making the research less introspectively-based. This collaboration could be examined between participants who are teacher-learners (Gebhard & Nagamine, 2006; A. Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001; P. K. Matsuda, 1999), who are involved in professional development (Reis, 2010), who are collaboratively teaching and interacting later in their careers (de Oliveira & Richardson, 2001), or who are teachers of differing levels of experience. The last of these is the collaboration method used in the current study: a self-described novice teacher (the NNEST) and a more experienced teacher (the NEST).

The current study hopes to fill the methodological gaps identified by Moussu and Llurda (2008) by using ethnographic and collaborative methods. It attempts to add insight into the experience of a self-described novice NNEST ESL instructor and teacher-learner. One way in which we do this is through narrative inquiry. By exploring the experiences and history of Man Li, we will add her experiences to the growing corpus of NNEST research. This is an important area of the field to be explored because there have been few biographies of individual NNESTs (Hayes, 2010). This study also hopes to fill a gap in the literature through its methodology, which involves an inquiry-based, dialogic approach to professional development between peers (Johnson, 2009, pp. 95-112, for a description of inquiry-based approaches to teacher development). While most studies of NNESTs have relied on self-reported data, the current project involves another layer of involvement. The nature of the inquiry is interactive and collaborative. It thus combines the topic of research on NNESTs with that of Collaborative Teacher Development (CTD, described below).

Academic and Professional Socialization

It has been claimed that a novice teacher is influenced by her previous experiences as a student: her *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie, 1975). The time spent as a learner, observing one's instructors, is believed to influence a teacher's pedagogical beliefs. This concept is particularly important in the discussion of the development of a novice teacher because of its potential to also have a subsequent influence on how a teacher, especially one with little personal teaching experience, practices teaching.

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In addition to the time spent as a student being influenced by one's instructors, a teacher-learner is also influenced by the socialization experiences as student in her ELT program or other academic and professional communities. A useful concept to describe the varying degrees of insider and peripheral memberships in academic and professional groups is that of *communities of practice* (COP) (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The concept of COP allows us to discuss an individual not as a mere learner in the cognitive sense, but as someone who is learning to participate in a social world. Lave and Wenger claim learning is a situated activity that involves a process they call *legitimate peripheral participation* (p. 29). Belcher (1994), using Lave and Wenger's framework, describes a legitimate peripheral participant as being "a newcomer to the community of practice, who participates to a limited extent and with limited responsibility in the actual work of an expert" (p. 24). Such participation is, itself, learning. Legitimate peripheral participants are developing the ability to participate in the conventional practices of a given community. These communities could be just about any type of group, but of particular relevance to this study are those that relate to acquiring knowledge of conventions in teaching (Hedgcock, 2009) and in academia (Belcher, 1994; Lu & Nelson, 2008).

Another aspect of socialization that is involved in this study is the relationship between the two participants who are members of the same academic and professional communities. The investigative methods developed based on a collaborative relationship between doctoral student peers. This is a form of collaborative teacher development (CTD). CTD can be described as coming from the belief that learning to teach is a social process, that teachers can also be producers of teaching knowledge, and that teaching should be collegial (Johnston, 2009). Johnston describes how when teachers collaborate with one another, there is a balanced power relationship among peers. In terms of socialization, this collaboration also shows an attempt for both participants to come closer to the center of their COPs, attempting to become both better instructors and scholars.

During the course of the inquiry, it was found that one of the most salient themes was how the academic socialization of the focal participant, Man Li, influenced her beliefs and practices as a language teacher. As described by Farrell (2009, p. 185) an area of socialization that has not been explored in great detail by the field of SLTE is that of the socialization experiences of novice teachers—here, a novice NNEST.

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The Study

Participants

This case study is centered on the focal participant, Man Li. At the time of the study she was a 26 year-old student at Georgia State University (GSU) in her third year of a PhD program in applied linguistics. Her research interests include quantitative research methods, second language acquisition, corpus linguistics and second language writing. Man Li was born, raised, and educated in mainland China. She holds an undergraduate degree in English and a master's degree in applied linguistics. In her MA program, she had the opportunity to teach English at her college: Intermediate Listening to students minoring in English for two summers and Oral English to sophomores majoring in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language for one semester. She also taught a few weeks in an English training program, teaching Oral English to adult English learners, between the ages of 30 and 40, who wanted to pursue graduate degrees in English-speaking countries. However, even with this experience, Man Li considered herself a novice teacher in the United States because she had very limited experience in China. Her teaching there was not supervised, evaluated, nor guided by a more experienced teacher. After spending two years in a PhD program with many experienced teachers as classmates, she also felt less practiced and knowledgeable about pedagogy because her MA program did not include a practicum before she was expected to teach.

Having been educated in this way up to the MA level in China, Man Li started adapting to the American graduate school system two years later than her fellow international student colleagues, all of whom had studied in North American contexts before entering the doctoral program. We note this because the later exposure to American cultural and academic contexts, loaded with new expectations and norms, may play an important role in her socialization into her new academic community. In addition to academic socialization, the third year in the PhD program also marked Man Li's entry into the teaching community at GSU. In her first two years in the United States, Man Li had been given assistantships that did not involve teaching.

We feel that it is also important to describe the principal investigator, Jack, because of the collaborative nature of this inquiry. At the time of the study, Jack was a 27 year-old PhD student in his second year in the same program. His main research interest was in corpus linguistics (English and Spanish). He was a white American who had completed his master's degree in applied linguistics at the Universidad de las Américas, Puebla. While Jack did not consider himself an "expert" English language teacher, he saw himself as a "good and emerging expert"

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teacher. He had five years of teaching experience, having taught more than a dozen different English courses in many different contexts.

Although the topics of teacher development and socialization interested Jack, Man Li's experience was especially important to him. We were both classmates and friends. Man Li was someone who Jack regularly confided in, and even before this study we would often discuss educational, pedagogical, and personal matters. Because of this, Jack found himself very invested in Man Li's potential for success as an educator: Her success was his success, and his success was also hers. While this investment might have colored his view of her progress, we felt that such investment was ideal in a collaborative relationship. We also believed that for a case study such as this, it was not imperative that there be a researcher and participant relationship in order for the study to be as objective as possible. Instead, we viewed this as a particular strength in increasing our understandings of one another and our motivation for successful professional development.

Prior to the beginning of the study, Man Li had received her assignment to teach in the Intensive English Program (IEP) at GSU. Jack was ecstatic to hear that she would be joining the teaching community and gaining teaching experience. We had both recently taken a course on the education of second language teachers, and Jack was excited to see some of the processes described in our course play out with a close colleague. Man Li, however, continued to have reservations, doubting her teaching abilities, glad to be teaching a low level reading class. She felt that this could help her ease into the field with less pressure than, for example, a high level oral communication course, which she expressed doubts at being capable of teaching. As the semester neared, however, Man Li gained confidence and began the semester with excitement if not a little hesitation.

Man Li taught Extensive Reading 1: the first of five levels in the IEP. According to the syllabus developed by the department, this course emphasizes the reading of texts to improve "reading fluency, vocabulary, and critical thinking skills." Students were expected to read two short novels in this course, and activities related to the readings were used to reach these objectives.

Mentoring

Although exploring Man Li's development over her first semester teaching in the United States was the focus of the study, the underlying purpose was principally pragmatic: that is, to help Man Li become a better, more confident teacher. Farrell (2009) has found that novice teachers who are mentored are more effective as they enter the field than those who rely solely

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on learning from their own mistakes. The scaffolding provided in the present study was based on the use of dialogic mediation (adapted from Farrell, 2009) to explore the influences of previous schooling experience, content-based knowledge from being a teacher-learner, and the socialization experiences in two different educational cultures.

We used a working definition of mentoring from Malderez (2009) to describe our process; mentoring is “one-to-one, workplace-based, contingent and personally appropriate support for the *person* during [her] professional acclimatization (or integration), learning, growth, and development” (p. 260). The purpose of such support is to increase mentees’ agency and abilities to draw conclusions from their own experiences. Mentoring, according to Malderez, should thus involve much listening and description, allowing the mentee’s voice to be heard without giving evaluative or judgmental feedback (p. 264). Also, because the process of mentoring involves work on the part of both the mentee and the mentor, such a relationship can be mutually beneficial (Malderez & Bodóczky, 1999). We felt that the use of narrative inquiry and reflective teaching combined well with the purpose of collegiality and mentoring.

Data Collection

Traditional forms of teacher professional development often include workshops, conferences, or courses from which teachers gain knowledge to apply to their practices. Reflective teaching, on the other hand, has emerged from the belief that teaching practices can also be improved through the conscious and systematic reflection on one’s own experiences in the classroom (Farrell, 2009, p. 9). Using interviews and narratives, we hoped to facilitate Man Li’s professional development based on the assumptions about reflective teacher development as put forth by Richards and Lockhart (1994, pp. 3-4), which include the ideas that much can be learned about teaching through self-inquiry, much of what happens in teaching is unknown to the teacher, and critical reflection can trigger a deeper understanding of teaching.

Interviews and Narratives

Conversations and semi-structured interviews were conducted on at least a weekly basis for a semester. Because both of us taught at the same days and times, these conversations were recorded and generally occurred immediately after class and lasted between 30 minutes and two hours. Dialogue with groups of graduate students at school and conversations between the two of us on the train ride home from campus, for example, also proved to be important, especially as ways to develop and explore issues to be discussed in subsequent sessions.

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Throughout the week, Jack listened to the audio recordings and took notes. These were included in a research journal, and helped to identify emerging themes. Jack introduced possible themes to Man Li in subsequent sessions, discussing them explicitly. We then explored how they were relevant, or not, to Man Li's experience. Not only did these notes serve as a way to revisit topics discussed in previous sessions, they also helped Jack know what to ask Man Li for clarification. Such follow-up questions continued throughout the process, allowing a constant dialogic confirmation of understanding throughout the data collection process. In other words, unlike many qualitative studies that involve coding of themes *post hoc*, this process allowed Jack to directly negotiate with Man Li which themes were more or less relevant to her experiences teaching. Thus, the data collection also involved constant and collaborative data analysis.

For the most part, the ethnographic interview process followed Spradley's (1979) guidelines. That is, interviews began with broad questions to be followed up with narrower inquiries into the participant's understanding and experiences. To show how this was applied in our case, interviews were usually conducted as follows. To begin, Man Li described what happened in her class that day. In a way, this part of the interview acted as a reflective, oral teaching journal for Man Li. This description also allowed the principal investigator to understand Man Li's experiences as a new teacher with an emphasis on how she perceived her teaching, her students, her development, etc. Man Li often described what went well in her class and also what she might do differently in subsequent classes. During this time, Man Li drove the conversation. Interruptions to this oral journal, making it more dialogic, only occurred when Jack needed something clarified, wanted to better understand what Man Li experienced, or when it was conversationally appropriate to comment or backchannel with phrases like "uh huh," "yeah," or "hmm." As a given interview progressed, themes emerged and the interviewer narrowed the focus of the discussion. The more dialogic aspect of these exchanges occurred when the narration moved more into two-way conversation. Because of the teaching experiential difference between the participants, such discussions about teaching also involved a mentor relationship, in which Jack might say what he would do in a similar situation or what had or had not worked for him as a teacher in the past. This interview process was, as Man Li describes, a very good alternative to a written journal. She would call our sessions "oral dialogic journaling" about her teaching.

Another part of this process involved Man Li telling autobiographical narratives about her life experiences. Oral history or narratives have become an increasingly legitimated research method. Such a methodology gives participants the opportunity to present information that is

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relevant or important to them, from their own perspective. Through such narration, researchers and their participants contribute in the collaborative construction of understanding (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011, p. 133). In this way, Man Li's life stories were used to contextualize the experiences she was having teaching and reflecting. This helped both of us to understand how Man Li's past relates to her present and future development. Because of time constraints during each interview, Man Li often told vignettes about times of her life. For example, one such narrative involved her discussion of how she transitioned from her undergraduate degree in English to a master's program in applied linguistics. Another vignette described a single semester in the American doctoral program, involving the details of what happened and how she remembers her feelings at the time. Pieced together chronologically and thematically, these stories formed a cohesive description of Man Li's experiences becoming a part of academic and teaching communities.

Data Analysis

Because the study was a dialogic and negotiated process, issues regarding the collection, analysis, and presentation of data and findings were unlike more traditional research conducted by a researcher and a subject. Instead, we had a flow of ideas in which the focal participant and the principal investigator negotiated the directions of conversations. We did not attempt to fit, *a priori,* our understandings of Man Li's experiences in context to another situation. For example, although Man Li did, in fact, self-identify as non-native speaker of English, her linguistic competence was not a salient theme to develop in our interviews. Thus, the themes described in our findings, while about a NNEST, are not about Man Li being a NNS.

In the current paper, the findings described were those explicitly discussed as such in the interviews. For these purposes, we used the field notes to return to the audio-recordings for further analysis as needed. This paper examines one of the themes that emerged from the data collected as discussed between the participants. Because the interviews were partly based on the themes from previous interviews, the naming and discussion of these concepts were fairly explicit. More detailed analysis of the transcripts using a process such as post-hoc content analysis might reveal different findings, but that is outside the scope of this paper.

Findings and Discussion

Socialization Into the U.S. Educational System

One salient theme that emerged related to Man Li's socialization experiences as a graduate student in the United States, and how these experiences influenced her beliefs and

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perceptions about group work among students. When Man Li began her PhD in the United States, she had already started to develop her beliefs about language pedagogy based on her experience as an English and French language learner. She had also begun to develop her teaching identity in her brief, albeit largely attended, courses taught in China. However, that teaching experience was not further developed upon arrival to the United States. Unlike many PhD students in her program, Man Li did not receive teaching assistantships. Instead, she was asked to help with research and testing.

Although Man Li did not grow her knowledge of teaching through firsthand experience early in her PhD, the first two years of her studies were filled with other influences on her beliefs about learning and teaching. One such growing experience was the dialogic nature of her classes. For example, Man Li was unfamiliar with the genres of online response postings and student-driven class discussions. Even the idea of sitting in a circle for a class was a weird concept for her, having sat in rows in her classes in China. Not only was she unused to the difference of creating and understanding knowledge as a group, Man Li was also not accustomed to being held responsible for classroom interaction (e.g., postings, comments in class, etc.). Perhaps the most difficult task for Man Li in this transition was being required to lead a class in a discussion of an entire topic. Unlike her classes in China, where once a semester a student would be asked to describe a single article, in this new context, students led class discussions on topics and needed to be familiar with several articles while also maintaining their peers' attention for as long as two and a half hours. Looking back on these experiences, Man Li saw herself as a facilitator, becoming involved in the class discussion, changing her previous perceptions of the fixedness of classroom roles of instructors and students. Man Li began to see the value in learning this way: through group discussions and collaboration, in which learners relied on each other to pull their own weight in the classroom.

Man Li had a difficult adjustment to, but soon greatly appreciated, the student-driven teaching and learning style that she experienced as a new PhD student. Her socialization into the U.S. graduate academic system also increased her appreciation of collaborative work with peers for group projects. In a narration about her first semester in the PhD program (September 24, 2010), she expressed appreciation for the opportunity of working with a more advanced peer in her qualitative research methods class. She said that being paired with a more advanced student for a group presentation eased her stress because she knew that her partner knew the expectations, and she did not. In addition, working with a peer in informal situations provided her with a comfortable zone in which to socialize, ask questions and participate. As Man Li

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described, she had been stressed in her first semester classes in the United States because she found it extremely difficult to participate in classroom discussion. However, she felt that working outside of the classroom with a peer was less stressful and she was able to participate in the group project. This feeling of being able to contribute had positive psychological effects on her self-concept. Moreover, it was through working closely with a peer that she learned the expectations for group work in U.S. classrooms, and experienced the process of completing a group project in U.S. academic culture.

Not only did she appreciate working with peers who were more advanced, she also appreciated the experience working with lower level MA students. In her second semester, Man Li took an MA level discourse analysis course, which included three group projects. In those projects, she was able to apply what she had learned about the expectations of group work the prior semester. Also, through working closely on group projects with the MA students in more informal settings (personal meetings and online chatting), she had many more chances to speak English for real purposes because everyone had the same task and had the same goal. She also had the chance to socialize with classmates who shared similar interests in the field. Furthermore, she commented that she really enjoyed interacting in small groups and taking the role of facilitating the group discussion and leading the group project. This good feeling and respect that she earned from her group members increased her confidence and furthered her appreciation of collaborative work.

Connecting this academic socialization to her own teaching, several interviews and informal conversations involved Man Li discussing her attempts to increase student involvement in the classroom as well as student-to-student interaction. While Man Li realized the benefit of student-driven instruction and collaborative learning, it was not so simple for her to apply these new teaching and learning beliefs, developed in her U.S. graduate courses, to her own language teaching. To find a balance, Man Li made adjustments using trial and error.

At first, Man Li included group work in her teaching because she felt it was a requirement in American education. She also was influenced by Jack, a teacher she respected, who always included partner or group work in his teaching (Interview, October 8, 2010). However, at first, she did not know what, specifically, should be the instructional goals of having her students engage in collaboration. Such confusion might be expected. After all, Man Li had experienced a student-driven, autonomous learning style only as a graduate student but never as a language learner:

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> My classroom language learning experience mostly happened in China in the context of which English is a foreign language. I started to learn English when I was about 10 in the fifth grade in elementary school, and then three years in junior high and another three year in senior high. After that, I took English as my major in my undergrad. I would say in my first eight years of pre-university classroom language education, I hardly had any experience involved in group work in language classes. Even in my undergrad education, most of my English classes were teacher-fronted. It is not until I got my PhD program in the United States that I experienced discussion-based collaborative classes as a student in content courses in applied linguistics. (narrative, September 27, 2010)

About 5 weeks into the semester, Man Li described how she was not successful in implementing her first group task assignment. She attributed that result to her vague instructions of the responsibilities for each student. This led her to question the benefits of group work. Man Li described her beliefs; she advocated for teacher-fronted classrooms with the idea that in a class-wide group, because only a few people could speak, she could take notes to give specific feedback on errors. This view was consistent with the way she had been taught as a language learner. However, she countered this idea with newer beliefs; she said that if she created smaller groups, more students being able to participate. She realized that by allowing more students to participate, she, as an instructor, could have a stronger understanding of each individual's strengths and weaknesses but would have to relinquish some control. After explicitly discussing the benefits of group work with Jack and analyzing the possible reasons why her first attempt was not successful, Man Li later attempted to improve her instructions when giving group assignments. She tried to be specific about requirements for each group member and was more careful when preparing tasks. Her initial hesitation of allowing such student autonomy because of the students' low-level linguistic competence was eventually allayed once her changes proved successful.

With more confidence, Man Li increased the proportion of class time in group work in the second half of the semester. The students' second book provided fewer ready-to-use, structured activities than the first book, and Man Li enjoyed the flexibility. At the same time, however, she also panicked when preparing teaching activities because she realized that she had so little to rely on. She wanted to incorporate more group work in her class, but was not sure how much student autonomy should be given in the class and was hesitant in using a book club activity that Jack recommended. She had two major concerns. One was that she felt the book club activity might be too open and demanding to her Level 1 students, which was the impression that she got from consulting with a more experienced instructor who had taught the same class before. She also doubted her ability to carry out this activity in class. Man Li had

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never used this activity in her class as a teacher, nor had she experienced doing this activity as a student. She had not even observed another instructor using this activity.

Holding the belief that having students talk about what they think about stories in the book is more beneficial to the students than the instructor telling students what the stories mean, Man Li decided to try out the book club activity. Over time, she learned *how* to conduct this activity from Jack when they met formally or informally in different contexts. Jack described the possible ways of structuring this activity in a classroom setting in such a manner that even a novice teacher who had not had any experience with it could visualize the whole process of conducting it. When introducing this activity in class, Man Li elicited response from students about the benefits of doing a book club activity instead of the instructor teaching the book to the students. She also used handouts introducing the specific responsibilities of each role in a group. She used modeling the first time trying the activity in class in order for students to get to know what they were expected to do when taking different roles. After about two or three rounds, the activity turned out to be very successful because the roles that the students took worked, there was collaboration going on between group members, and a lot of discussions were generated. Man Li commented that the tremendous help and consistent support that she got from Jack was the vital first step for the successful implementation of the student-driven, collaborative activities in her class.

Why Did This Peer Mentoring Relationship Work?

We recognize that this process cannot be replicated in every context. It is our hope in this section that we can describe reasons why we think our particular relationship and process were mutually beneficial. We do this with the hope that those who are interested in participating in peer-based CTD can facilitate similar methods of professional development.

One of the most important distinguishing features of this line of inquiry was that Man Li, the focal participant and teacher-learner, had a strong voice in what was discussed. Unlike many mentoring relationships and investigations into teacher development, Man Li had equal control. For example, if she did not want Jack to discuss or write about what had been mentioned in an interview, she would say so. At every stage of the research process, her voice is heard as a researcher of equal importance.

In terms of our personal relationship with each other, another facilitative aspect was that we had a strong, previously established relationship. As described above, we had taken classes together, worked together in class projects, shared an office space, and knew each other well. We had much personal motivation for our relationship to work. As it was Man Li's first semester

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teaching in the United States, she knew that having a mentor at this stage would be beneficial. She also knew that she needed more help than her peers who all had several years of teaching experience. With Jack, who is a non-judgmental friend, Man Li had complete trust and respect and felt secure enough to share everything about her teaching beliefs and practices without reservations. This formed the basis of our successful peer mentoring relationship.

Man Li also had trust in Jack's teaching ability. Conveniently, we were teaching the same course that semester—Extensive Reading (although different levels). This created favorable conditions for this mentoring because it was easy for Jack to draw from his own recent teaching experiences Man Li had questions specific to the subject.

Finally, we think that the immediacy of our discussions after teaching was particularly helpful. We taught on the same days and times in the same building, and shared the same office for graduate teaching assistants. This shared context created conditions for easy communication. We could talk immediately after our classes when Man Li's memory was still very fresh. At these times she was eager to share and ask for feedback. Man Li felt that this immediate feedback had a stronger impact on her professional development as a teacher-learner.

What Did We Gain From This Process?

Man Li, the mentee, got tremendous support from Jack in her first semester teaching in the States. The structure of the non-judgmental dialogic mediation allowed her to first verbalize what happened in her class. As this narration is post-hoc, when describing what happened, she was also able to reflect and judge what went well and what did not go well from her own perspective. Jack's feedback or provision of alternatives allowed her to confirm or re-examine her own perspectives and practices. This process resulted in both reinforcements of and adjustments to her teaching practice.

As described above, Man Li was not the only participant to benefit from this process. For Jack, this relationship was also beneficial and rewarding. First and foremost, he was very happy to have helped his friend in her professional development. Second, the process allowed him to practice what he had learned in a course on the education of second language instructors. For example, he connected his teaching experience and practice to the facilitation of the pedagogical development of Man Li, which made concepts such as academic socialization of ELTs more concrete. Finally, he was able to learn and put into practice qualitative research method skills in a way that allowed Man Li to be involved at every step of the research process, including publication. This was no small task for two quantitative-leaning scholars, and we are both proud of our work.

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Conclusion

The findings above described the influence that Man Li's learning and socialization had on her beliefs and practices of learning and teaching. Through reflective teaching and narrative inquiry, we found that Man Li was able to embrace aspects of her own instruction and socialization and apply them to the way she practiced teaching. Through a dialogic, inquiry-based approach to study Man Li's professional development, we were able to explore the relationship between her experiences, beliefs, and practices. Lortie's (1975) concept of apprenticeship of observation can be applied to her practice as a language teacher, being influenced by her experiences as a learner. In this paper, we describe how the time spent as a graduate student, learning and socializing, in the United States was useful to her development as a teacher and also helped shape her beliefs about learning in general.

This conclusion, however, is not the most important piece of knowledge that we gained from this experience. The process of the teacher-to-teacher, peer mentoring and collaborative teacher development was in itself a useful and bonding exercise. We feel that this practice helped both participants to understand each other much better by creating a space of discourse to express any relevant line of inquiry, not limiting itself to a prescribed research question, such as the effects of nativeness of a NNEST.

As our final note, we would like to re-emphasize our belief and appreciation for collaborative, peer-based reflection and inquiry as a tool that others can use. We feel that such situations, when available, would be helpful for many teacher-learners or novice in-service teachers who come from different educational cultures, both NNESTs in an ESL environment and NESTs in an EFL environment. Mentoring in this fashion can also, as Malderez (2009) describes, help bridge the theory-practice gap that can exist between a novice in-service teacher's knowledge gained as a teacher-learner with the way that knowledge influences actual practice upon completion of teacher training. One clear outcome of the process of this inquiry was the support Man Li received during her first semester teaching with new subject material, to a new population, and in a new cultural context. Such support could lessen the stress of one's first semester of teaching. This type of relationship can also be beneficial to the professional development of the more experienced teacher, helping him understand his peers, his students, and himself.

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Chapter Nine

Collaborative English Language Learner Program Evaluation

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While 41% of the United States' three million mainstream school teachers have English language learners (ELLs) in their classrooms, very few of them have preparation in how to make instruction and assessment accessible to ELLs. In addition, school administrators often do not have enough language or cultural awareness to design school programs and instruction to meet ELLs' needs. With the pressures that come in conjunction with sanctions resulting from the No Child Left Behind Act (U.S. Department of Education, 2001), schools are asking for professional help from university experts in redesigning programs that are not working well for ELLs. In this paper, we report on how a collaborative team of university professors and school leaders developed a model for the evaluation of programs that serve ELLs, both mainstream and ESL, and how such an evaluation can be conducted. We provide the theoretical basis and structure of the evaluation, along with samples of instruments used. We also show how such program evaluation leads to professional development for teachers and school administrators. It is our hope that this paper will be useful to teacher educators, school leaders and other professionals who wish to learn more about ESL program evaluation that can lead to improvement in the education of ELLs.

Introduction

It was a late Friday afternoon. Elementary principal Nadine Levy had stopped by to talk with her friend Mary Carlson, principal at the middle school. It had been a long week. The standardized test scores for measuring Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) had just been published in the paper and the school had not met the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) standards. Teachers were demoralized, parents were worried, and once again English language learner (ELL) scores seemed incongruent with efforts made by both teachers and students.

Both principals were frustrated, as they had been trying to be supportive of ELLs for years. They hired bilingual assistants, held special meetings for parents, and supported professional development related to working with ELLs for their teachers. There were multilingual signs in the building, translated parent communication, and books in Spanish, Oromo and Somali in the library.

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As they talked, they recognized that their own lack of knowledge about English as a second language (ESL) prevented them from fully evaluating their building programs and staff. They needed help determining whether or not they were supporting best practices for ELLs and had so far not been able to get what they needed from district administration. They decided to take matters into their own hands and call a meeting of area principals. After much discussion with colleagues who all had the same challenges, the principals decided to launch their own ESL education with a program evaluation to be conducted by outside experts.

Context: Programming Needs of ELLs in American School

Although the growth rate of immigrants to the United States has slowed down since 2000, their impact on American schools continues to be strong. ELL students comprise about 10.7% of U.S. K-12 school enrollment today (Strizek, Pittsonberger, Riordan, Lyter, & Orlosfsky, 2006), and the total number continues to grow. From the 1997-98 school year to the 2008-09 school year, the number of English-language learners enrolled in public schools increased from 3.5 million to 5.3 million, or by 51% (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2011). This high number of people not yet proficient in English raises issues of how schools can best meet the varying needs of students from a wide variety of linguistic, cultural and educational backgrounds.

The National Center for Educational Statistics Schools and Staffing Survey for 2003-4 (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008) indicated that 91.6% of schools across the United States placed ELLs in regular mainstream content classes. While 41% of the nation's three million school teachers have English language learners (ELLs) in their classroom, very few of them have preparation in how to make mainstream instruction and assessment accessible to ELLs (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002).

School districts vary in their response to ELLs. Typical programming includes English as a second language (ESL) classes, small group instruction, inclusion in the mainstream, bilingual programs and newcomer schools, but almost all ELLs are integrated immediately into at least some mainstream classes. The variation of programs in the schools reflects a lack of explicit language policy. When policies are not explicit, programs tend to default to continuing the practice of supporting programs that are designed to serve native speakers, ignoring the needs of ELLs. Without a language policy, it is not possible to develop a viable curriculum that serves all students (Corson, 1999).

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The lack of adequate preparation for teachers extends also to school administrators who often do not have enough language or cultural awareness to design programs and instruction to meet ELLs' needs. In interviews that we have conducted with principals, there was a general consensus that most principals do not know enough to design and assess programs for ELLs and that programs tended to be inadequate (Mabbott, Kramer, &, Lundgren, 2009). One result of inadequate programming is that 31% of ELLs never complete high school, compared to 10% of the general population (NCES, 2002). Eighth-grade ELLs' test scores are less than half of those of English- proficient peers in reading and math (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008). With the pressures that accompany sanctions for student failure resulting from the No Child Left Behind Act (2001), schools are asking for professional help from university ESL professionals to redesign programs that are not working well for ELLs.

Purpose of this Paper

Collaboration between a university program faculty and public school personnel can evaluate existing programs for ELLs and recommend how they can be improved. The evaluation results, coupled with collaborative professional development, can help K-12 teachers and administrators become intentional in their language policy and practice.

In this paper, we will report on how such a collaboration team developed a model for program evaluation, and how such an evaluation can be carried out. We will provide the structure of the evaluation, along with samples of instruments used. We will also refer to professional development that could result from such program evaluation (Lundgren, Mabbott & Kramer, 2012).

It is our hope that this paper will be useful to teacher educators and other professionals who want to learn more about ESL program evaluation and subsequent professional development. This paper is not a study of the particular district or schools we worked with, but instead is intended to be a blueprint of how such an evaluation can be constructed. However, we will refer to our specific experience so that the readers can get a better understanding of how such a project actually occurs.

Needs Analysis

As a university faculty team, we have conducted program evaluations in a number of different types of schools and districts, but for the purposes of this paper, we will provide examples from our work with one large urban school district. A group of principals from the district approached us for help in their efforts to improve their programs for ELLs. Despite their

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past efforts to meet the needs of ELLs, the students were not scoring well on tests, and schools had been cited for lack of adequate progress by ELLs under No Child Left Behind (NCLB, 2001). At the same time, the district was experiencing significant enrollment decreases among ELLs, as parents pulled their children out of the local public school to enroll them in various suburban schools, ethnic-based Latino, Hmong, or Somali charter schools, or alternative schools.

Although external factors such as decreasing enrollment and sanctions from NCLB drew their attention, the desire to take part in a program evaluation came from the principals, and not from the district administration or from any other external forces. The principals discussed extensively how they and the district could improve the education of ELLs, and finally decided that their educational backgrounds did not include expertise in working with the language and cultural needs of ELLs. They felt that they did not know enough to assess the quality of the programs they had, or to redesign them to be more effective. They did not know enough to mentor their teachers on best practices in sheltering instruction. Their desire to be better informed led them to turn to us, university-based ESL experts, to provide their professional development. We were chosen because of positive professional work that we had done with the district in the past, and because of our knowledge of the local context.

Evaluation Design

The Political Nature of Evaluation

The decision to engage in the evaluation process and to use results to make policy and program decisions is inherently political in nature (Worthen & Sanders, 1987). Anticipating the agendas of various stakeholders is critical preparation for an evaluation team, and therefore understanding the local context is essential (Gonzalez, 2003). Given our conversations with principals, and our working relationship with the schools, we were able to anticipate some of the issues that needed to be addressed by the evaluation. We knew, for example, that there were systems issues; principals expressed frustration with the district level decisions that were undermining programs at individual school sites. They needed a program evaluation to provide evidence that could be used in conversations at the district level to help them strengthen the integrity of the language programs in their schools.

As preparation for the evaluation got underway, the district ESL Department joined the university evaluation team. The ESL Department helped to secure relevant data on each school site including the school improvement plan, achievement test scores, language proficiency test scores for ELLs, student demographic data that included socio-economic status, and a list of

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personnel assigned to each site. The ESL department represented a group of stakeholders distinct from the principals. Their desire to collaborate with the evaluation reflected a need to push forward their own observations about ESL program needs that were also not being heard at the district level. For the most part, the agendas of the principals and the ESL department were not in opposition. The evaluation served as a formal structure for principals and the ESL department to strengthen their coalition.

As evaluators, recognizing (but not engaging) these political agendas was paramount to our preparation. We developed questions and procedures that would keep the evaluation as neutral and comprehensive as possible, ensuring ethical standards were met (Cronbach, 1982). There is no doubt that remaining neutral is a challenge, but well-developed observation tools, criteria and procedures are essential in balancing objectivity with political agendas. Even though our knowledge of the local context was extensive, as the evaluation progressed we encountered unanticipated agendas that had a significant impact on individual school site evaluations. Examples of unexpected agendas that we encountered included job security issues, allocation of district resources necessary for desegregation, district bussing issues, community pressures and principals' idiosyncratic curricular decisions. The challenge is gathering valid data alongside unanticipated agendas.

Approaches to Evaluation

Brown and Rogers (2002) cite four approaches to program evaluation. They are:

1. Product oriented approaches, which focus on whether the objectives of a program are achieved;
2. Static-characteristic approaches, traditionally used for accreditation purposes, which focus on statistics such as student/teacher ratio, test scores, and resources available;
3. Process-oriented approaches, which examine whether the program objectives are being met and help to facilitate curriculum revision, change and improvement; and
4. Decision-facilitation approaches, which gather data that allows the institutions to make their own decisions, without imposing evaluator judgments.

Because our initial charge was to gather data and make recommendations, and because the principals thought it imperative that they participate in the evaluation, we took a decision-facilitation approach, which is consonant with Allwright's Exploratory Practice approach (Allwright & Miller, 2012; Hanks, 2012). The principals already knew that district goals for students were not being met, but they needed more information to explain why students were not performing well, as well as suggestions for improvement. We believed that positive programming changes were most likely to be made using the decision-facilitation approach.

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Steps in the Evaluation Process

The first step in a program evaluation is to establish a clear purpose and identify the issues that may impact the achievement of that purpose (Brown & Rogers, 2002). Identifying the issues and determining the purpose of the evaluation requires initial conversations with the interested parties to narrow the scope of the evaluation. Subsequent interviews with individuals provide greater breadth and depth to the issues and how they are perceived from various stakeholder perspectives.

Developing quality interview questions is the second step in preparing for program evaluation. Rossett (1982) suggests a framework for developing interview questions that elicit data according to how problems, priorities, abilities, attitudes, and solutions are defined from a variety of sources. This allows the evaluators to assess how interested parties view the issues and their solutions. It provides additional information that might be otherwise missed about attitudes and skills that may impact the achievement of the desired goal. An essential step in writing interview questions is to anticipate possible responses from those interviewed. Thinking through responses helps the evaluator determine whether or not the interview questions will elicit the type of data desired.

In our evaluation process, identifying the issues as well as the purpose of the study were the result of multiple conversations conducted with district personnel, including principals and district ESL professionals. Their primary concerns were a lack of a coherent district-wide program to serve ELLs, the lack of ability on the part of school leaders to evaluate ESL teachers and program effectiveness, and the movement of students to charter and other alternative schools. Providing an effective program for ELLs was established as the priority, and it became the purpose of our evaluation.

In-depth interviews with school personnel including principals, social workers, teachers, and parent liaisons, provided greater insight to daily attitudes that had an impact on ELL programming at each site. Access to building personnel and classrooms by the evaluation team was largely determined by the attitude of the principal regarding the priority of ELL programming at the site. Thus, the ease of conducting interviews and observations varied by building. Interviews also revealed the degree to which principals recognized that managing the language development and schooling of ELLs required a new skill set, and to what degree they were willing to learn that skill set.

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Evaluation Framework

The TESOL ESL Standards Access Brochure (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc., 1997) served as the structure for our evaluation. Best practices in ESL education have been identified in the literature (Echevarria, Vogt, &. Short, 2008; Hill & Flynn, 2006; Smiley & Salsberry, 2007). The university evaluation team used the TESOL Access Brochure to identify practices that were in place.

The TESOL Access Brochure categories (a. access to a positive learning environment, b. access to appropriate curriculum, c. full delivery of services, and d. equitable assessment) provided the frame for our site observations. Our evaluation data included a variety of school observations, student data analysis and discussions with the programs' teachers, building principals and other school personnel who work with ELLs. We decided on a combination of quantitative and qualitative data to provide a deeper, richer picture of issues facing the district.

Data Sources and Process of Conducting the Evaluation

To prepare for a site visit, it is important for evaluators to examine available school data. Examining school data helps establish the context of the evaluation as individual school sites can vary significantly within the same district. Typically, these include:

1. The School Improvement Plan. Schools generally have improvement plans posted on their websites. Interestingly, few of the schools' plans we have read make reference to ELLs, even those that had 30-50% ELLs.
2. Achievement data reported to the state department of education, including academic achievement and language proficiency progress test scores for students identified as ELLs.
3. Student demographic data, including socio-economic status and English language proficiency levels of the ELLs.

We also sent a letter to the principals to review how the visit would be structured, along with an information form for them to fill out to help us establish a time for our visit. It was helpful to establish a structure for the site visit in advance with each principal, as it facilitated the least possible disruption for teachers and students. We followed up with a reminder letter, which included the specific time we were coming, and a review of how the visit would be conducted.

We also sent out a questionnaire regarding the schools' services for ELLs (see Appendix A). Principals' responses to the questionnaire provided a starting point for the interview. The goal, as stated in our letter, was "to assess the service to ELLs in the school, and the policies influencing them."

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The actual visit lasted two days and consisted of:

1. An interview with the principal.
2. A meeting with the ESL and bilingual staff in the building to get their perspectives on ELL services. The lead ESL teacher, when there was one, was also asked to complete a questionnaire (see Appendix B for pre-visit and during-visit questionnaires) in preparation for the visit.
3. A 30-minute meeting with the entire school staff during which we asked that they reflect on their schools' service for ELLs.
4. An interview with counselors and/or social workers and assistant principals.
5. Visits to classrooms that were identified as serving ELLs. We asked principals to choose a range of teachers, from strong to weak, for us to visit, and evaluated teachers using our sheltered instruction observation tool (Appendix C).
6. Spontaneous classroom visits and conversations with school staff.

We also left a note with each teacher about the nature of our evaluation and to thank them for participating.

Developing Interview Questions

Cronbach (1982) describes the phases in selecting interview questions for evaluations as *divergent* and *convergent*. During the divergent phase, the evaluator should cast a wide net with a wide variety of questions. In the divergent phase, the questions should be informed by the following considerations (Worthen & Sanders, 1987, p. 212):

1. Questions, concerns, and values of stakeholders
2. The use of evaluations, models or frameworks
3. Salient issues in education or evaluation materials
4. Known criteria drawn from relevant research literature
5. Professional standards
6. Views and knowledge of expert consultants
7. The evaluator's own professional judgment

In the sample case, the evaluation team was in conversation with the principals for several months prior to the launch of the site assessments. During these discussions, the team learned about the principals' concerns and began to develop a statement of purpose of the assessment, along with possible interview questions. Using the data submitted by the district and the information gleaned from the multiple meetings with the principals and the ESL leadership team, the evaluators developed the final interview questions. The intention of the interview was to provide a vehicle for conversation focused on what matters for ELLs' academic performance.

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At the same time, the interview had to be sufficiently open-ended to not limit information that could be offered, and directed enough to address each category of service to ELLs. After collecting a wide range of questions and issues, it is the job of the evaluator to engage in the convergent phase by selecting the most important ones for the particular stakeholders. In this case, the immediate stakeholders were the principals who commissioned the report, but of equal importance were the students, parents, administrators and teachers in the district.

Issues that arose during the interviews that required adaptation centered around the principal's knowledge, policies and agenda. Some principals believed that their school was providing a strong program for ELLs through their literacy program, the native language literacy program, or through their bilingual paraprofessionals. Others believed that their building's philosophy of not differentiating and providing a solid program for all students was excellent for ELLs. Another principal was using the site assessment as a prod to move the ESL professionals in the building to modify their approach to serving ELLs. The questions allowed us to have a conversation with the principals that revealed their beliefs and agendas.

Classroom Observation Tool

Classroom observations used an observation tool (Appendix C) based on best practices for English learners in sheltering instruction (Echevarria et al., 2008; Herrera & Murry, 2005; Hill & Flynn, 2006; Smiley & Salsberry, 2007) and is a modified form of the sheltered instruction observation protocol (SIOP) developed by Echevarria et al. (2008). Many elements of the tool mirror those by Echvarria et al.'s sheltered instruction protocol. However, from our years of experience in professional development with mainstream teachers, we have found that most difficult part of sheltering instruction for them is crafting and teaching appropriate language objectives. Therefore, we decided to put more emphasis in our observation tool on the way language objectives are expressed, and how they are tied semantically and syntactically to content objectives. We also paid close attention to the way that vocabulary and language structure are taught. Data gathered from classroom visits, both mainstream and ESL, gave us a picture of where classroom instruction was strong for ELLs, and where there was room for improvement.

Comparator Information

As mentioned earlier, we believe that a decision facilitation approach which allows school leaders to use our evaluation to make their own decisions is most likely to lead to school change. To help the district make decisions, we provided an overview of programming for ELLs from

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neighboring districts that had strong models. Comparison data from other districts included school demographics, the role of district leaders in program models for ELLs, program descriptions, relevant professional development for teachers, and system issues identified by administrators responsible for the ELL program.

Management and Analysis of the Data

Quantitative Data

Quantitative data for each school was put into tables that included total enrollment, percentage of ELLs and percent change in ELLs from the previous year (see Table 1 as an example). Also included were the proficiency levels of the students, based on statewide language proficiency tests. Although these data were available to school personnel from a variety of sources, it became clear to us that school leaders did not know the numbers of ELLs in their buildings, their proficiency levels, nor changes in demographics. Basic demographic information is foundational for them to make informed program decisions. Therefore, we provided tables of these data in individual site reports.

Table 1: Example of a School Data Report

	English Language Proficiency Composite Score				
	Total	**Beginners**	**Advanced Beginners**	**Intermediate**	**Advanced**
Total ELL, 06-07	297	30	83	116	68
Total enrollment	551				
% ELL	**54%**				
Total ELL, 07-08	325				
% change	+9%				

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data such as the data we gathered through interviews and questionnaires are best evaluated by using a two dimensional matrix with columns and rows (Brown & Rogers, 2002). Data can be organized by relevant categories listed in the first column and first row. When data is arranged on such a matrix, patterns in the data appear.

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For this study, it made sense to use the TESOL Access Brochure (1997) categories as one dimension of the matrix, and thus the resulting report was organized according to those categories:

1. access to a positive learning environment
2. access to appropriate curriculum
3. full delivery of services, and
4. equitable assessment

Each university evaluation team member was assigned to an individual school. The team member determined findings for each school building and completed the first level analysis of data for each of their sites, summarizing the data and identifying recommendations based on TESOL Access categories. These findings were brought to the entire evaluation team and evaluated for their strength, the evidence supporting them, and their relevance to the purpose of the study. This second level of analysis resulted in identification of district-level patterns as well. Once the findings were clear, recommendations were developed using our knowledge base of best practices for ELLs. Examples of recommendations included the need for professional development for administrators who work in schools with ELLs, and that language policy needed to be explicitly defined by the district.

Because each school differed in programming and demographics, findings and recommendations were written separately for each school, as shown in Appendix D. Preliminary reports were then sent to the principals, so that they had an opportunity to respond and ask for clarifications before the reports were published. Changes were minimal, and were only made if we found that we had stated something inaccurately.

Once the individual school findings and recommendations were completed, the team worked to identify themes evident across all schools. We started with the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008) (see Appendix E for a list of these standards). These standards address the common core knowledge, dispositions and performances that are the basis for administrator licensure tests. These standards are organized into themes by Smiley and Salsberry (2007) for a self-assessment of the primary attributes of effective principals of schools, these themes being: Vision & Leadership, Positive School Culture and Instructional Program, School Management, and School and Community. We tested the fit of these themes using school findings and reviewing the interviews with principals. To accommodate all the findings that emerged, the final themes for our example case were leadership, program, system issues, and teachers' professional development. Similar to

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the National Center for Education Statistics (2002) findings indicated at the beginning of this paper, we found that mainstream teachers and principals in this district both lacked the knowledge to design effective programs for ELLs.

We found the themes addressed school-level concerns, but did not allow us to highlight decisions and conditions created by the district level administration that had an impact at the site level. Thus, site leadership could be viewed as effective using Smiley and Salsberry's themes, but district decisions undermined the actual effectiveness. For example, we found the district bussing policy to be a huge factor impacting ESL programming. The district bussing policy mandated that students within two miles of the secondary and one mile of an elementary school walk to school. The policy unintentionally led students to switch schools. Sometimes students switched to charter schools that would bus them, and sometimes they switched to other schools in the district, but in either case, choices were made for non-academic reasons that confounded efforts to provide appropriate programming for ELL students. The concepts of neighborhood schools, programming provided before or after school, parent involvement, and student enrollment were all impacted by parents not wanting their children to walk to a given school.

Conclusion

Evaluating a program can provide much needed information about what is and what is not happening to support the schooling of ELLs. Once the data identify areas of need, it is important to move the collaboration to the next level of professional development. In our example case, most principals recognized early on their need to increase their own awareness of second language development in order to think about their ELL programming differently. The coalitions that formed between the principals and the district ESL leadership team helped secure district support for professional development for principals and other school leaders. As a result, we developed 20 hours of professional development around second language acquisition, language and cultural awareness, best practices in K-12 sheltered instruction, appropriate and effective assessment, and the necessary components of various program models. We worked with leaders on identifying language structures and extracting language objectives that could be explicitly taught to enhance the comprehension of content instruction. In addition to this professional development, we facilitated coaching and mentoring discussion groups so the district could continue to provide feedback to sites from within.

In our sample case, we were able to provide a valuable service to a school district. The findings had an impact on staffing decisions and program models. We felt we helped advance an

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agenda of concern to principals and district ESL staff that was not being heard by the larger district administration previously. Our evaluation and subsequent professional development occurred over a several year period, but the specificity with which we conducted the initial evaluation helped to create the roadmap we followed for professional development. Historically, we were often asked to provide professional development, but this experience has led us to insist that all professional development that we provide be preceded by a thorough program evaluation. It is only with this foundation that we can create professional development that is meaningful and more likely to lead to changes in how ELLs are serviced in the schools.

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Appendix A:

Principal Written Questionnaire and Interview Questions

Principal Questionnaire

Please help us understand your school from your perspective by being as thorough as possible. Please answer the questions on your own from own knowledge and experience. It is OK to say you don't know.

1. Cite up to five ways ESL students know their language and culture are valued in the school.
2. How do you describe the ELL service model in your school to prospective families?
3. Describe how your mainstream teachers meet the needs of ELLs.
4. What do you think the gaps in service are for ELLs?
5. How have ELLs fit into or changed your building?
6. Describe how your school regularly communicates with ELL families.
7. Describe how an ELL is transitioned from ESL services to full mainstream in your building.
8. Tell us how the capacity in your building meets the challenge of new arrivals, new language groups, bubbles of incoming students, and other sudden demographic changes.
9. How do you work with your partner schools (feeder schools) regarding ELLs?
10. Describe how ELLs are included in Special Education, Gifted and Talented, and other special population intake processes.
11. How is ELL data used to improve programs for individual students and for the building in general?

Interview Questions, Principal

A. Site Visit Questions Regarding the Schedule for the Two-Day Site Visit

1. What do I need to know prior to visiting classes and talking with staff?
2. What classes should I observe? 7 in total: 5 mainstream, strong, average and weak in their work with ELLs, and 2 ELL classes.

B. Program and Leadership Questions:

1. What challenges do you face in leading the ELL/NLL/BIED/ESL program?
2. What decisions have you been able to make that have strengthened the ELL/NLL/BIED/ESL program?

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3. What decisions are out of your hands that could weaken the ELL/NLL/BIED/ESL program?
4. If you could send a message to the district administration regarding ELL/NLL/BIED/ESL programs, what would that be?
5. What preparation have mainstream teachers had to teach ELLs?
6. What preparation have you had to lead a building with students who are linguistically diverse?

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Appendix B

ESL Department Questionnaire and Interview Questions

ESL Department Questions

The University evaluation team member will schedule a meeting with the staff who work with ELLs in native language literacy, bilingual or ESL programs. The following questions will be part of the interview/discussion. Please have written answers prepared for the first half of the questions and be prepared to discuss the others when we meet.

A. Please have written answers prepared when we meet at your school:

1. Describe the model of service to ELLs in your school.
2. How many ELL staff are in your building?
3. Describe how your mainstream teachers meet the needs of ELLs.
4. What do you think the gaps are in service to ELLs?
5. How have ELLs fit into or changed your building?
6. Describe how your school regularly communicates with ELL parents.
7. Describe a typical day for an ELL student in your school.
8. How does this typical day fit with best practice?
9. How do you work with your partner schools (feeder schools) regarding ELLs?

B. Be prepared to discuss this at our meeting:

1. Cite up to five ways ESL students know their language and culture are valued in the school.
2. Describe how an ELL is placed in a program and how s/he moves into the mainstream in your building.
3. Tell us about how the capacity in your building meets the challenge of new arrivals, new language groups, bubbles of incoming students, and other sudden demographic changes.
4. Describe how ELLs are managed in terms of Special Education, Gifted and Talented, and other special population intake processes.
5. How is student data used to improve programs for individual students and for the building in general?

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Appendix C

Sheltered Instruction Observation Tool

(Hamline University: Deirdre Kramer, Cynthia Lundgren and Ann Mabbott)

Teacher: **Date:**

Total # Students: _____ **#ELLS:** _______ **Approx ELP:** *Bgn Int Adv*

Instrucitonal Purpose:

Content Objectives:

I. Access

Classroom Check (How the Environment Supports Learning):

__ dynamic words visible from current instruction

__ visuals that support content objectives of current instruction

__ accessible references, meta-cognitive strategies that support student learning (thinking maps, steps to solve problems, order of operations, dictionaries and other word resources available in L1 and L2)

__ visually balanced

Multimodal Instruction

__ Reinforces oral language with written cues, written material on the board or overhead, and visual representations of academic concepts

__ Uses pictures, charts, graphs, maps, diagrams, props, and realia to support instruction

__ Gestures, & uses facial expressions and actions to demonstrate meaning

__ Uses multi-media and objects related to the subject matter

__ Models and guides instructional concepts

Teacher Modifies Speech

__ Adjusts rate and pace

__ Paraphrases, repeats

__ Adjust language to the level of the student

__ Limits idioms or slang

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Unit Planning

- __ Activating prior knowledge (linking to what students already know)
- __ Building Background (plugging holes)

Observation Notes:

II. Language

Objectives*:

__ Language Objective: Vocabulary

__ Language Objective: Grammatical Structure

__ Written for students to see

__ Read out loud for students to hear

**We assume objectives are linked to standards.*

Active Learning

- __ Plans activities that support objectives
- __ Creates opportunities for language production
- __ Provide practice with hands-on materials & manipulatives

Vocabulary (Bricks & Mortar):

- __ Words selected are relevant to content objectives

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__ Defines words in student friendly terms, max 10/week
__ Grammar structure supports students’ use of language related to the content objective

III. Interaction

Students are using modalities: __ listening __ speaking __ reading __ writing *Doing the following:* __ hands-on __ meaningful work __ linked to objectives __ engaged	*Students have the opportunity to work with language:* __ words related to the objectives __ language structure __ academic language function __ content, CALP
Recommendations:	

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Appendix D

Sample School Report

XXX Middle School

Summary of Findings and Recommendations

Access to a Positive Learning Environment: *School Environment*

Findings

1. School is attractive, clean with a calm, positive feeling. Interactions between students and teachers are positive and demonstrate caring relationships.
2. School visually represents the various cultures of students and highlights student work.
3. Office staff is friendly and helpful.
4. Administrative policies and practices create a climate characterized by linguistically and culturally appropriate learning experiences for ELLs. This is apparent through:
    a. Staffing for ESL newcomer program;
    b. Culturally sensitive decision-making regarding full access to curriculum such as PE; and
    c. Art classes reflect Islamic preferences and history.
5. Many teachers have taken some SIOP training.
6. Teacher advancement program goals focus on writing and academic oral responses (question stems) that support ELLs in academic discourse.

Recommendations

1. Teacher advancement program participation and accountability towards building goals not evidenced in ESL/BiEd classrooms. If these teachers are not part of teacher advancement program, it is recommended they participate. If they are, greater accountability to meet teacher advancement program goals is needed.
2. Clearly articulate ESL program for parents, students and staff.
3. Define goals of newcomer program and secure appropriate materials.

Access to a Positive Learning Environment: *Professional Development*

Finding

1. Teacher advancement program and mentoring have a strong, positive influence on quality of instruction.

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Recommendations

1. The connections between teacher advancement program initiatives and sheltered instruction (SIOP) need to be made explicit.
2. Professional development to reinforce the use of metacognitive posters and other materials found in classrooms (but little evidence of use).
3. Professional development to support the sheltering of instruction for those ELs exited from newcomer program and in mainstream classes.
4. Use the in-house expertise on scaffolding for language and content objectives, and increasing student academic discourse to lead these discussions.

Access to Positive Learning Environment: *Parental Involvement*

Finding

1. XXX has strong community ties and good parental participation in conferences.

Recommendations

1. Continue to advocate in the community. The presence of a Pre-IB program will also be of great interest to EL families. The process for students to move through ESL and into other instructional opportunities needs to be clear and transparent for families, students and staff.
2. (Continue to) Educate families on schooling expectations and graduation requirements. If EL families understand these cultural expectations better, and how the school can help advance students to meet the expectations, the ESL program and the school may be in a better position to attract and keep students.

Access to Appropriate Curriculum

Finding

1. Teacher advancement program goals and mentors have had a very positive influence on classroom instruction that also serves ELLs.

Recommendations

1. Define the goals of the newcomer program and align these goals with content standards. Instructional decisions should be easier to discern once goals are transparently described.
2. Determine authentic assessment criteria for meeting standards.
3. Balance the social-emotional needs of students with high academic expectations.
4. Explore academic software programs that require greater language output for academic purposes, or re-evaluate the time/learning benefit of current programs (i.e., Rosetta Stone).
5. Increase focus on comprehension through a Language Experience Approach to literacy.

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6. Balance language development across the four modalities (writing, listening, speaking) in addition to the primary focus on reading.
7. Increase use of manipulatives for math class; look into more appropriate texts for range of students.

Access to Full Delivery of Services

Findings

1. XXX does a phenomenal job being attuned to students' cultural needs and recognizing that difference is larger than language. This is an orientation/model that would benefit other programs in the district.
2. The academic focus (and overall purpose) of the newcomer program is scattered and unclear. Despite the priority of this program, the collaboration among the team, and the leveling for small group instruction, there is little evidence of a scope and sequence or a developmental sequence for either language development or content skill development.

Recommendations

Many of the recommendations in the preceding section apply here as well.

1. Use content standards and ELP standards (TESOL standards may also be helpful) to define program goals.
2. Increase use of teaching language through the content.
3. Use the bilingual instructional model for math.
4. Use manipulatives and/or labs to better support language through the science content.
5. Extend native culture curriculum/stories into written and oral language opportunities in English. These native culture opportunities can be woven into content standards and maintain this important cultural link.

Access to Equitable Assessment

Finding

1. There are many data sources that are gathered to improve programs for students.

Recommendations

1. Authentic classroom measures should guide instructional decision-making, especially with respect to language. These authentic measures are more appropriate for second language learners and should be used formatively and summatively.
2. Clearly define program goals in order to support equitable, purposeful assessment.

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Appendix E

Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards

Educational Leadership Policy Standards: ISLLC 2008 organizes the functions that help define strong school leadership under six standards. These standards represent the broad, high-priority themes that education leaders must address in order to promote the success of every student. These six standards call for:

1. Setting a widely shared vision for learning;
2. Developing a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth;
3. Ensuring effective management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment;
4. Collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources;
5. Acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner; and
6. Understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, legal, and cultural contexts.

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Chapter Ten

Conversation Analysis as a Methodology for Examining Teacher Knowledge in Practice

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To date, language teacher education research that juxtaposes teachers' declarative knowledge (i.e., explicit understanding of teaching) and procedural knowledge (i.e., actual classroom practices) remains minimal. To enhance understanding of how these two representations of knowledge connect to one another, the current paper proposes a triangulation of (a) ethnographic data sources that have been commonly utilized in research to gather teachers' declarative knowledge with (b) classroom interaction data collected and examined using the methodology of conversation analysis (CA), a discourse analytic approach that examines the systematic structure of sequences-of-talk. The findings illustrate the complementary and contradictory nature of one teacher's declarative and procedural knowledge, with CA providing a microanalytic lens into the teacher's moment-by-moment construction of her classroom communicative practices. The paper concludes by addressing the methodological advantages for such a triangulation in future language teacher education research.

Introduction

For more than two decades, teacher knowledge has been a prominent area of investigation in the field of second and foreign language teacher education insomuch as it has been shown to influence language learning in the classroom (Barkhuizen & Borg, 2010). The origins of language teacher knowledge scholarship stem from prior research conducted in (a) cognitive psychology, including work done on second and foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 2008); and (b) teacher knowledge domain studies in general education (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Shulman, 1987; Turner-Bissett, 2001). Prominent ideas derived from the work in cognitive psychology have particularly focused on the concepts of declarative and procedural knowledge. Language learning researchers have defined knowledge in their studies as either being declarative (i.e., learners' perceived internal understanding of a concept) or procedural (learners' implementation of strategies in real-time language usage) (Ellis, 1985; Sorace, 1985). Utilizing these ideas to address teacher learning in general education, Kagan (1992) argues that for novice teachers the former is much easier to grasp than the latter since procedural knowledge appears to more fully surface with greater experience in the classroom. It is therefore not surprising that, as a bridge between the fields of language learning and general teacher education, the terms declarative and procedural knowledge have also been utilized in language teacher learning, albeit

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to a much lesser extent. To illustrate, Andrews (1997) describes the connection between teachers' metalinguistic awareness of the English language and their explanation of grammar in their teaching, thus showing the potential for alignment and disparity between teachers' declarative and procedural knowledge of English grammar.

To a greater extent, the language teacher knowledge literature has taken cues from general education teacher research on knowledge domains, resulting in a general dissemination between knowledge *about* the field of language teaching and knowledge of *how* to teach (i.e., the skills of teaching) (Borg, 2011; Richards, 2008). While this distinction provides a general overview of what teachers are expected to know, most researchers in the field of language teaching have divided these concepts into multiple domains (Graves, 2009). Of those domains, *content knowledge* (Shulman, 1987) has garnered much attention. For language teaching, this is often considered knowledge of applied linguistics (Bartels, 2005), specifically knowledge of linguistic structures and second language acquisition (SLA) theories. Most findings from studies examining this teacher knowledge domain have come from ethnographic data sources such as interviews, questionnaires, or other recollection data (Angelova, 2005; Busch, 2010). Another commonly investigated domain is knowledge of how to teach, known as *pedagogical knowledge* (Shulman, 1987) or *pedagogical expertise* (Richards & Farrell, 2005). The focus of this set of research tends to examine teachers' classroom management in relaying the content to the learners; through the use of recollection data and glosses of classroom interaction, it has been found that learners understand the content when teachers (a) present materials to learners that are at a suitable level depending on their individual needs (Hillocks, Jr., 1999); (b) allow sufficient wait time for learners to understand the questions, consider the answer and formulate it (Richards, 1998); (c) enable learners to work with one another in such a way that they foster each other's learning (Long, 1985); (d) assess learner knowledge and facilitate interaction through feedback (Ellis, 2007); (e) incorporate learners' contributions into the lesson (Gatbonton, 2008).

While content and pedagogical knowledge are the focal points in most studies, other knowledge domains have been found to have equal importance. Richards and Farrell (2005) describe the need for teachers to understand the type of curriculum in which they work and the alternatives that could be used. Roberts (1998) emphasizes the need for language teachers to understand the context in which they educate, including having knowledge of the specific populations of learners (e.g., first language, country of origin) and the community in which one works. Farrell (2007) explains the importance for teachers to have knowledge of how to reflect

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on their teaching, a process that Borg (2006) stresses should be done throughout the course of a teacher's career. This includes thinking about how the previously discussed knowledge domains interact with one another and surface in teacher practice (Fagan, 2012b).

As can be seen, much has been learned in terms of what teachers are expected to know in order to provide opportunities for language learning in their classrooms. In fact, as Fagan (2012b) shows in his critical analysis of the language teacher education literature, the majority of this research consists of empirical studies utilizing traditional ethnographic data collection and analysis techniques (e.g., interviews, focused group sessions, journals) that focus on teachers' declarative knowledge. While these sources provide much in terms of teachers' conscious understanding of their formal learning, a lack of juxtaposition with actual classroom interactions questions the research validity of studies setting out to investigate teacher knowledge directly connecting with practice. What has been examined to a much lesser extent in this literature is teacher procedural knowledge; in other words, the actualization of classroom practices (Borg, 2006). When classroom interaction data have been utilized in teacher education studies, they are most often presented as glosses of discourse; these analyses do not detail the intricate constructions of teacher-learner and learner-learner interactions and may fail to show the various nuances of teacher knowledge surfacing in the classroom. Thus, the purpose of the current paper is to enhance our understanding of one language teacher's knowledge actualized in classroom communicative practices by triangulating findings from (a) ethnographic data sources commonly used to gather teachers' declarative knowledge with (b) classroom interaction data collected and examined using conversation analysis, a methodology that recently has been incorporated in examinations of language learning opportunities in classroom interactions but to date has not been extensively utilized in the field of language teacher knowledge and, more generally, language teacher education.

Conversation Analysis: Insights Into Language Teacher Practices

To orient the current study, it is necessary to understand the methodology of conversation analysis (CA) and how it has provided insights into language teacher practices in classroom interactions. CA, which is one approach to discourse analysis (Schiffrin, 1994), is a systematic study of talk "account[ing] for the sequential structure of talk-in-interaction in terms of interlocutors' real time orientations to…turn-taking" (Markee, 2000, p. 25). This is accomplished through intricate analyses into how interlocutors construct their turns-at-talk via how they orient to others' prior turns-at-talk, thus showing how the organization of sequences-

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of-interaction is co-constructed (Schegloff, 2007). Originally utilized in analyzing ordinary conversations (Goodwin, 1980; Jefferson, 1974; Pomerantz, 1984; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974), CA eventually became used in classroom discourse (Baker, 1992; McHoul, 1978). It has more recently been introduced to examinations of second and foreign language classroom interactions, for CA methodology not only provides detail on instructional practices that either promote or hinder language learning (Lerner, 1995), but also "has the capacity to examine in detail how opportunities for L2 learning arise in interactional activities" (Kasper, 2006, p. 83).

To do a CA examination entails analyzing what all participants are doing in an interaction. For classroom discourse analyses, it is important to examine both the teacher's and learners' turns equally, for each interlocutor's turn is projected from what has come prior. This analysis first occurs by transcribing the interaction through an intricate transcription system which shows the various interactional resources used with communication, including pacing, voice quality (i.e., pitch, stress, intonation), pausing, overlapping, and the use of nonverbal conduct (i.e., eye contact, body torque, gestures, facial expressions) (see appendix for key). The CA transcription system is illustrated in excerpt 1, which is taken from a brief interaction between a teacher and learner in an advanced English learning adult classroom. Here, learners have completed a worksheet where they matched pictures with their corresponding idioms. The teacher (designated by "T") has just finished going over the first question and is now asking the learners (designated by "S") about the second:

Excerpt 1: As Quiet as a Church Mouse

1 T: {((looks at paper))- and there was one from ↑uh (0.8) the picture (0.2) ↑of
2 (0.2) in the city?} {((looks back to Ss))- how would you describe the city.}
3 S1: °as quiet as [a church mouse.°]
4 S2: [as quiet as a] mouse
5 T: {((looks to Ana)- ri::ght.} {((looks to whole class))- as quiet as a mou:se? as
6 quiet as a church mouse.= right?}
7 Ss: ((nodding))

While simultaneously looking at her paper, the teacher asks how the city was described. S1 in line 3 quietly gives the full answer, "as quiet as a church mouse," with S2 overlapping with a acceptable answer of "as quiet as a mouse." Possibly because S2 had spoken louder, the teacher in line 5 addresses her with a positive assessment ("right"), but then moves her eye gaze to the whole class where she restates the entire idiom with emphasis on "church," the word that was

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not said. As presented here, CA's in-depth transcription allows for an emic examination of the data, which shows how the participants themselves are orienting to one another's turns-at-talk, as opposed to an etic examination, where it is the researcher who imparts his own interpretation of the data.

One overarching research focus of much discourse analytic research in L2 classrooms has been on teachers' communicative practices, for teachers are regarded as the ones who most often control classroom communication (Johnson, 1995). This has been equally true for CA researchers investigating teacher turns that initiate, expand, or restrict learner participation. Teacher initiations have often been analyzed as part of the triadic sequence[1] commonly found in classroom discourse. Generally in classroom interaction research, teacher questions have been most commonly investigated for their invitingness of substantial learner interaction. The notion of teacher display questions, or *known-information questions* (Mehan, 1979), have been shown to restrict subsequent learner responses (Hall, 1998; Long & Sato, 1983; Nystrand, 1997; Wells, 1993). In contrast, referential questions, or those to which teachers do not know the answers, have been viewed as providing more opportunities for expansive learner interaction in subsequent turns (Brock, 1986; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). CA studies, though, tend to focus on investigating larger sequences of interaction (Jefferson, 1986). In so doing, researchers can determine if patterns are present when teachers perform certain communicative practices. Lee (2006), for example, saw that when the teacher made a succession of display questions that incorporated learners' prior utterances, learner interaction would subsequently become more robust. In Young and Miller's (2004) study examining a native English-speaking tutor and non-native English-speaking tutee's interactions over the course of a semester, they found that the tutee initiated more of the talk as the semester progressed. The authors conclude that by seeing the tutor on a regular basis utilizing revision talk, the tutee gradually moved from a peripheral participant to being a full participant in that specific practice.

Teacher talk has also been examined in the third turn of the triadic sequence for its expansion or restriction of learner participation. Within the field of CA specifically, this has included examining the influences of teacher feedback in larger sequences-of-talk. For example, Waring (2008) and Wong and Waring (2009) showed that when teachers provided an explicit positive assessment (e.g., "very good") to a learner's correct response, others in the class would

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[1] Many terms have been used for this triadic sequence: IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) (Mehan, 1979), QAC (Question-Answer-Comment) (McHoul, 1978); the triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1990). For the purposes of this study, I utilize "triadic sequence" to encompass of all these.

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orient to this as closing the sequence regardless if there were any further questions or comments about the topic. In examining the various interactional resources teachers use with “okay” in the third turn, Fagan (2012) found that learners would orient to this word as either providing positive or negative feedback depending on which resources accompanied it (e.g., elongation of sound, change in pitch, nonverbal conduct). In his study, Walsh (2002) emphasized the need for teachers to make explicit the purpose of their third turns for learners. For example, he saw that when teachers used echoing at potential feedback turns, learners were unsure of its purpose, whether as a recast, a non-corrective repetition, or a request to increase one’s volume. When responding to unexpected learner responses, Fagan (2011) showed the various constructions of one novice teacher *disattending to the learners’ voices* in the third turn by (a) closing down engaging or potentially engaging sequences where learners could provide mediation for one another; (b) reformulating the learners’ answers to fit the teacher’s own agenda, in essence not attending to the learner’s actual contribution; or (c) treating answers as incorrect without scaffolding learners toward an understanding of the language point.

More recent CA studies have examined how teachers can promote or hinder learner participation when it is the learner who initiates the sequence-of-talk. In Waring’s (2009) study, the teacher would allow expansion on learner-initiated sequences at major sequential boundaries in the lesson (e.g., as an activity was coming to a close). In one instance, a learner at the end of an activity asked a question regarding the correctness of a previously discussed answer. The sequence was allowed to proceed before the class moved on to the subsequent activity, thus demonstrating an explicit shift in the interaction to focus on the learner’s immediate needs. Concurrently, Jacknick (2009) saw that learner-initiated sequences were restricted when done in overlap with the teacher beginning a new activity. In examining the learning of Chinese, He (2004) found that the teacher did not respond to learners’ questions that would have initiated a topic, “in effect interactionally delete[ing] the learner’s initiation of topic” (p. 570).

The literature presented here illustrates how the microanalytic methodology of conversation analysis provides insight into the construction of sequences-of-talk based on how the teacher and learners orient to one another’s prior turns. From the perspective of the teacher’s turns, numerous studies have illustrated the various communicative practices used to (a) initiate learner participation, (b) expand learner responses to teacher initiations or learner-initiated sequences, or (c) restrict further learner participation from occurring. While these studies have followed a more traditionally “pure” CA framework for analysis, where the sole source for examination lies with the transcript itself, more recent studies in the field of language learning

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have sought to understand not only the interactions in the language classroom but also the reasoning for that conduct. This has more prominently been approached in research by triangulating the microanalytic lens of CA with, among other methodological frameworks, that of ethnography. Waring and Hruska (2011), for example, demonstrate how the triangulation of CA data analysis with that of ethnographic data gathering measures (e.g., analysis of lesson plans, post-observation session with teacher trainer) provides a richer understanding of how one student teacher attempts to manage engagement with an elementary school English language learner in an after-school literacy program activity. The authors state that it is the strength of each framework that addresses the methodological limitations of the other: the ethnographic data provides much in terms of background knowledge to the interactions without fully addressing the intricacies of those interactions while the CA data provides a moment-by-moment account for interaction construction without addressing potential background reasoning behind such construction. In relating this to the field of language teacher knowledge, the current paper sets out to triangulate ethnographic data sources that have been traditionally used to address teacher's declarative knowledge with CA microanalyses of classroom interaction that show the moment-by-moment construction of teacher's procedural knowledge in communicative practices; it is this triangulation that will aid in the development of a more thorough understanding of how teacher knowledge is actualized in practice.

Method

Research Site and Participants

Data for this paper come from an intensive Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) certificate program at a major university in the United States and is part of a larger case study examining the development of language teacher talk. The focus of the program was to prepare student teachers (hereafter referred to as "teachers") to teach English to adults either in English as a Second Language (ESL) or in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings. Over the course of eight weeks, teachers took intensive courses in TESOL Methods and Pedagogical Linguistics, partook in practica, and had smaller modules in SLA theory, Language Assessment, and Intercultural Pragmatics. Every Friday teachers had the opportunity to teach one 45-minute class session in an ESL community-based program affiliated with the university. The courses in this program follow a theme-based syllabus and are comprised of residents from the surrounding neighborhood whose goal is to improve English for living in the United States.

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The teacher participant, Jill,[2] was in her mid-20s and did not have previous explicit teacher education,[3] nor had she taught in a classroom prior to being in this program. The course in which Jill taught was advanced as deemed by the program's placement test. Due to the nature of the study, it was imperative to choose a class where not only the teacher gave consent to participate, but also all of the language learners. In addition to Jill, all 15 ESL learners in the class, including six from Japan, three from the Dominican Republic, two from Germany, and one each from France, Colombia, Brazil, and Taiwan, consented to being in the study.

Data Collection and Analysis

Journal writing is often used for data collection to ascertain what declarative knowledge teachers are explicitly aware of and perceive themselves to be using (Farrell, 2007). In the certificate program, teachers were required to keep weekly journals of their teaching experiences, focusing on (a) the positive attributes of the previously taught lesson, (b) concerns that they had regarding the teaching, (c) questions that they wanted their practicum instructor to answer, and (d) hopes for what they wanted to accomplish in the next lesson taught. The practicum instructor explicated that teachers were to make connections between their responses and the courses they were taking in the program. Prior to receiving her consent, Jill was made aware that her journals were to be collected every Monday over the course of five weeks. The journals were analyzed using a deductive coding procedure (Bernard, 2006) utilizing the contemporary language teacher knowledge domain categories described in Richards and Farrell (2005): subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical expertise, self-awareness, understanding of learners, understanding of curriculum and materials, career advancement, and knowledge of reflection (p. 9). It is this coding system that led to the formation of cohesive categories of teacher knowledge domains on which Jill would focus.

Aligning with Heath, Hindmarsh, and Luff (2010), who assert that videotaping as opposed to audio recording allows for more insight into the interactive context in which one is analyzing, five hours of Jill's teaching sessions (out of a total of eight hours) were videotaped for this study. Prior to the taping, neither Jill nor the researcher knew which segments would be focused on, thus preventing her from boosting or shying away from any one component of her teaching. The videos were transcribed using a modified version of Gail Jefferson's (1984) original system for the verbal interaction in combination with a nonverbal transcription system

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[2] All names are pseudonyms.

[3] It should be noted that although novice teachers may not have had prior explicit training, I acknowledge that they have had experience in the classroom as a student, termed their *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie, 1975), which can influence the manner in which they teach.

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incorporated by Waring (2008) (see appendix). After the journal data were coded, line-by-line analyses of the transcripts were done to connect Jill's practices in moment-by-moment real-time (i.e., her procedural knowledge) with her declarative knowledge from the journals.

Once connections were made between the journal and CA findings, two stimulated recall sessions were conducted and audio recorded after (a) the third and fifth journal entries were analyzed and (b) corresponding excerpts were examined. Stimulated recall sessions are not new to teacher knowledge studies (Brice-Heath & Street, 2008), nor are they new to being triangulated with conversation analytic examinations of teacher practices (Lazaraton & Ishihara, 2005). In these cases, teachers watch their practices and report back their thought processes. As previously mentioned, the use of CA allows for more intricate examinations of classroom interactions. The incorporation of stimulated recall data with CA analyses in these sessions therefore allows teachers to more easily recall and discuss their moment-by-moment decision-making. Prior to these sessions, Jill was briefly instructed on CA transcription. Immediately before viewing the excerpts, she was also made aware of the findings from the journal data and asked if this was an accurate perception of the points she wanted to make. After discussing and agreeing with the data, she watched specific video excerpts that were connected to the journal findings, and then read over the CA transcripts of those excerpts. Here, Jill elaborated on the similarities and discrepancies between the journal and CA analyses, as well as clarified other information that may not have been salient in the previous two data sources. It was through this triangulation that a more encompassing picture of Jill's language teacher knowledge put into practice emerged.

Findings

To further the understanding of how one teacher's declarative knowledge is actualized in practice, the current study presents a triangulation of data sources, including (a) the use of teacher journal writings that traditionally have been used in teacher knowledge research to show teacher declarative knowledge, and (b) intricate examinations of classroom communicative practice (i.e., procedural knowledge) through the methodology of conversation analysis. The findings indicate that the application of CA methodology, which illustrate the moment-by-moment teacher/learner co-construction of classroom interactions, can illustrate a complementary or contradictory nature between one teacher's declarative and procedural knowledge, with subsequent stimulated recall sessions with the teacher provide the rationale for

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such similarities and differences. In the following sections, each of these will be discussed in more detail.

Conversation Analytic Data as Complementary

In this section, specific video excerpts taken from Jill's teaching sessions exemplify conversation analytic findings as being complementary to the findings from the journal data, thus exemplifying alignment between Jill's declarative and procedural knowledge of teaching. The first example comes from Jill's third week of teaching, where the topic of effective classroom management, a key component of pedagogical expertise (Richards & Farrell, 2005), continuously surfaces in her journal entry. Since the start of the program, the practicum teacher had emphasized the importance of classroom management and its various components, among them the concept of giving clear instructions for activities. After the third week of teaching, Jill described in her journal that:

Journal Extract 1: Directions

> "I want to change starting next week…mak[e] my directions clear and to the point. I had too many blank stares and lots of lost [learners]. I know it's because my directions weren't clear. I guess I was all over the place in the verbal directions. I don't know, but I need to make it short, simple, direct."

Upon investigating this journal entry, it was apparent that the learners' facial expressions and lack of understanding in the activities were the impetus for Jill to focus on her direction giving. However, she appeared to be at a loss for what specifically were the problems, only knowing that she needed to "make it short, simple, direct." Indeed, Jill concurred prior to the stimulated recall session that she was not exactly sure what it meant to have short, simple instructions.

Upon closer investigation into the prior week's videotaped lesson, there were indeed patterns that surfaced in her talk that lead to confusion among the learners. Excerpt 2 shows one example of this teacher's elongated directions. Jill had asked learners to write a letter in which they were to use various idioms unknown to others in the class. Once finished, they were to exchange their letters with a partner who would attempt to guess the meanings of the idioms based on contextual clues. After waiting for the learners to finish writing their own letters, Jill is now explaining the reason for exchanging papers:

Excerpt 2: Does That Make Sense?

1 Jill: → $alright. good.$ okay. the reason why (.) i'm (0.4) asked you to switch was
2 because (0.8) your neighbor (.) is going to read your letter out loud.

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3		(1.2)
4		and (.) this is because (0.6) sometimes what we put on the paper? (2.0) may
5		not be exactly what we meant to say? so if you're- you know if ↑i'm (0.2) if i
6		take my own letter and reading it out loud would say (0.6) oh wait i didn't
7		mean to really say that.= i meant to say (0.2) uhm (.) you know >blah blah
8		blah< x y and z:.
9		(1.4)- ((Jill smiles; Ss look forward blankly))
10		but it's what's on the paper and (0.2) you know that matters.
11		(1.2)- ((Jill looks around class; Ss look forward blankly))
12		does that make sense?
13		(1.4)- ((Jill looks around class; Ss look forward blankly))
14		okay.
		((lines omitted- talking about the air conditioner))
15		come on up.
16		(1.0)
17		{<$come on up.$>- ((waves her hands up very slowly))}
18		(1.0)
19		>i'm gonna< try to get to as many of you as i can.= so:.
20		{(1.6)- ((looks around room))}
21		↑tim. go ahead. come on up here and read. so [whi-]
22	Tim:	[↑ mine] or other [person's.]
23	Jill:	[no.]
24		your uh: the- r↑itsu's. The- you- your partner's. yeah. so come on over and
25		read the one that you have in your hand.

The excerpt begins with Jill making a slight shift in focus away from the importance of exchanging papers to reading papers aloud in order to notice the discrepancy between what was written and what was intended (lines 4-5). What compounds the shift is Jill's use of herself as an illustration of the practice (lines 5-8). During her account, she utilizes different cues that focus on self, such as higher pitch on "I'm" (line 5) and stress on "own" (line 6). It is now unclear in the talk as to whether the reading aloud is to be done by others or by the authors themselves, as the purpose of exchanging papers is no longer conspicuous. A 1.4-second gap develops in line 9 where the learners give no apparent verbal or nonverbal displays of understanding. Orienting to this, perhaps, Jill upgrades the severity of the potential discrepancy between what learners mean to say and what is written on the paper, moving further away from the notion of exchanging papers. This is also followed by another apparent absence of learner uptake in line 11; Jill orients to this silence as the learners possibly not fully understanding her directions, as is shown in her

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confirmatory question “Does that make sense” in line 12. For a third time, there is no display of learner understanding.

As can be seen, the totality of Jill’s turn in and of itself is ambiguous in that the account for her direction (i.e., reading aloud to notice a discrepancy between what is written and what is intended) does not align with the actual direction of exchanging papers. Not surprisingly, the learners on three viable occasions (lines 9, 11, 13) do not display any explicit understanding of Jill’s directions. It is Tim’s response in line 22 that solidifies the silence as learner confusion. He is unclear on whether to read his own letter or his partner’s, to which Jill confirms that he is to read his partner’s letter. Indeed, it is the lack of fit between the teacher’s directions and her account for them that leave learners at a loss for how to participate in the activity.

For this excerpt, the CA examination not only supports what was found in the journal data but also details one issue Jill has with giving instructions to her class: only knowing that the directions needed to be more concise as opposed to understanding what characteristics of her direction-giving were problematic for learners. Upon viewing the video and reading through the excerpt, Jill explained her thought process in the subsequent stimulated recall session:

Stimulated Recall Extract 1: It’s All About Me

> “Wow, I didn’t realize how confusing [the directions] are… I’m justifying more than directing. Well, I do feel like I need to give reasons for my activities because I am a new teacher and they know that…. Huh, it’s all about me, me, me (laughter).”

As stated, Jill is concerned about the learners’ perceptions of her as a novice instructor. In so believing, she provides an account (i.e., justification) for why she is having the learners exchange papers. It is this justification that confuses the learners; as opposed to giving direct explanations, she detours the purpose of her talk without returning to the original purpose. As shown, the use of CA allows for a further in-depth understanding of Jill’s issues with direction-giving, one component of classroom management falling under the domain of pedagogical knowledge/expertise (Richards & Farrell, 2005). The interactional resources used in the justification, including changes in focus, pitch, and stress, as well as the use of hurried speech, allowed for a misunderstanding between teacher and learners. It was not until numerous lines later in the interaction that this was made evident by a learner displaying his confusion, thus allowing Jill to clarify the learners’ roles in the activity.

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Conversation Analytic Data as Contradictory

In addition to complementing, CA findings can also contradict what was emphasized in the journal data, showing a perceivable divide between the teacher's declarative and procedural knowledge. In the next example taken from Jill's first post-teaching journal entry, she focused on trying to incorporate her new knowledge of SLA theories into her teaching practices. As she had only been introduced to them a few days prior to her first teaching experience, her understanding of them is vague and not entirely accurate; nevertheless, they are present through the entire three-page journal entry. In the following entry, Jill views Stephen Krashen's hypotheses of language learning as being applicable to and necessary for language learners in her classroom:

Journal Extract 2: Affective Filter

> "After learning about the affective filter, I realize I need to take into account students' filters as my top priority… so as to guide them effectively through activities…It is necessary for me to know what they understand and why; what's difficult for them or what's easy."

When presented with the journal data at the beginning of the first stimulated recall session, Jill confirmed that indeed SLA theory was at the forefront of her thinking as she both planned her lesson and taught. She herself admitted to not clearly understanding the different theories, but had come to the realization that they must be of direct importance to her teaching if the program deemed it necessary for teachers to learn them. This alone is not surprising, as the emphasis on understanding SLA theories is usually found in language teacher education programs (Bartels, 2005). Regarding the affective filter hypothesis, Jill stated that it was her job to get learners to "explicate their concerns…and for [her] to show an understanding and work through them."

The CA data from that first week showed components of Jill's teaching attempting to parallel her journal writing but not following through. In excerpt 3, learners had just finished doing a fill-in the blank exercise with various idioms. Jill is now asking the learners about the process:

Excerpt 3: Speechless

```
1  Jill:      how was that.
2          →  {(4.2)- ((Jill raises eyebrows & smiles at Ss; Ss look ahead or tilt head))}
3             .hh $speechless?$
4             (0.4)- ((Jill looks around class; Ss look at each other and smile))
5             °okay.° $speechless.$
```

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6 Miki: °difficult.°
7 Jill: <how was it. {>what?<- ((changes her body position towards Miki))}
8 Miki: difficult.
9 Jill: difficult. oka:y. {°it's okay. °- ((nodding))}
10 (2.0) – ((Jill smiles and nods towards Miki; Miki leans forward))
11 → {wh-((moves from looking at Miki))} {(0.4)- ((looks at clock and then
12 down))}{((looks back at all Ss))-let's see how you did.} so let's uhm:: (.) why
13 don't you exchange (.) your paper with the person sitting next to you.

The excerpt begins with Jill's initiation in the form of asking about the writing process, to which the learners do not provide verbal responses but instead tilt their heads confusingly or look ahead at the board (line 2). Jill appears to orient to the learner's turn as not having anything to say about the process. The manner in which the word "speechless" is given in line 3 says much about the way Jill orients to the lack of a verbal response to her initiation. First, it is said in a jokingly nervous voice quality, indicating that the learner's lack of a verbal answer in line 2 was a dispreferred response (Pomerantz, 1984). Second, the word ends with rising intonation, often used to question the previous turn (Bean & Patthey-Chavez, 1994); in this case, Jill is asking the learners to confirm the reason for their silence. After looking around the room for a second time (line 4), Jill quietly says "okay" and repeats the word "speechless" with falling intonation. The combination of "okay" in this instance, which can indicate acknowledgment of a previous response (Fagan, 2012), and "speechless" with falling intonation, indicating an acceptance of the prior turn (Bean & Patthey-Chavez, 1994), does in fact show Jill's acceptance that the learners are not going to respond to her initial question, leading her to begin another initiation in line 7 with "how was it…"

Up to this point, there is evidence that Jill is attempting to get learners to explicate their concerns and understandings, similar to what was mentioned in the journal data. She is successful in that one learner, Miki, provides a response in line 6. After not initially realizing that a learner had given an answer, Jill in line 7 asks Miki to repeat her answer, which she does in line 8. In repeating the learner's answer in line 9 with emphasized stress, Jill is acknowledging Miki's contribution (Hellermann, 2003). After providing Miki assurance that her perception of the activity as "difficult" is fine, Jill at the beginning of line 11 begins to ask a question starting with wh- while maintaining eye contact with Miki, indicating a continuation of the sequence with Miki to potentially "work through" the difficulty she had with the activity. However, Jill abruptly stops what was being said. This is coincidentally done at the same time she notices the

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time on the clock. After a brief pause in her turn, during which she breaks eye contact with Miki and looks up at the ceiling, Jill looks back up but this time at the entire class. It is here that she proceeds to the activity. Within this turn, there are both verbal and nonverbal cues showing Jill's explicit change in the direction of the interaction. The pivot after "wh" shows an abrupt cut off of the turn; the change in eye contact from Miki to the clock, the ceiling, and eventually the entire class also indicates a change to whom Jill's turn is directed (Goodwin, 1980).

The CA examination of this excerpt appears to contradict what was learned from the journal data: Jill's priority on learner's affective filters (or at least her interpretation of this) is second to continuing with the activity in light of the timeframe. The stimulated recall data, however, presents a more complex understanding of teacher knowledge in practice. Upon seeing the excerpt and reading through the transcript, Jill professed:

Stimulated Recall Extract 2: Follow the Curriculum

> "Well, I had to get through the activity. This is essential for the [next part of the lesson]. In the end, I need to help them and [the regular teacher] get through this chapter so that they can move to the next level…I'm just trying to follow the curriculum here."

From this excerpt, Jill's abrupt decision to stop working through the difficulty Miki had with the activity was due to her "need" to help the learners and the regularly scheduled teacher for this class get through the chapter as mandated by the program. Knowledge of the curriculum (Richards & Farrell, 2005), or rather Jill's understanding of the curriculum, appears to be dominating her decision at this point in the lesson to change her interactive direction. Her interpretation of the curriculum at this point appears to be one that holds a strict timeline and needs to get learners from one level of English to the next.

To clarify if this is what she wanted to do in the classroom, Jill further stated that it was a "spur of the moment decision…I don't know how to work with the constraints of theory and the curriculum." Like the teachers in Kagan's (1992) study, Jill as a novice teacher struggles with her procedural knowledge; in this case, though, the difficulty appears to be in reconciling the different domains of content and curricular knowledge. Her ultimate decision, as exemplified in the CA examination of the interaction, is a shift away from her initial focus on addressing learners' needs to focusing her attention on the perceived curricular needs.

In sum, the findings from Jill's journal writing data explicate her declarative knowledge of feeling the need to implement her understanding of SLA theories into her communicative practices. Unlike the journal data, however, the CA examinations provide insight into Jill's

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procedural knowledge by detailing the moment-by-moment constructions of the classroom interactions, ultimately showing a potential contradiction with her declarative knowledge. In turn, the CA findings also provided the impetus for further insight into this alignment/disalignment via subsequent teacher stimulated recall sessions: a potential discord in reconciling different domains of teacher knowledge in her communicative practices.

Conclusions

In addressing the larger call from the language teacher education field for further empirical studies examining actual classroom practices (Borg, 2006), the aim of the current study was to enhance understanding of one teacher's, Jill's, declarative knowledge of language teaching being actualized in her communicative practices (i.e., procedural knowledge) by triangulating analyses and findings from (a) the teacher's weekly post-teaching journal writings, a common source of data used in much language teacher education research; and (b) conversation analytic methods of discourse analysis allowing for intricate examinations of the teacher's communicative practices. The use of both data sources allowed for further insight into the complementary and contradictory nature of Jill's declarative and procedural knowledge. The microanalytic lens of CA details the various interactional resources used by Jill and the ESL learners to co-construct the sequences-of-talk in the classroom interaction. These data also provided exemplars of Jill's communicative practices that were not self-evident from the journal writing data. On one occasion, the CA examination uncovers the struggle Jill has with her direction-giving: over the course of one long direction-giving turn, Jill not only provides the activity's directions but also gives an account (i.e., reasoning) for them. The account veers away from the focus of the directions, thus leaving learners at a loss for how to proceed with the activity as evident by one learner's subsequent turn in the sequence. These findings not only complement the issues Jill mentioned in her journal data with giving learners directions but also illustrate a specific attribute of her direction-giving to be used for future reference. In a separate case, the CA data documents a contradiction between Jill's explicit intention of incorporating her understanding of SLA theory into her teaching with her actual classroom practices. The intricate analysis of one teacher turn shows the various interactional cues used by Jill in an abrupt shift away from working with a learner on the difficulties in activity to directly proceeding with the activity due to a lack of class time.

Overall, the CA data shows Jill's "reflection-in-action" (Schön, 1983), the actual moment-by-moment decisions made in the classroom and the various resources used in making those

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decisions. It is from this application of CA that numerous details can emerge regarding the connections between Jill's declarative and procedural knowledge. First, the CA data details exemplars of her classroom communicative practices that may not be explicitly considered in depth in other forms of data (e.g., journal entries). Additionally, CA findings can be used as an impetus for further investigations into the reasoning behind such similarities and discrepancies between the two forms of knowledge. For example, it was from the CA findings that specific items were uncovered in the stimulated recall sessions emphasizing the discord Jill had with reconciling different domains of teacher knowledge in her classroom practices. What also surfaced in the stimulated recall data was Jill's realization of how she conducted her lessons at the individual turn level. It may in fact be that the use of CA data has helped her to become more cognizant of her own practices, aligning more fully with Richards and Farrell's (2005) knowledge domain of teacher self-awareness; such an assertion, however, lies beyond the focus of this paper.

The current study provides further contributions to both the literatures of language teacher knowledge as well of conversation analysis. For studies that examine language teacher learning and education, it is important to consider whether the research questions and methods used for data collection are parallel (Phipps & Borg, 2009). In investigating teacher knowledge and its effects on classroom practices, particularly through the use of qualitative research techniques, it is essential to triangulate multiple data sources which show both the knowledge that the teacher is explicitly aware of (i.e., declarative knowledge) as well as in-depth analyses of classroom practices done in real time (i.e., procedural knowledge), which can be accomplished through the application of CA methods of transcription and analysis. It is a bridging of data sources such as these that a more expansive understanding of how teachers at any stage in their careers work through and incorporate their various knowledge domains in their practices can surface. Simultaneously, the incorporation of CA with examinations of journal writing and uses of stimulated recall data further support the research implications for bridging CA with ethnographic data, for while the CA data showed the teacher's knowledge in real-time classroom interactions, the ethnographic data revealed the teacher's thought processes as the interactions were occurring.

From these findings, teachers should be aware that their perceptions of what knowledge they bring to the classroom may not entirely be representative of what actually occurs. While videotaping has long been viewed as a reflective tool for teachers to incorporate into their teaching practices (Farrell, 2007), having knowledge of CA examinations provides outlets to

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view the intricacies of teaching practices, including the various verbal and nonverbal interactional resources used to relay information to learners; in fact, it may be the perceived minutia of teacher communication that provides or restricts language learning opportunities in the classroom. For teacher educators, the incorporation of CA as a tool for examining knowledge in practice would provide them with specific exemplars showing which domains of knowledge teachers may understand outside of the classroom but struggle implementing in instruction. Simultaneously, these analyses can demonstrate not only how various knowledge domains are presented in classroom instruction, but also how they jointly work together to form best practices for teaching language learners in diverse contexts.

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Appendix

Transcription Key

(adapted from Jefferson, 1984)

.	(period) falling intonation.
?	(question mark) rising intonation.
,	(comma) continuing intonation.
-	(hyphen) abrupt cut-off.
::	(colon(s)) prolonging of sound.
word	(underlining) stress.
WORD	(all caps) loud speech.
°word°	(degree symbols) quiet speech.
↑	(upward arrow) raised pitch.
↓	(downward arrow) lowered pitch.
>word<	(more than and less than) quicker speech.
<word>	(less than & more than) slowed speech.
<	(less than) jump start or rushed start.
hh	(series of h's) aspiration or laughter.
.hh	(h's preceded by dot) inhalation.
(hh)	(h's in parentheses) inside word boundaries.
[ ]	(brackets) simultaneous or overlapping speech.
=	(equal sign) latch or contiguous utterances of the same speaker.
-2.4	(number in parentheses) length of a silence in 10ths of a second.
(.)	(period in parentheses) micro-pause, 0.2 second or less.
( )	(empty parentheses) non-transcribable segment of talk.
((gazing toward the ceiling))	(double parentheses) non-speech activity.
(try 1)/(try 2)	(two parentheses separated by a slash) alternative hearings.
$word$	(dollar or pound signs) smiley voice.
#word#	(number signs) squeaky voice.

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Chapter Eleven

Teachers' Beliefs and Practices About Using the L2 in Instruction

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Although using the L2 as the language of instruction is perceived to be a commonly held belief among L2 teachers and has been a core belief in theories of language teaching since the late 19th century, the study reported here demonstrates that all teachers don't believe in using the L2 exclusively at all levels of language instruction. Moreover, the teachers' beliefs about using the L2 are not always consistent with their instructional practices. The results of the study suggest common practices for speaking the L2 and the L1, impediments to teaching in the L2, and implications for teacher education.

Introduction

It is a commonly held belief among second and foreign language (L2) teachers that the L2 should be the predominant language of instruction. This belief has been called "an article of faith" (Milk, 1990), the "*sine qua non*" (Blyth, 1995) of language learning. It is a belief so ingrained that too much of the first or native language (L1) is perceived, by the teachers themselves, as being not only unfortunate and regrettable, but also as a source of guilt (Butzkamm & Caldwell 2009; Cook, 2005; Macaro, 1997, 2005). Teachers interviewed in Mitchell (1988), for example, "seemed almost to feel that they were making an admission of professional misconduct in 'confessing' to a low level of FL [L2] use" (as cited in Cook, 2001, p. 405).

Using the L2 as the language of instruction has been a core belief in theories of language teaching since the late 19th century (Cook, 2001). Furthermore, the L2 has been identified as the preferred teaching vehicle in studies on the behavior of exceptional L2 teachers. Moskowitz (1976) found that in the classrooms of outstanding teachers, "The target language [the L2] dominates the classroom interaction, whether the teacher or the students are speaking" (p. 156). Warriner (1980) observed that "in a good foreign language class… the target language is used almost exclusively by both teacher and students. Students almost never use [the L1], and teachers use it only rarely for concise explanations with quick reversion to the target language for practice" (p. 83).

More recently, in *The Keys to the Classroom* (2007), a manual written specifically for novice teachers, author Paula Patrick recommends, "You [the L2 teacher] and the students

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should speak the target language throughout the lesson in Levels 1 through Upper Level" (p. 39). In a position statement on the use of the L2, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) recommended that "language educators and their students use the target language as exclusively as possible (90% plus) at all levels of instruction during instructional time and, when feasible, beyond the classroom" (ACTFL, 2010).

Rationale for Using the L2

Insistence on the extensive use of the L2 is based on the notion that "effective language instruction must provide significant levels of meaningful communication" (ACTFL, 2010). Indeed, researchers in second language acquisition (SLA) agree that input, "the language that the learner hears or sees that is used to communicate a message" (VanPatten, 1996, p. 6), is essential for L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2005; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Lightbown, 1991; Long, 1996; Schwartz, 1993). The following statement on input represents current, commonly held thinking by the SLA research community.

> The concept of input is perhaps the single most important concept of second language acquisition. It is trivial to point out that no individual can learn a second language without input of some sort. In fact, no model of second language acquisition does not avail itself of input in trying to explain how learners create second language grammars. (Gass, 1997, p. 1)

Thus, the strongest rationale for teachers using the L2 as the language of instruction is that in doing so they provide the input that is crucial for L2 acquisition. Moreover, in many classroom L2 learning situations, the teacher is the best, and perhaps the only, person to provide learners with the significant levels of meaningful communication that researchers in SLA consider to be essential (Macaro, 1997; Platt & Brooks, 1994; Turnbull, 2001).

Research Questions

But, what is the reality in L2 classrooms? What do individual L2 teachers believe about using the L2 as the language of instruction? How much L2 do they actually use in their instruction? Are their beliefs about the L2 as the language of instruction consistent with their practices? If not, what factors contribute to the inconsistency? The focus of the study described in this paper was to investigate these questions through five case studies conducted in separate secondary school world language classrooms. The interest here is solely on the teachers' use of the L2. Investigating the extent to which learners use the L2 is beyond the scope of the present study.

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Literature Review

The research on teachers' beliefs about using the L2 as the language of instruction and the relationship between their beliefs and their practices can be grouped in three categories. In the first group of studies, data were collected by means of questionnaires (Crawford, 2004; Franklin, 1990; Levine, 2003; Zéphir & Chirol, 1993). In the second group, data were collected through classroom observations, but no attempt to find a ratio between L1 and L2 use was made (Bateman, 2008; Gearon, 1997; Kim & Elder, 2008; Polio & Duff, 1994; Wilkerson, 2008). The studies in the third group gathered data by means of classroom observations and determined the overall percentage of L2 used by the teacher (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Duff & Polio, 1990; Leemann Guthrie, 1987; Macaro, 2001; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002; Turnbull, 1999; Wing, 1987).

Table 1 summarizes results from studies from the three categories described above. It notes the reasons teachers gave or the instances the researchers observed of the teacher using the L1. It was found that teachers used the L1 in direct instruction, for reasons that included explaining grammar and giving instructions, especially for complex activities; explaining vocabulary and words or terminology that do not have an L2 equivalent; and saving time to move through the material more quickly. At various times, the teachers used the L1 in their interactions with students, for reasons such as building rapport or showing empathy, managing the classroom and disciplining, motivating students, and reducing students' lack of understanding. Teachers also used the L1 for personal reasons such as when they were feeling fatigued. Finally, they often chose the L1 in discussing administrative issues and yielding to external factors, such as department ethos.

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Table 1: Common Purposes Found in Empirical Research for Teacher Use of the L1

Purposes	**Found in Research**
Explaining grammar	Bateman, 2008; Crawford, 2004; Duff & Polio, 1990; Gearon, 1997; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002
Building rapport/showing empathy or solidarity	Bateman, 2008; Gearon, 1997; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994
Managing classroom and disciplining	Bateman, 2008; Franklin, 1990; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002
Giving instructions, especially for complex activities	Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002; Zéphir & Chirol, 1993
Explaining vocabulary and words or terminology that do not have L2 equivalent	Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002
Discussing administrative issues	de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Polio & Duff, 1994
Saving time or moving through material more quickly	Bateman, 2008; Gearon, 1997; Kim & Elder, 2008; Macaro, 2001; Wilkerson, 2008
Explaining L2 culture(s)	Bateman, 2008; Crawford, 2004; Kim & Elder, 2008; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002
Feeling fatigued	Bateman, 2008; Franklin, 1990; Kim & Elder, 2008
Reducing students' lack of understanding	Polio & Duff, 1994; Wilkerson, 2008
Motivating students	Bateman, 2008; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002
Yielding to external factors (e.g., department ethos)	Franklin, 1990; Kim & Elder, 2008

The studies from the third group of research described above, those that determined an L2/L1 ratio, took place in a variety of contexts. The countries in which they were conducted included Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United States, and the United Kingdom. Four of the studies took place at the university level; three were conducted in secondary schools. The languages being taught in the observed classrooms were English, French, German, and Spanish; Polio and Duff (1990) included thirteen different languages. In this group of studies, as illustrated in Table 2, the proportion of the teachers' use of the L2 ranged from 9% to 100%.

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Table 2: Empirical Studies on the Percentage of the L2 as the Language of Instruction

Researcher(s)	**Context**	**Proportion of use of L2**
de la Campa & Nassaji (2009)	Two 2nd year German classes at a university in western Canada	91% for the experienced teacher; 87% for the novice teacher
Duff & Polio (1990)	13 languages at the University of California, Los Angeles	10% – 100% (six of the teachers used the L2 90% or more)
Leemann Guthrie (1987)	Six 2nd semester university French classes in the United States	58% – 100%
Macaro (2001)	Six secondary school student teachers in the UK	38% – 80%
Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie (2002)	Four university level French classes in Australia (listening comprehension activities only)	82% – 100%
Turnbull (1999)	Four secondary level French teachers in Canada	9% – 89%
Wing (1987)	15 2nd year high school Spanish teachers in New Hampshire	For the “average” teacher in the study–54%

Methodology of the Present Study

Participants

In the present study, the focus of investigation was on the beliefs and classroom practices regarding the use of the L2 of five secondary school teachers of French. For the purposes of this study, the teachers were given pseudonyms. Cheryl was the least experienced teacher, having completed only three years of teaching at the time of the study. Ellen and Dahlia had 16 and 17 years’ experience, respectively. Karen, who was in her 27th year of teaching and Gary, who was in his 28th year of teaching, were the most experienced.

All of the schools involved in the study were located in English-speaking communities. Cheryl and Ellen taught in the same school district but in different high schools. Cheryl’s school, with an approximate enrollment of 2,133 students, was bigger than Ellen’s school with 1,260 students. Karen taught at a mid-sized school with 1,832 students. Gary’s school enrolled approximately 960 students. Dahlia’s school was the smallest with only 655 students. Both Cheryl and Ellen taught in urban schools; the other three teachers were in suburban schools.

All teachers had some experience studying and/or traveling in a francophone country. Cheryl had spent one semester in France during her college years, and she had taken one group of students to Quebec and another group to France. Ellen had participated in a summer program

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in France while she was a college student. Since then she had visited Europe twice with family. Gary also did a summer program in France during college; he subsequently made several short visits to France. Early in his teaching career, Gary taught French for three years in an international school abroad. Karen spent her junior year of college in Paris; she did not report any other experiences in another country. Dahlia completed a summer program in Mexico while in college and after graduating taught English in France for nine months. Table 3 summarizes the information above on the teachers' characteristics.

Table 3: Teacher Characteristics

Teacher	Teaching Experience	Language Levels Teachers Taught	Travel/Study Abroad
Cheryl	3 years	1, 2, 3, 4	- one college semester in France - trip with her students to Quebec - trip with her students to France
Ellen	16 years	1, 2, 3, 4	- summer college program in France - two family vacations to Europe
Gary	28 years	1, 2	- summer college program in France - several short trips to France - three years teaching French at an international school abroad
Karen	27 years	2, 4, 5	- junior year of college in Paris
Dahlia	17 years	1, 2	- summer college program in Mexico - nine months teaching English in France

Data Collection

Questionnaires

The data were collected through the following means: two questionnaires, three or four semi-structured interviews with each teacher, and a total of nearly 41 hours of classroom observations. The first questionnaire administered was a modified version of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). According to Bandura's (1986, 1997) Social Cognitive Theory and Ajzen's (1991, 2005) Theory of Planned Behavior, doubts of self-efficacy lower motivation to perform the action in question. Thus, it is assumed that teachers who are unsure about their capability of using the L2 as the language of instruction will rely extensively on the L1. This line of reasoning is consistent with Lafayette's (1993) contention that

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teachers who use the L1 as the dominant language of instruction do so because they lack self-assurance in their L2 proficiency.

Although the teachers responded to all statements on the TSES, the two statements in Table 4 are ones added to address self-efficacy in using the L2 as the language of instruction. As can be seen in the table, all the teachers felt that they had between some and a great deal of efficacy for both conducting their instruction in French and for tailoring their French to the students' level of understanding.

Table 4: Responses on the Fourth Subscale of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES)

Fourth Subscale: Use of the L2	**Responses**				
	Cheryl	Ellen	Gary	Karen	Dahlia
To what extent can you conduct your classroom instruction in French?	7	7	9	6	8
To what extent can you tailor your French to the students' level of understanding?	7	7	8	8	8

Note: 1 = nothing; 3 = very little; 5 = some; 7 = quite a bit; 9 = a great deal

The second questionnaire administered was the Foreign Language Education Questionnaire (FLEQ) (Allen, 2002). This instrument measures the extent to which respondents' beliefs are consistent with the fundamental assumptions that underlie the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* (National Standards Project, 1999, 2006). The teachers responded to the entire instrument, but only the fourth subscale, which addresses the language of instruction, is pertinent to this study. Table 5 illustrates that all five teachers agree or strongly agree that the L2 should be the dominant language of instruction. Conversely, they all disagree or strongly disagree that English (the L1) should be the primary vehicle of instruction.

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Table 5: Responses on the Fourth Subscale of the Foreign Language Education Questionnaire (FLEQ)

Fourth Subscale: Language of Instruction	**Responses**				
	Cheryl	Ellen	Gary	Karen	Dahlia
The effective foreign language teacher uses the foreign language as the dominant language of instruction.	4	4	5	4	5
English is the dominant language of instruction in effective foreign language programs.	1	2	1	2	1

Note: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=undecided; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

Interviews

The number of interviews conducted with each teacher was determined in large part by the amount of time needed to co-construct with the teacher an understanding of her or his beliefs underlying their classroom behaviors. Over the course of conducting the case studies, I interviewed Cheryl and Gary four times for a total of 240 minutes and 195 minutes respectively. I interviewed Ellen, Karen, and Dahlia three times each for a total of 180 minutes, 150 minutes, 210 minutes respectively. The final interview with each teacher took place after the data had been analyzed so that the teachers had an opportunity to respond to the findings. All of the interviews were audio recorded and transcribed.

During the interviews, the teachers' beliefs about the extent to which the L2 should be the language of instruction were revealed. Cheryl described her ideal teaching environment as "complete immersion." This approach implies a total use of French by the teacher as well as by the students. Cheryl, who teaches all levels of French at her school (first through fourth year), did not exclude any level from an immersion approach. Ellen's beliefs about using the L2 vary according to the level. She believes in using the L2 "as much as possible in French one, but English, too." In second year French, Ellen's goal is to conduct the class 50% in French and then 100% by year three. Gary challenges himself and his students to "use French half the time from day one and build up quickly to 75 to 90%" within the same school year. He was referring specifically to second-year French. In Karen's level II classes, she believes that she should use the L2 as the language of instruction 50% of the time; whereas in her fifth year class, she should use French "almost all of the time." Dahlia, who teaches first and second year French only, described herself as a "stickler" for speaking "almost entirely" in the L2 in all her French classes. During the interviews, I assumed that "almost all of the time" and "almost entirely" referred to 90% or

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above, as suggested by ACTFL. However, because Karen and Dahlia may have had different interpretations, it would have been beneficial to ask them to further quantify their responses.

Classroom Observations

For all teachers except Karen, I observed the second year (level II) French class. Although Karen typically teaches level II, she did not teach second year during the semester I conducted the study. So, I observed her fourth year (level IV) French class. In each of the teachers' daily class schedule, I observed the same French class for the number of days it took to implement one complete instructional unit. For the purposes of this study, a unit was defined as a series of daily lessons organized around a specific theme or textbook chapter and ending with a summative assessment. I observed Cheryl's class that began at 12:50 and ended at 1:40 (50 minutes each) for 11 school days and Ellen's class that ran from 9:24 to 10:11 (47 minutes each) for 12 school days. Gary's school followed a block schedule where each class lasted for 80 minutes, although there were some deviations in the length of class time during the observation period. Karen's school followed a modified block schedule two days per week with 86-minute classes and 46-minute class periods for the other three days of the week. The length of Dahlia's classes varied between 38 and 46 minutes. In all, I observed 49 classes for a total of 2,455 minutes (nearly 41 hours). The teachers wore a wireless microphone during the classes observed, which allowed me to record and later transcribe the instruction that took place during each class. The specific number of classes and the exact number of minutes observed for each teacher are recorded in Table 6.

Table 6: Number of Classes and Total Minutes Observed

Observations	**Teachers**					**Grand Total**
	Cheryl	Ellen	Gary	Karen	Dahlia	
Number of Classes	11	12	8	7	11	49
Number of Minutes	521	555	567	361	454	2,455

Data Analysis and Results

Percentage of L2 Used by Teachers

Following prior research (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Leemann Guthrie, 1987; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002), I counted the total number of words spoken by each teacher from the complete set of 49 transcriptions of the classroom observations. Then, counting the number of

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words in French in the transcriptions, I determined a ratio of French words to English words. The results ranged from 26% to 94%. These results, along with the statement of teachers' beliefs about the L2 as the language of instruction, which were cited above, are illustrated in Table 7.

Table 7: A Comparison of Teachers' Beliefs and Practices about L2 as the Language of Instruction

Teacher	**Beliefs about L2 as the Language of Instruction**	**Word count ratio of L2**
Cheryl	complete immersion	26%
Ellen	50% at level II; 100% at level III	48%
Gary	50% from day one and build up to 75% - 90% in the same year	94%
Karen	50% at level II, almost all the time at level V	82%
Dahlia	almost entirely in the L2	73%

The data analysis also revealed many instances of French that were single, isolated words, such as *bien* (good) or *n'est-ce pas*? (isn't that right?), language which Lee and VanPatten (2003) refer to as "language used to solicit or confirm the speech of learners in the class… language used to manage the classroom exercises" (p. 33). Although this particular type of language use, according to Lee and VanPatten, is meaning-bearing, it "is not very broad in terms of linguistic data it contains—not an optimal condition for language acquisition to take place" (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p. 33).

Purposes of L2 Used by Teachers

The data suggest that the French used by the teachers during their instructional time was primarily *message* oriented (demanding an answer), as opposed to *medium* oriented (about the language) (Macaro, 1997). For example, all five teachers were fairly consistent in using the L2 in greeting the students and chatting with them during the first two to five minutes of the class, a period of time typically referred to as "the warm-up." The conversation centered on students' personal lives both in and outside the school. On November 1, for example, Ellen greeted students in French then remarked that they looked tired. She asked them, in French, if they had gone trick-or-treating the night before and posed follow-up questions about the kinds of treats students had been given. She appeared to be genuinely interested in their Halloween activities, and, although students did not always respond in French, she pursued the conversation in French, modeling authentic language, that is, discourse typically found in daily life outside the classroom.

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In addition to the warm up, Karen and Dahlia used French to take attendance, asking students to respond with names of students who were not in attendance. All of the teachers used French to state the plan for the instructional period, and throughout each class, to provide simple directions, such as asking the students to take out their books or soliciting volunteers to read aloud. The teachers used the L2 when personalizing the material by asking about students' opinions or experiences. For example, in a vocabulary lesson about food, Cheryl asked the students, "Est-ce que vous aimez le gâteau au fromage?" (Do you like cheesecake?). Finally, when beginning a new activity or broaching a new topic, the teachers all began in French. However, I noted that as soon as a student asked a question or made a comment in English, there was a tendency for the teachers to respond in English and then continue in English until beginning the next activity.

The message-oriented purposes above notwithstanding, three of the five teachers in the study did use some French, to a much lesser extent, in medium oriented language. Ellen spoke in French, for example, when she introduced three adjectives that had an alternate masculine form before a noun beginning with a vowel. However, she frequently repeated in English what she had just said in French. Gary reviewed the concept of reflexive verbs exclusively in French. He made use of illustrations and checked for comprehension by asking students to dramatize the verbs. Karen contrasted two past tenses, the *imparfait* and the *passé composé*, in French. At the same time, however, she distributed sheets with explanations written in English.

Discussion

The data in Table 7 provide a comprehensive response to the major questions that guided this study. The reality of the five classrooms in which the data were collected is that there was quite a bit of variability, both in the teachers' beliefs about the extent to which the L2 should be used as the language of instruction, as well as in how much French the teachers actually used in their instruction. Overall, the proportion of L2 that they believed should be used, at least in the second year of instruction, ranged from 50% to 100%. These statistics suggest that the belief that the L2 is the predominant language of instruction may not be held by *all* L2 teachers, as has been assumed by some in the literature.

The results of the study demonstrate a complex relationship between what the teachers believe about using the L2 and how much of their instruction they actually conduct in the L2. It is rather clear that Cheryl's practices were not consistent with her beliefs. Cheryl stated that she believes in complete immersion, but the word count ratio (26% use of French) does not

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approach immersion. Ellen's beliefs and Gary's beliefs, however, were more in line with their practices. Ellen indicated that she believed in using French 50% of the time in her second year class and in my observation, 48% of her words were in French. Gary's belief about using the L2 was consistent with his use of L2 in the classroom. In fact, he exceeded his goal of 90%, first by conducting 94% of his instruction in French, and by surpassing the timeframe of his goal. The observations in Gary's class took place from February 16 through March 10 when there remained at least four months in the academic year to reach his ultimate goal of 90%. Because Karen and Dahlia were rather vague in expressing the amount of time the L2 should be used, it is somewhat more difficult to determine the extent to which their beliefs were consistent with their classroom practices. Perhaps Karen's use of French 82% of the time was, in her estimation, "almost all the time." Likewise, Dahlia might have described using the L2 just 73% of time as conducting her instruction "almost entirely" in French. The proportions of L2 used in their classes, as well as in Cheryl's classes and Ellen's classes, are, nonetheless, below ACTFL's recommended 90%.

Teachers' Reaction to the Amount of L2 Used

With the results of the data analyses, I went back to the teachers to get their reactions. Their responses suggest factors that contribute to the inconsistencies between their beliefs about the classroom use of the L2 and their instructional practices. Cheryl's response below is reminiscent of the feelings of guilt and professional misconduct found by researchers cited in the first paragraph of this paper (Butzkamm & Caldwell 2009; Cook, 2005; Macaro, 1997, 2005; Mitchell, 1988).

> "I feel like I have classes that are just very resistant to me speaking a lot of French. And at some point, I just get worn down and tired and like, okay, we just need to get through this. I'm going to say it in English. And then as soon as I break that resolve, there's no going back. So I think it's just kind of a personal, I don't know if I want to say failure, but, uh…"

Time was a big factor for Ellen. She said that she tries to use the L2 as much as possible, but sometimes it's just faster and more efficient to "break into English." Gary commented on his use of the L2 by saying, "It just makes sense that kids have to hear a phenomenal amount of language and read a reasonable portion of language before they'll be spitting much back out." Karen admitted that speaking the L2 and getting the students to speak it was "a weak point" for her, but she said that she was moving the students toward using the L2 more. Dahlia assured me that had I visited her later in the academic year, I would have heard her use more French overall.

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(My observations of her class took place between October 4 and October 19, rather early in the school year.)

Four major impediments to conducting their instruction largely in the L2 were cited in the follow-up interviews with the teachers.

1. The attitudes and willingness of students to support an environment in which the teacher speaks extensively in the L2 is lacking. The students have a low tolerance of ambiguity.
2. Students claim not to understand the explanations in the L2.
3. Using the L2 extensively takes more time.
4. L2 teacher colleagues in the same school or school district do not use the L2 extensively. The teachers in this study want to conform to district or building practices.

Implications

Based on the results of this study, it is possible to draw several implications for educating future L2 teachers. First of all, the study demonstrates that it is possible to conduct a large proportion of instruction in the L2, especially when the language is message oriented. To a lesser extent, and with varying degrees of support, the L2 can also be the language of medium oriented instruction. Future teachers would benefit from examining case studies where the L2 is used for both types of language instruction.

Secondly, there appear to be certain times in the class period when teachers consistently use the L2: (1) during the first few minutes of class as a sort of warm-up, (2) giving simple instructions throughout the class period, (3) personalizing the material, and (4) introducing a new activity. Future teachers should be made aware of and be encouraged to capitalize on these opportune times to provide L2 input.

There is much to be learned from Gary, who conducted his classes 94% of the time in French. From my observations of his teaching and my conversations with him, it appeared that Gary spoke more French than the other teachers did because he established using the L2 as a goal, explicitly shared the goal on numerous occasions with his students, and kept the goal in the forefront throughout the instructional time. This rationale is in line with Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (1991, 2005), which states that *salient* (i.e., easily accessible) beliefs determine an individual's intended and actual behaviors. Future teachers should learn about the importance of providing L2 input and explicitly establish and keep in mind the goal to speak the L2 extensively. Sharing the goal with the students and encouraging them to use the L2 as much as they possibly can will facilitate the achievement of the goal.

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Finally, aspiring L2 teachers should learn how to implement strategies for staying in the L2. Gary for example, made use of a badge, as illustrated in the excerpt below.

> *“Respectez le badge. Oh, je n’ai pas de badge.* [Puts badge the color of France’s flag on his shirt] *Respectez le badge. Ça veut dire que je ne comprends pas* [pause] *quoi? Qu’est-ce que je ne comprends pas?* [student response] *Oui, je ne comprends pas l’anglais parce que mon père est français. Ma mère est française.”*
>
> [Translation: Respect the badge. Oh, I don’t have a badge… Respect the badge. That means I don’t understand [pause] what? What don’t I understand? [student response] Yes I don’t understand English because my father is French. My mother is French.

Future Research

The study raises two important questions that merit further investigation. First, it would be instructive to examine the issue of the “language used to manage the classroom exercises” (Lee & VanPatten, 2003, p. 33), words such as *bien* (good) and *n’est-ce pas*? (isn’t that right?). Can these single words or word phrases serve as meaning-bearing input? Does L2 input have to be of a particular length in order for students to benefit from it?

Secondly, I noted that four of the five teachers in the study had the tendency to begin an activity in French but switch to English as soon as the students asked questions or made comments in English. Although a very limited number of studies has suggested a relationship between the amount of L2 used by the teacher and their students’ language proficiency (Turnbull, 2001), there is no empirical evidence on a possible relationship between the teacher’s and the students’ use of the L2. Do the students of teachers who use the L2 extensively also make extensive use of the L2? Does the students’ use of the L2 influence the extent to which the teacher uses the L2? Anecdotally, I noted that Gary’s students did use French to a large extent, thus eliminating the temptation for Gary to revert to English when students began speaking English.

Conclusion

Conceptually, preference for using the L2 as the language of instruction is a commonly held belief among L2 teachers, a core belief in theories of language teaching, a behavior of outstanding L2 teachers, and a recommended practice by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. However, as prior research and this study show, many L2 teachers use a high proportion of the L1 in their instruction for a number of common purposes.

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Of course, because L2 acquisition is impossible without sufficient input, using the L2 as the language of instruction is certainly a worthwhile goal whose achievement *may possibly* be met if the teacher establishes a classroom climate that makes using the L2 a priority, continually reminds him or herself and the students of the goal, and implements effective strategies for staying in the L2.

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Chapter Twelve

A Sociocultural Approach to Collegiate Foreign Language Teacher Professionalization: Lesson Planning and Concept Development

Kate Paesani, *Wayne State University*

This paper proposes an approach to teacher learning framed within sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) that responds to problems inherent in the typical professionalization model for university foreign language instructors. Five socioculturally-grounded strategies for organizing professional development activities focused on concept development are proposed. Their application is illustrated through a sequence of activities that foster professional expertise regarding lesson planning. The sequence was implemented across one semester with 10 graduate student and part-time collegiate French instructors. Illustrative data from instructors' reflective statements provide evidence of the approach's efficacy and shed light on how they understood their instructional practices and conceptual development over time.

Introduction

As has been widely recognized in research on collegiate foreign language (FL) teacher professionalization, development of pedagogical expertise and conceptual knowledge related to teaching is a long-term endeavor (Allen, 2011; Johnson, 2009; Rankin & Becker, 2006). Yet various factors impede implementation of the long-term, systematic training necessary to prepare the future professoriate for teaching responsibilities they will face once in the workforce. While the bifurcation of many FL programs—characterized by fixed lines of demarcation between language and literary-cultural content courses—has been consistently cited as contributing to deficiencies in teacher development efforts (Allen, 2010; Byrnes, 2001; Maxim, 2005; Paesani, 2013; Wurst, 2008), additional factors also play an important role. These include approaches to teacher development that are short-term, inconsistent, and transmission-based; assumptions regarding teacher beliefs and perceptions of professional development experiences; and the lack of a unified framework in which to ground teacher professionalization.

The typical professionalization model for university FL instructors is a pre-service orientation workshop followed by a one-semester, in-service methods course. These activities are usually focused on introductory language teaching, as graduate student and part-time instructors teach the bulk of these courses, and on communicative language teaching (CLT), the common methodology used within this teaching context. Professional development activities subsequent

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to these initial efforts tend to be haphazard and driven by administrative need. For example, classroom observations are often conducted for the purposes of annual review rather than for setting long-term programmatic or individualized goals. Problems noted in classroom observations are then addressed through workshops that may not be connected to one another or to a sustained professional development plan (Allen & Negueruela-Azarola, 2010; Bernhardt, 2001; Byrnes, 2001; Rankin & Becker, 2006). This "one-size-fits-all" approach not only fails to account for the long-term nature of teacher development, it also ignores the specific needs of individual instructors coming from various backgrounds and the socially situated nature of language teaching and learning. As Cross (2010) argued, we cannot assume there is a blueprint for teacher development given "the complexities of the contexts within which learning takes places" and "how teachers come to understand their professional roles within those contexts" (p. 434). Furthermore, the more formal structure of these training efforts supports a transmission-based model of FL teacher professionalization; in the methods course, for instance, teacher-learners[1] read research and attend classes with the common expectation that knowledge and skills are appropriated from the outside in (Freeman, 1996; Johnson, 2009; Wright, 2010). Yet, as Johnson and Golombek (2003) argued, teacher learning does not happen this way; it "emerges from a process of reshaping existing knowledge, beliefs, and practices rather than simply imposing new theories, methods, or materials on teachers" (p. 730).

A further problem related to the typical university training model is an inaccurate understanding of FL instructors' beliefs and perceptions related to professional development experiences (Allen, 2011; Brandl, 2000; Freeman, 1996; Rankin & Becker, 2006). Indeed, teachers often perceive formal activities such as the initial methods course as less helpful than informal, teaching-related interactions with other instructors or the language program director (LPD). In a study of FL graduate instructors in five different languages, Brandl found that although the methods course was viewed positively, it was ranked lower than informal, less anxiety-producing activities such as discussions with peers or the LPD or end-of-course evaluations. One reason for this perception of the methods course was its occurrence during the first year of graduate studies, when FL instructors are still somewhat overwhelmed. In addition, because of the amount of information introduced in initial professionalization activities, teacher-learners struggle to process, apply, and synthesize that information and to relate theoretical

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[1] Throughout, the term *teacher-learner* is used to convey the idea that teachers are learners of teaching in and out of the classroom. This terminology is consistent with the sociocultural perspective espoused in this paper as it considers the cognitive and social processes instructors experience as they learn to teach, processes that in turn inform teacher education efforts (Johnson, 2009).

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concepts to classroom practice. This sense of overload is complicated by instructors' beliefs about FL teaching and learning. As Rankin and Becker found, teacher knowledge gleaned from reading research in a methods course "is processed and filtered through layers of experience and belief" and thus "becomes instantiated only after it has been integrated into the teacher's personal framework" (p. 366). Personal experience and beliefs, therefore, have a powerful effect on what teacher-learners take away from their professional development experiences.

Problems with the typical model of collegiate FL teacher development are compounded by the absence of a unified theoretical framework in which to ground teacher professionalization, explain teacher learning, and generate predictions for enhancing training efforts (Borg, 2006; Cross, 2010; Eun, 2008; Johnson, 2009). Yet a unifying framework is crucial for research and practice because, as Borg explained, it

> militates against the accumulation of isolated studies conducted without sufficient awareness of how these relate to existing work; it reminds researchers of key dimensions in the study of language teacher cognition; and it highlights key themes, gaps and conceptual relationships and promotes more focused attention to these. (2006, p. 284)

Numerous researchers (Cross, 2010; Johnson, 2009; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) have suggested Vygotskian sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) as an appropriate unifying framework in which to ground the study of FL teacher development. According to Cross, sociocultural theory is a viable framework because it recognizes the socially situated and contextual nature of teacher development; it accounts for the dynamic, ongoing, and experiential facets of teacher learning; and it considers the tensions and contradictions among what teachers think, what they do, and why. As such, approaches to FL teacher development grounded in sociocultural theory can help overcome several limitations of the traditional professionalization paradigm outlined above.

The purpose of this paper is to contribute to ongoing discussions regarding the viability of sociocultural theory as a framework for studying teacher learning and to help overcome problems associated with the typical collegiate FL teacher development model outlined here. To do so, I propose guidelines for organizing professional development activities focused on teacher-learner concept development. How these guidelines may be put into practice is illustrated through a professional development sequence on lesson planning implemented across one semester with 10 graduate student and part-time collegiate French instructors. Before presenting this illustrative example, I outline the theoretical framework grounding this approach to FL teacher education in the next section.

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Theoretical Framework: Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural theory, stemming from Vygotsky's work in cultural-historical psychology, is a theory of the mind that views human learning as a dynamic, socially situated activity influenced by cultural contexts and artifacts that transform individual cognition (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). Learning therefore is not viewed as the straightforward appropriation of skills and knowledge from the outside in (i.e., transmission based), but rather as a mediated activity connecting the social and the individual. Tools, which may be either material (i.e., concrete, such as computers) or symbolic (i.e., semiotic, such as language), mediate and regulate this activity. These mediational means are then internalized to aid future problem-solving activity. According to Johnson (2009), internalization is "the process through which a person's activity is initially mediated by other people or cultural artifacts but later comes to be controlled by him/herself as he or she appropriates and reconstructs resources to regulate his or her own activities" (p. 18). In other words, internalization results in moving from other- to self-regulation as tools are appropriated. Sociocultural theory also views learning as developmental, or genetic; that is, learning, mediation, and internalization are long-term processes. Vygotsky originally proposed four genetic domains for the study of human learning: phylogenetic, sociocultural, ontogenetic, and microgenetic. Of interest for the approach to teacher development illustrated below is *microgenesis*, the process involved in the formation and unfolding of mediation over a relatively short time span (Lantolf, 2000; Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011).

Applied to FL teacher professionalization, sociocultural theory provides a unique perspective on development of knowledge and expertise. According to Johnson,

> Learning to teach, from a sociocultural perspective, is based on the assumption that knowledge, thinking, and understanding come from participating in the social practices of learning and teaching in specific classroom and school situations. Teacher learning and the activities of teaching are understood as growing out of participation in the social practices in classrooms; and what teachers know and how they use that knowledge in classrooms is highly interpretative and contingent on knowledge of self, setting, students, curriculum, and community. (2009, p. 13)

Johnson claimed that this perspective informs four interrelated aspects of FL teacher education. First, it provides us with a theory of the mind that explains the cognitive and social processes involved in teacher learning. Second, it recognizes the centrality of human agency in learning. As such, teacher development is "a process of enculturation… into existing social practices" as well as "a dynamic process of reconstructing and transforming those practices to be responsive to

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both individual and local needs" (p. 13). Third, sociocultural theory provides a means to inform the content and processes of FL teacher development by building on existing knowledge, identifying ways to merge knowledge from lived experiences with expert knowledge, and thus developing new perspectives from which to interpret teaching and learning. Finally, a sociocultural theory perspective "requires that teacher educators examine existing mediational tools and spaces while also creating alternative ones through which teachers may externalize their current understandings of concepts" (p. 15). Through the use of reflective tools, teacher-learners are then able to "reconceptualize and recontextualize [concepts] and develop alternative ways of engaging in the activities associated with those concepts" (p. 15).

The tools relevant for the professional development sequence outlined below are everyday (experiential) and scientific (academic) concepts. *Everyday concepts* are learned through cultural practice, tied to specific contexts, and allow for limited generalizations to new situations; they are "intuitive, unsystematic, and situated" (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011, p. 52). *Scientific concepts* are learned through formal instruction, grounded in general principles, and more easily generalized to new situations; they are "conscious (and consciously applied), systematic, and not bound to context" (p. 52). *Concept development* includes establishing relationships between everyday and scientific concepts; they are in a dialectic relationship and are acquired in relation to one another. The *conceptual thinking* that arises from this development forms the basis of professional expertise and is thus crucial to FL teacher development (Johnson, 2009; Smagorinsky, Cook & Johnson, 2003; Swain, Kinnear & Steinman, 2011; Vygotsky, 1986). From a sociocultural perspective, teachers are viewed as learners of teaching and, as such, they are continuously engaged in concept development and conceptual thinking. To further this developmental process, Johnson asserted that "…the goal of L2 teacher education is to expose teachers to relevant scientific concepts while at the same time assisting them in making everyday concepts explicit and thereby using them as a means of internalizing scientific concepts" (2009, p. 64). Teacher development is therefore an ongoing process of dialogic mediation between everyday and scientific concepts, reflection about these concepts, and engagement in purposeful activities organized around these concepts.

With these basic tenets of sociocultural theory as a foundation, I propose the following five strategies for organizing professional development activities that promote concept development and, as a result, FL teacher learning:

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1. To account for the long-term, genetic nature of learning, professional development activities must be connected to one another and implemented over an extended period of time.
2. It is imperative to *make teacher-learners aware of the everyday concepts they possess*. Once everyday concepts are made explicit, they are open to dialogic mediation that can promote internalization.
3. Teacher development *activities must involve collaborative, socially mediated interaction that includes practice, observation, and examples*. Practice, which should include a goal-oriented sequence of collaborative activities, "refers to the kind of activity central to the development of [everyday] concepts and implicated in the development of scientific concepts" (Smagorinskly, Cook, & Johnson, 2003, p. 8). Social practice is therefore key to resolving mismatches between theory and experience.
4. Teacher-learners must be provided reliable and systematic ways (e.g., through tools) to make decisions and analyze teaching materials and behaviors. This allows teacher-learners to move beyond mimicking to imitation, which is intentional and includes reflection and examination of results and subsequent revisions. Imitation, under this definition, therefore contributes to concept internalization.
5. Because teacher education should foster imitation as well as concept development and internalization, activities should *provide opportunities for teacher-learners to engage in active reflection about their professional development experiences* (Daniels, 2001; Johnson, 2009; Smagorinsky, Cook, & Johnson, 2003; Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011).

In what follows, I illustrate how these five strategies are put into practice in a semester-long teacher development sequence designed to foster teacher-learners' concept development and professional expertise regarding lesson planning.

A Socioculturally Grounded Teacher Development Sequence: Lesson Planning

The sequence of professional development activities on lesson planning outlined here was implemented with 10 novice and experienced graduate teaching assistant and part-time French instructors at a large, urban research university. All instructors participating in the project were teaching one of three introductory French courses comprising the university's FL requirement. These courses are coordinated by a language program director (LPD; also the researcher) who provides ongoing teacher education in the form of annual orientation workshops, monthly meetings and workshops, classroom observations and feedback, and collaborative exam writing and revising. Prior to this project, professional development activities related to lesson planning included providing teacher-learners with sample lesson plans and conducting workshops on individual lesson plan components (e.g., inductive grammar teaching, the warm-up, authentic materials, vocabulary instruction). These activities were thus unconnected and short-term, and subsequent classroom observations revealed difficulties with lesson planning and time

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management across instructors. Following the five socioculturally grounded strategies presented above, the lesson planning sequence was therefore designed to systematically respond to these problems, to promote teacher-learners' concept development and conceptual thinking, and to provide sustained and long-term professional development for instructors teaching in the introductory French program. The following subsections show how various activities and tools put into practice the five strategies proposed above. Illustrative data from instructors' reflective statements, collected at the close of the lesson planning project, provide evidence of the efficacy of this approach to teacher development and shed light on ways in which the teacher-learners understood their teaching practices and conceptual learning over time.

Strategy One: Implement Extended Professional Development Sequences

The semester-long lesson planning project, carried out in Fall 2010, is an example of a microgenetic approach that focuses on the processes involved in building conceptual knowledge and thinking over a relatively short time span. As such, it reflects the developmental nature of learning espoused by sociocultural theory. The project began with a workshop in August that included discussion of instructors' previous lesson planning experiences and an introduction to published research and concepts related to lesson plan *components* (e.g., warm-up, review, presentation and practice of new material, skills development activities), *content* (e.g., meaning focused activities, inductive and contextualized presentations, development of accuracy and fluency), and *organization* (e.g., timing and sequencing of activities, transitions between lesson parts).

During a second workshop in early October, these concepts and related research were reviewed and individual lesson plan components (e.g., their specific features, their purpose, how they are constructed) were discussed. Working individually, instructors then drafted one lesson plan component (warm-up, review, new material, or skills development) for content specific to the course they were teaching. In late October, during a third workshop, instructors shared these drafts and worked together with instructors teaching the same course to compile a complete lesson plan. These lesson plans were then implemented in the classroom in November. One teacher-learner from each course group video recorded her lesson and watched it with group members. Finally, in December, the lesson plans were revised and refined based on teacher-learners' experiences implementing them in the classroom. Two follow-up activities took place the semester subsequent to implementation of the lesson planning sequence. First, in January 2011, the teacher-learners submitted reflective statements in which they commented on their experiences throughout the lesson-planning project. Second, teacher-learners received feedback

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from the LPD based on classroom observations conducted in late February and early March 2011; written reports addressed lesson-planning concepts targeted in the professional development sequence.

Narrative examples from reflective statements show that some of the teacher-learners recognized the importance of an extended approach to professional development. For instance, May, who missed two of the four workshop sessions, nonetheless acknowledged the long-term nature of developing pedagogical expertise.[2] She wrote, "… revising and improving my lesson plans have been *an ongoing process*. My main interest is in making the lesson session more harmonious. The transition from one segment to the other *is becoming* more smooth." This example also illustrates May's recognition that development of her expertise continued beyond the lesson planning sequence. Carly, commenting on what she learned during the semester-long project, highlighted the importance of having time to think through concepts and put them into practice:

> "It was useful to me to work on this project *over the course of an entire semester* in order to be able *to take time to think through the processes and put them to use in the classroom* as well as to not only recognize that perhaps a particular activity did or didn't work well, but also why that was the case."

Both examples point to the efficacy of an extended approach to FL teacher professional development.

Strategy Two: Create Awareness of Teacher-Learners' Everyday Concepts

Because everyday concepts are "intuitive, unsystematic, and situated" (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011, p. 52), teacher-learners are not always consciously aware of how these concepts inform their instructional practices. Making everyday concepts explicit opens the door to dialogic mediation, thus linking learned experience and scientific concepts. This linkage leads to "development of conceptual thinking—thinking that [allows] students to face any number of novel problems and mentally work through possible solutions" (p. 67).

The teacher-learners participating in the lesson-planning project were encouraged to identify everyday concepts in two stages. Prior to introducing scientific concepts, teacher-learners worked collaboratively to brainstorm experiences related to lesson planning. They shared their own approach and strategies as well as any concerns or problems they had. They also worked to identify prior knowledge of lesson plan components, which were then elaborated during discussion of research and scientific concepts related to lesson planning. After

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[2] All names have been changed to ensure participant anonymity. All emphases are my own.

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introducing the instructors to scientific concepts, they were then asked to identify the lesson plan component (warm-up, review, new material, skills development) that they found the most challenging to develop, implement, or manage. This initial focus on areas of difficulty allowed teacher-learners to collaborate with other instructors facing similar challenges. Moreover, as Golombek and Johnson (2004) highlighted, "recognition of contradictions in the teaching context is a "driving force" in teacher professional development" (pp. 323-324). Therefore, by identifying challenges they faced in lesson planning, the teacher-learners were encouraged to generate solutions and advance their conceptual thinking.

In her reflective statement, Amy recognized the utility of creating awareness of everyday concepts. She wrote, "I liked the idea of examining each of the areas of a lesson plan, thinking about their purposes, and thinking about activities and directions to take in promoting the desired outcome." Other illustrative examples show that being made aware of prior knowledge pinpointed what teacher-learners still misunderstood. For example, Samantha commented on her superficial understanding of concepts like contextualization and pair work prior to the lesson-planning project:

> "I know we all talked about contextualizing the lesson plans and I have understood the concept for a long time; I just didn't have the reflex to use it as a default setting… Pair work is another buzzword like contextualization, *everyone talks about them but that doesn't mean everyone has mastered the art of using them effectively* in a lesson plan."

Another theme emerging from teacher-learners' reflective statements was their improved conceptual knowledge, due in part to being made aware of everyday concepts early in their teaching experiences. For example, Erica commented that she thought she had understood lesson planning concepts prior to the professional development sequence, "but the semester-long project solidified the concepts in [her] preparation process." Likewise, Brenda wrote that

> "…This project was a good *reminder* to look at each lesson not as a single lesson, but part of whole unit. I do have a *firmer grasp of concepts* such as contextualization. That comes with looking at these lessons as a holistic unit rather than separate chunks of material."

Strategy Three: Encourage Collaborative, Socially Mediated Interaction

Sociocultural theory views learning as a socially mediated activity; as such, teacher-learners must engage in collaborative, goal-oriented, and sequenced practice activities to promote conceptual development and help resolve theory-practice mismatches. According to Donato (2004, p. 287), collaboration has three important characteristics: (1) a "meaningful core

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activity" and the social relations that result from carrying it out, (2) "recognition of individuals as parts of a cooperative activity and the acceptance of the contributions of individuals in the service of a larger goal," and (3) co-construction of new knowledge by collaborative group members. Collaborative activity not only allows teacher-learners to resolve teaching problems, but also to become agents in their own professional development.

Numerous activities in the lesson planning sequence encouraged collaborative, socially mediated interaction. In addition to group discussion of experiences and challenges related to lesson planning, instructors worked in small groups to analyze model lesson plans and break down their component parts and then to collaboratively draft and revise a lesson plan for classroom use. This drafting and revising took place in both face-to-face and online contexts; instructors collaborated during workshops and shared materials and ideas electronically through email and Blackboard discussions. Collaborative interaction also involved the LPD, who mediated workshop activities, responded to questions via email, and provided electronic feedback on lesson plan drafts. These collaborative, socially mediated activities worked in concert to promote teacher-learners' internalization of lesson planning resources.

Overall, interaction among group members over the course of the professional development sequence was fruitful; however, one group more successfully collaborated than the other two. Members of this former group found collaboration useful for a number of reasons. Amy focused on the effectiveness of collective thinking for developing expertise, commenting that "[h]ead banging as a group can *be very instructive and mind opening*… It's good to be able to run ideas past each other and give and get feedback to better work out the plan." Sara, another member of this group, also mentioned the importance of collective thinking, but linked this to her individual contributions to socially mediated activities:

> "As far as improvement is concerned, I would not say that collaboration has facilitated or hindered my teaching. I would certainly say that *I rather feel less challenged because everybody is facing somewhat similar situations*… I like to do collaborative work *provided someone needs my input or help*. I am more than willing to invest my time and basic knowledge about things if it helps. *I do not mind asking for help if I need it*."

Sara's comments about providing and asking for help point to her contributions to the overall group goal as well as to her own agency in the professional development process.

Other teacher-learners were less enthusiastic about the impact of collaborative activities on their professional development. Carly, who had had "high hopes for a much more collaborative environment with [her] peers" got "very little response from them throughout the

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process" and wound up "frustrated." Indeed, some of her group members participated only via email and did not attend workshops; others attended workshops but did not follow through in electronic collaborations. In the end, Carly "felt that [her] ability to learn from [her] colleagues was *hindered by the fact that they did not seem to fully participate*." Samantha, who worked in a third group with one other teacher-learner who was able to attend only one workshop, felt that although her partner was "very cooperative," working with her "was not very productive." Samantha attributed this to her partner's teaching experience: "…she's been teaching for so long that she has her own material and *seems content to do her own thing*." Samantha's comments suggest that she and her partner were not operating in the same zone of proximal development (ZPD), "defined as the difference between what a person can achieve independently versus what he or she can achieve working with others or with someone more expert" (Johnson, 2009, p. 19). As a result, expertise in lesson planning did not develop cooperatively, and Samantha was left feeling as though she gained little from the collaborative experience. Taken together, Carly and Samantha's reflections further suggest that collaborative, socially mediated activity is only effective when all group members participate fully in every professional development experience.

Strategy Four: Provide Reliable and Systematic Ways to Make Decisions and Analyze Teaching

To encourage teacher-learners to reflect upon and examine the lesson planning process, they were introduced to scientific concepts related to lesson planning and encouraged to analyze and revise lesson plans using these conceptual tools. This process of equipping teacher-learners with reliable and systematic ways to make decisions helped them to move beyond mimicking to imitation. Because concepts are transformed through imitation, this process also furthered internalization of lesson planning concepts (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011).

Prior to the lesson planning sequence, teacher-learners had been provided with model lesson plans that they were expected to mimic without conscious reflection and imitation. To overcome this problem and encourage imitation, teacher-learners engaged with scientific concepts in multiple ways. First, in short workshop presentations led by the LPD, they were introduced to and reviewed scientific concepts related to lesson planning. This included exploring lesson plan goals and objectives, as well as concepts related to lesson plan components, content, and organization. In addition, teacher-learners were introduced to research on lesson planning and encouraged to link this research to their prior conceptual knowledge regarding the introductory French curriculum, the textbook in use, and the methodology of communicative language teaching. In a subsequent activity, teacher-learners

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deconstructed and analyzed model lesson plans using the conceptual tools to which they had been exposed. Later, after instructors had collaboratively created a lesson plan for their course, they used these same conceptual tools to revise and refine their lessons. All of these activities led teacher-learners to engage in reliable and systematic analysis of and decision making related to teaching.

Illustrative examples from instructors' reflective statements show the effectiveness of encouraging them to move beyond mimicking to imitation. For instance, Amy commented on the process of developing reliable and systematic ways to analyze teaching. She wrote: "[i]t was useful to have *models of good lesson plans*, to discuss strong points, to *understand the goals and logic* for choices made in the construction of the lesson plans." Brenda concurred, stating that her "teaching has changed as a result of this project" and that she has "rethought each lesson from this year." Some participants commented more specifically on the set of lesson planning concepts they used to consciously evaluate and revise their lesson plans. For example, Samantha wrote:

> "The most important thing I learned from this project is *the use of the four components of the lesson plan*. I use them all the time now and they are *very helpful in organizing content*… I also learned about *contextualization* when I prepared the lesson plan for Ch. 12. I had originally done something very text oriented for the "Vie et culture" section, and when you showed me how to contextualize it with examples of music fairs in the U.S. *it all kind of clicked*."

Amy, also commenting on lesson plan components, elaborated on her process of planning, reviewing, and revising with the help of these conceptual tools. She wrote,

> "I definitely have a better appreciation for the *warm up and review*, and am now much *more conscious* of planning for it—I pretty much do it after I finish class and look back at what was covered, what was not yet completed and what would be a good place or activity for starting the next class."

Each of these examples provides evidence of teacher-learners engaging in conscious manipulation of conceptual tools to increase analysis, imitation, and internalization.

Strategy Five: Engage Teacher-Learners in Active Reflection About Experiences

The final socioculturally grounded strategy for organizing FL teacher development activities is to encourage active reflection about teaching experiences. Not only does reflection foster imitation, as argued above, it also encourages internalization of concepts and thus helps lead to conceptual thinking. Indeed, as Johonson and Golombek (2003) argued, the process of internalization can be revealed in how teacher-learners "understand aspects of their teaching practices as well as in the actual practices they engage in during classroom instruction" (p. 732).

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Several activities in the lesson planning sequence engaged instructors in active reflection about their teaching experiences. During the first workshop, teacher-learners discussed their experiences and strategies related to lesson planning as well as successes and challenges implementing lesson plans in the classroom. In December, after the teacher-learners had implemented their collaboratively created lesson plans, they worked in small groups to debrief one another about their experiences teaching the lesson plan, focusing on their overall impressions, the content of their lesson, the students' experience during class, and areas to target for improvement or change. Lastly, one month after completion of the lesson planning sequence, instructors drafted reflective statements about their experiences. Question prompts asked them to reflect on what they learned, their grasp of the concepts studied, their experiences working in collaborative groups, and the impact of the lesson planning sequence on their overall teaching practices.

Illustrative examples from reflective statements reveal that the teacher-learners were aware of the learning processes they were experiencing, were able to reflect on their progress over the course of the professional development sequence, and had ideas about how they would move forward following the sequence. For example, in reflecting on the learning processes she engaged in, Samatha wrote:

> "I also learned *how to think more about why I do things* in the classroom. So often I do everything in a hurry and don't reflect enough on my teaching practices. Listening to colleagues … I learned to *pay more attention* to the goal of an activity and *ask myself* if certain ideas that seemed interesting were really useful."

Sara focused on her progress over the course of the lesson planning sequence, writing that although "lesson planning is not easy" and "takes a lot of time and a lot of thinking ahead," she thought she "improved a lot." Sara also noted the ongoing process of grappling with concepts that had been problematic prior to the lesson planning sequence. She wrote, "I have been struggling with time management. *It is still an issue*. One thing I will say is that *I am getting better at it* once I decide not to over explain things." Carly also spoke to her ongoing conceptual development. As she explained, "I am *still working* on developing and honing my teaching practices so I feel like *I am regularly in the process of rethinking them* as I learn to integrate them." Each of these examples illustrates that reflection about teaching experiences helped teacher-learners create links between scientific and everyday concepts, thereby moving them closer to concept internalization and conceptual thinking.

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Implications and Conclusions

This paper argued in favor of Vygotskian sociocultural theory as a viable framework for investigating teacher learning and proposed five strategies for implementing socioculturally grounded professional development activities. The strategies were exemplified through a semester-long sequence of activities designed to foster teacher-learners' concept development and professional expertise regarding lesson planning. In addition to establishing relationships between everyday and scientific concepts and thereby fostering the kind of conceptual thinking that forms the basis of teacher learning, this professional development sequence encouraged engagement in purposeful, practical, and collaborative activities organized around these concepts. This approach to teacher education addresses several problems characterizing the typical "one-size-fits-all" professionalization model for collegiate FL instructors. For example, by encouraging teacher-learners to reshape existing teaching beliefs, knowledge, and practices and thereby acknowledging the importance of agency in the process of teacher learning, this approach moves beyond a transmission-based model of teacher development. Furthermore, the strategies recognize the importance of both formal and informal professional development opportunities by encouraging collaboration among instructors and by cultivating reflective teaching practices.

Three important implications arise from this research. First, illustrative examples from instructors' reflective journal entries underscore the long-term nature of teacher learning in general and of concept development in particular. This result reflects the sociocultural viewpoint that learning is genetic and as such, points to the importance of continued longitudinal investigations into FL teacher professionalization. Second, because teacher learning is indeed genetic in nature, it is crucial to consider how current professional development efforts link to teacher-learners' future roles as FL professors. One way to create this linkage is to make the purpose of professional development activities explicit to teacher-learners at the outset and to encourage reflective thinking about how a given sequence of activities might inform future teaching experiences. Narrative examples suggest that some instructors had made these connections and were aware of the ongoing nature of their learning. Finally, this research provides evidence of the variable nature of socially mediated activity—one collaborative group was extremely successful, while the other two were less so. This variability points to two implications for future professional development efforts. One is to provide multiple contexts for collaboration (e.g., face-to-face, teacher-to-teacher, teacher-to-LPD, electronic) to appeal

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individual needs; the other is to include systematic follow up (e.g., one-on-one meetings, group debriefings) to professional development sequences.

Although successful overall, there are some shortcomings associated with the organization of this project. In particular, it would have been useful to collect reflective statements prior to the start of the lesson planning sequence to better understand teacher-learners' initial understanding of scientific concepts and to provide a clearer picture of the impact of socioculturally grounded professional development activities. Likewise, think-aloud protocols or stimulated recalls regarding analysis of and decision making related to teaching practices would have provided more insight into teacher-learners' conceptual development. To link conceptual thinking more clearly to teacher-learners' classroom practice, future research might investigate their reactions as they watch and comment on video of their own classroom teaching.[3] Such data, as well as follow-up interviews and observations with instructors to gather evidence of concept development over a more extended period of time, would establish a clearer link between the cognitive act of conceptual thinking and its instantiation in classroom praxis. Indeed, interviews, observations, and stimulated recalls would provide further evidence of how the act of teaching has evolved as a result of teacher-learners' participation in the professional development sequence on lesson planning.

Preparing collegiate FL instructors to be teacher-scholars with multiple responsibilities is a complex undertaking, one to which both teacher-learners and teacher educators must contribute. Sociocultural theory provides a framework within which to ground this work, and the strategies for organizing professional development activities presented herein provide one example of its practical application. This approach can extend well beyond concept development related to lesson planning to include various concepts and contexts for teaching language, literature, and culture, and thus equip the future professoriate with the expertise they need to succeed.

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[3] Fagan, 2012, for an analysis of teacher reactions to their video recorded lessons

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Chapter Thirteen

An Exploration into Online Supervision

Anja Bernardy, *Kennesaw State University*

This study explored the use of a web-based video analysis program for conducting teaching observations and providing feedback to candidates in an alternative teacher preparation program. Five teachers and their supervisor evaluated their experience using the Video Analysis Tool (VAT by Evirx) during the second semester of a one-year internship. Results from a questionnaire showed that candidates rated their supervisor as highly effective, suggesting that the ability of the supervisor to provide appropriate feedback was not compromised by using an online medium. However, comments from an open-ended survey indicated that technical difficulties and loss of a personal connection are factors that need to be considered carefully before using video observations as a viable supervision alternative to replace traditional onsite observations.

Background

Teaching online has become common practice in higher education, and an increasing number of universities are offering not only online courses, but also entire programs online (Barrett, 2010), including teacher certification programs. Online programs provide access to those who cannot travel to classes for various reasons: They live too far away, have family obligations, or cannot fit classes into their work schedule. Access to the university from their home provides the flexibility and convenience that makes online study attractive. When recruiting students, we can expect the question: Is this program, or any course, offered online? Aiding this trend are university administrators such as deans and vice presidents that favor online instruction (Gaytan, 2009) and encourage faculty to develop online programs to attract more students and stay competitive in a market that is increasingly perceived as "customer" oriented. According to a study by the Sloan Consortium, "close to 70% of institutions agree that there is now competition for students in online courses and programs" (Allen & Seaman, 2008, p.12). Teacher education programs are no exception; prospective students shop around for the best deal, and online programs are in demand. Interestingly, this nationwide push toward online degrees seems to be in contrast to the opinions of public school administrators who might hire teachers that obtain online degrees. In a survey of K-12 public school administrators in Louisiana, Faulk (2010) found that 87% of superintendents and 89% of principals had "moderate to strong" reservations about hiring teachers prepared online. Similar results were obtained in a survey in Texas (Faulk, 2011). The disconnect is obvious: While public demand

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for online programs is increasing, those responsible for assuring children get a quality education question the effectiveness of those programs in preparing teachers for the classroom. In addition, a recent nation-wide opinion survey of university faculty revealed that "over 80% of faculty with no online teaching or development experience believe that the learning outcomes for online are 'inferior' or 'somewhat inferior' to those for face-to-face instruction" while "over 80% of faculty with online teaching or development experience have recommended an online course" (Seaman, 2009, p. 6-7).

It seems that we are seeing a similar trend in attitudes as we did with alternative teacher preparation programs. Offered as a solution to recruit and train a population of potential teachers that would otherwise not enroll in traditional programs, they are now an established part of teacher preparation. According to the National Center for Education Information, only six out of 10 teachers hired between 2005 and 2010 were prepared through a traditional university degree program (Feistritzer, Griffin, & Linnajarvi, 2011). However, since the beginnings of alternative certification in the early 1980s, a common perception, especially among those involved in the accreditation of teacher education programs, has been that alternative programs are of inferior quality as compared to traditional university degree programs. Since many are designed to allow individuals to teach before they are fully certified, "alternative" was often synonymous with lowering or "loosening standards" (Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1992). Absent the many requirements associated with a university degree, alternative programs also tend to be of shorter duration. In 2004 the president of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) attempted to dramatize this fact by reducing the myriad of alternative program models that have been developed over 20+ years to one of a mere "few weeks of duration" thus questioning the providers' ability to "properly prepare individuals for the reality of today's diverse classroom, with its many demands" (Wise, 2004, p.1). He expressed the same concern regarding online programs. Nevertheless, a review of alternative certification routes at that time shows that "no two programs are alike and the variations are numerous" (Bernardy & McAllister, 2003, p.76). The research suggests that we cannot make a blanket statement about the effectiveness of all such programs but have to evaluate each program individually to see if its graduates have the knowledge, skills, and dispositions expected of teachers. Some will meet our standards, others will not. Just as graduating from a traditional university degree program does not guarantee that the graduate will be an effective teacher, the alternative program completer will not necessarily be ill prepared, either. Even NCATE is now acknowledging the possibility that those programs might be doing something right: "In this

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mixed market of providers, both university and non-university alternate routes have an opportunity to learn from each other, and possibly combine with each other in some cases to create more robust and relevant preparation programs" (Cibulka, 2009, p.2). The same is happening with online programs: As the numbers keep growing, so does the research and the recommendation for program design and delivery to ensure quality.

One of the concerns of online critics relates to opportunities for candidates to experience classrooms first-hand and implement lessons that they have designed. It is clear from the comments of the administrators in Faulk's (2010) survey that they believe getting a degree online means that teachers will not have experience in the classroom even though having "face to face time" and "hands on engagement and involvement" with children is crucial in learning to teach (p.25–26). Indeed, clinical experiences "present greater challenges in distance education programs because they require direct observation of student or professional performance, as well as opportunities for communication between university-based faculty supervisors and site-based cooperating practitioners and practicum students" (Jung, Galyon-Keramidas, Collins, & Ludlow, 2006, p.18). Nevertheless, accredited programs, no matter whether delivery follows a traditional, an online, or a hybrid model, must include field and clinical experiences for the content and the grade levels appropriate to the certification field. According to NCATE, candidates must be "placed in clinical settings at grade levels and in the subjects…for which they are preparing" (NCATE, 2008, p. 33). In her survey of distance-delivered teacher education programs, Simpson (2006) stated that "there seems to be no disagreement in the teacher education literature that field experience is important" (p. 242). Candidates themselves often comment that student teaching had the biggest impact on their development as teachers (Alger & Kopcha, 2009). Teaching practice must be an integral part of the program to provide candidates with opportunities to implement classroom management strategies and instructional plans; this, in turn, necessitates partnerships with experienced educators to provide guidance and feedback for candidates to acquire the skills to facilitate instruction. The clinical supervision may take different forms, but essentially, it "involves a teacher receiving information from a colleague who has observed the teacher's performance and who serves as both a mirror and a sounding board to enable the teacher to critically examine and possibly alter his or her own professional practice" (Pajak, 2003, p. 5). How do online certification programs provide access to a classroom with children to both degree candidates and an observer/supervisor who can assess their teaching performance and help them improve instruction? Undergraduate programs typically partner with teachers whose classrooms serve as the field experience site for the candidate; graduate programs

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often work with candidates who have their own classrooms, but are not yet certified. In either case, the institution offering the program usually assigns a faculty member to take the role of the supervisor.

Traditionally, this supervision was conducted onsite. The supervisor travelled to the school, observed a class in real time, talked with the teacher afterwards, then completed a written evaluation. Even in today's online programs, this model is often followed; while some or all course work might be delivered online, for the field experience portion, a supervisor travels to the school to observe the candidate teach (Harrell & Harris 2006; Jung et al., 2006; Alger & Kopcha, 2009). However, whenever travel is not feasible, alternative methods of observation have to be employed. As long as (now outdated) videotapes were available, lessons could be videotaped, mailed, and analyzed by a university supervisor (Smith, 1969; Sund, 1969; Dalrymple, 1971; Kelly, 1971; Jarvis, 1973). Today, even when remoteness is not necessarily an issue, video recording, now in digital format, is being employed to conduct supervision entirely online (Heckaman, Ernest, & Thompson, 2011). Some programs use interactive video conferencing to observe and communicate with candidates (Falconer & Lignugaris-Kraft, 2002; Gruenhagen, McCracken, & True, 1999; Thompson & Hawk, 1996). However, setting up synchronous, real-time conferencing can be problematic when technical issues, such as getting through security firewalls, cannot be resolved (Pemberton, Cereijo, Tyler-Wood, & Rademacher, 2004). Therefore, lessons recorded by the candidates themselves and posted on a secure website for viewing by the supervisor might provide the greatest flexibility. Another benefit over real-time observations is that with recorded evidence at their fingertips, supervisors no longer have to rely on recall ability during discussions, but are able to pinpoint the exact teaching moment and link it to the corresponding observation, all on the same screen when web-based video-analysis tools are used. Candidates can review those moments, refer to the supervisor's comments, and reflect on their performance.

This Exploratory Study

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to explore the advantages and disadvantages of using a web-based video analysis program for conducting teaching observations and providing feedback to the candidates in an alternative teacher preparation program. Our underlying motivation was the following: If we could eliminate the need for travel while maintaining the quality of supervision that we currently provide with the onsite observation model, then we could

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transition to a program offered entirely online. This would provide the flexibility and convenience that many potential participants are looking for, and it would allow us to serve teachers that currently cannot participate in the program because their schools are located at too great a distance from the university. In addition, it would address university administrators' concerns about the loss of productivity and the increasing cost involved in traveling to multiple schools several times a semester. However, as faculty, our primary concern is the quality of the instruction, in this case, the effectiveness of the supervisor in providing appropriate feedback to the candidates to help them improve their instructional practices. In that regard, one of the biggest challenges in an online environment is how to observe candidates in the classroom. Real time, remote observation was not possible due to financial and technical restrictions, so we chose the Video Analysis Tool (VAT by Evirx), a web-based program that allows users to upload, annotate, and share videos. To explore the effectiveness of using this tool for supervision, we asked five teacher candidates and their supervisor to provide feedback regarding their experience using VAT during the second semester of a one-year internship.

Participants

Participants in this study were enrolled in an alternative, non-degree teacher preparation program in foreign languages at a large southern state university. The program leads to teacher certification in Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Latin, or Spanish, and is fully accredited by NCATE as well as nationally recognized by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Admission to the program is limited to full-time teachers employed on a provisional teaching license. Depending on the teachers' academic background, the program lasts two to three years, with courses offered twice a week in the evening. The capstone course consists of a two-semester internship that spans one school year, at the end of which candidates receive their state-issued teaching certificate. All five teachers that were enrolled in the internship participated in the study and obtained their full teaching credentials in French (one) or Spanish (four) at the end of the spring semester. There was one elementary school teacher, two middle school teachers, and two high school teachers. They were all female, ranging in age from 30 to 46. Since they were teachers of record, they had their own classroom and did not work with a collaborating teacher. The university supervisor was the only person who gave them feedback specific to foreign languages and in reference to the national standards for foreign language learning on a regular basis. Prior to this study, the supervisor had supervised interns in the program for three years. Before joining the university foreign language faculty, she taught in the public schools for over 30 years.

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Data Collection

During the first (fall) semester, supervision followed the same protocol from previous years: The supervisor observed the five candidates in class and provided feedback in person, completing a total of four observations. The oral feedback was followed by a written summary of the discussion, with additional email exchanges and phone conversations, if there were any follow-up questions.

During the second (spring) semester, the format of the internship was adapted to carry out this exploration. Previously, candidates would record at least one video on a specific subject requested by the supervisor in order to provide evidence for additional categories of performance not observed during the first semester. The DVD would then be delivered to the supervisor, who viewed the video and emailed the candidate written feedback. Since we were interested in exploring online supervision, we eliminated the onsite visits entirely, expanded the number of videos to four, and required candidates to post them online, using the Video Analysis Tool. For each video, the supervisor gave written feedback through annotating specific segments, using the "Comment" feature. This feature allowed the viewer to select any segment from the video, record it as a separate clip, and add written comments. The commented video was then shared again with the candidate who posted the video. The clips and comments were listed in order below the video screen and the candidate could review one clip at a time and also refer to the performance categories from the observation instrument where the reviewer referenced these. Frey (2008) found that recording such communications was important, "as it allowed teacher, peer coaches, and instructors to return to previous steps in the generally linear process of the practicum experience for reflection" (p. 198). VAT provided the medium to document feedback and link it to specific segments of classroom instruction, thus encouraging candidates to view the video as they read the comments.

In addition to letting the supervisor view the videos, candidates selected two videos to share with their classmates. Every candidate was then required to observe a minimum of two videos per school setting and provide written feedback using the "Comment" feature. Since certification covers preschool through 12th grade, in previous years, candidates were required to take time off from work in order to travel to other schools to do observations of other teachers in foreign language classrooms. However, with this web-based tool, every candidate had access to at least two videos at the elementary, middle, and high school level each and was able to conduct the required observations online.

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The supervisor was available for consultation at any time and could be contacted by phone or email during either semester. Observations were guided by the *ACTFL Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers,* which served as the basis for the Foreign Language Observation Instrument. This program assessment instrument is used as a formative progress indicator three times during the academic year (fall midterm, fall final, spring midterm), and as a final, summative program assessment instrument at the end of the spring semester. Expectations for teaching performance were discussed with the candidates at the beginning of the year, using the Observation Instrument, so that the basis for assessing their classroom instruction would be clear.

Study Instruments

A questionnaire about the feedback received from the supervisor was given to the same five candidates at the end of each semester. It consisted of 12 statements pertaining to six categories: A) Psychological support (#1, #6, #10), B) Pointing out strengths (#8, #11), C) Pointing out weaknesses (#2, #7), D) Specific suggestions (#3, #9), E) Feedback clarity (#4, #5), and F) Overall helpfulness (#12), representing characteristics of effective feedback. The statements were randomly distributed and the above categories were not specified on the instrument itself. Candidates rated each item using a Likert-type scale, ranging from 1: "I strongly disagree" to 5: "I strongly agree." In addition, at the end of the second (spring) semester, both candidates and supervisor completed an open-ended opinion survey about the supervision experience in the two formats. There were two columns to provide feedback: "I liked" and "I didn't like" for the fall and the spring semesters, respectively.

Results

Questionnaire Results

Overall, on the questionnaires the candidates rated their supervisor highly both semesters: All but one statement received a mean rating of 4 or 5 (See Table 1). For the fall semester, the categories of statements with the highest means were "Psychological support" (4.6) and "Pointing out strengths" (4.5). The "Overall effectiveness" category received a mean rating of 4.4. At the end of the spring semester, the "Overall effectiveness" category remained the same at 4.4; all other means were slightly higher, with the "Pointing out strengths" category receiving the highest combined rating (5.0). According to Scheeler, Ruhl, & McAffee (2004), "Feedback that is positive, specific and corrective results in positive changes in teacher behavior" (p.65). The supervisor was positive - she praised candidates often (1), encouraged them to excel (6), and was

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supportive (10). She was also specific—she specified behaviors to continue (8), singled out effective activities (11), gave concrete suggestions to improve (3), and recommended teaching strategies (9). Her feedback was also corrective—she pointed out behaviors to modify (2) and explained aspects that were ineffective (7); however, during both semesters, there was a slightly higher emphasis on "Pointing out strengths" (4.5 for the fall and 5.0 for the spring) than "Pointing out weaknesses" (3.8 for the fall and 4.3 for the spring).

Table 1: Results of Questionnaire*

Statements	**Fall Semester Face-To-Face**	**Spring Semester VAT**
My supervisor…		
Providing psychological support	4.6	4.8
#1 …praised me often	4.6	5.0
#6 …encouraged me to excel.	4.2	4.4
#10 …was supportive.	5.0	5.0
Pointing out strengths	4.5	5.0
#8 …specified behaviors that I should continue	4.4	5.0
#11 …singled out particular classroom activities I did that were effective.	4.6	5.0
Pointing out weaknesses	3.8	4.3
#2 …pointed out specific behaviors that I needed to modify.	4.0	4.8
#7 …explained what aspects of my teaching were ineffective.	3.6	3.8
Giving practical advice	4.1	4.3
#3…gave me concrete suggestions on how to improve.	4.0	4.4
#9…recommended teaching strategies to implement my lesson more effectively.	4.0	4.2
Feedback clarity	4.3	4.6
#4…provided feedback that was clear.	4.0	4.4
#5…referenced specific teaching moments from my lessons	4.6	4.8
Overall helpfulness	4.4	4.4
#12…helped me improve my teaching.	4.4	4.4

*The same five candidates completed both fall and spring questionnaires.

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These ratings indicate that the candidates perceived their supervisor as effective both semesters; she provided the psychological support and the feedback they needed to improve their instruction. The fact that the ratings for every statement were similar both semesters also suggests that the ability of the supervisor to provide appropriate feedback was not compromised by switching to an online medium. If corrective feedback is critical in helping to modify what the teacher does in the classroom, as Scheeler et al. (2004) argue, than having an effective way of delivering that feedback is equally important. In our study, the supervisor was able to do so effectively using VAT. Accordingly, using a web-based video analysis tool, such as VAT, might be a potential solution for assessing the clinical experience component of our program and help us transition to an online certification program. However, we also have to consider that the supervisor had already established rapport with the candidates during the first semester, and that the positive evaluation of the supervisor during the second semester does not necessarily reflect a positive experience with VAT. In fact, the relationship between supervisor and candidates seems to have been a crucial factor in mitigating the frustration candidates experienced in dealing with the technology.

Survey Results

The comments from the open-ended survey generated two themes, one related to the supervisor, another related to the use of technology. Comments regarding the fall focused on the supervisor and no negative experience was reported; the candidates appreciated the supervisor being in class, as well as the feedback and the moral support she provided. One candidate said she liked "to talk to [her]," because "it was often to calm [her] nerves & just make [her] feel okay about what [she] was doing." These comments confirm that rapport between the supervisor and the candidates was successfully established in the fall. In contrast, regarding the spring, no mention was made of the supervisor; the overwhelming focus was on the use of technology, both positive (I liked) and negative (I didn't like). Candidates liked the flexibility of doing their observations online, choosing what lesson they wanted to record, having comments linked to specific segments, and receiving feedback from their peers. Their comments regarding flexibility point to the need to take into consideration that asking candidates to be absent from their job during the day in order to complete program requirements is indeed a hardship. However, in transitioning to an online program, we would need to make sure that a variety of school settings are represented in the internship cohort, so that candidates are able to observe classes in P-12. The candidates' comments regarding feedback resemble those obtained by Frey (2008), whose participants particularly appreciated having written feedback from their peers about their

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instructional practices. Whether this could provide an appropriate means to influence instructional practices, however, is not clear. From their review of studies about peer coaching, Scheeler et al. (2004, p. 68) concluded that "no definite statement can be made about the relative effectiveness of peer or traditional supervisors." Nevertheless, even if peer feedback might not have the same impact that supervisor feedback has, in our study it was found to be a motivational factor. Candidates were not required to evaluate their peers, but the fact that most of them mentioned enjoying their classmates' teaching videos and receiving feedback from them about their own teaching, suggests that incorporating some form of peer review is beneficial and therefore VAT or a similar program could be a useful tool to build a sense of community in both onsite as well as online preparation programs. Unfortunately, peer reviews alone did not make a difference in motivation for one candidate, who could not find anything positive about the experience in the spring. On the contrary, she missed the onsite observations and the "processing in person" afterwards. This, of course, would no longer be possible if we were to eliminate the need for travel, so in order to support those reluctant to go 100% online, other face-to-face opportunities would need to be integrated. A video club (Sherin, 2000) for example, in which teachers get together to watch and discuss video clips of their classes, could be combined with online supervision. Those meetings could be synchronous, online discussions, with face-to-face video components. Multi-user video conferencing is commonly used in the business world. According to Blum (2008), "audio-, web-, and video-conferencing has grown to a $3.5-billion-a-year global industry," with "so-called reservationless conferencing [accounting] for roughly 95% of that market…" If business clients can make the online transition without having to sacrifice face-to-face group meetings, why should our education "clients" not be able to do the same?

Complaints about the Video Analysis Tool were multiple. Comments from the candidates pertained almost exclusively to the technical difficulties encountered. The "videos downloaded too slowly," there were "too many steps involved" (recording, converting—when necessary, uploading, sharing, etc.), and the software wasn't as "foolproof" as they had expected. For their observations, even though they loved the convenience, it was sometimes difficult "to see what really happened in the classroom" because "[they] only see one view of the class" and they "could not see what the students were like." The supervisor echoed similar concerns: For her, the "perception of the whole class was difficult" because "[she had] a limited view." In fact, "if it hadn't been for the fall semester, [she] wouldn't know the school climate." In addition, she commented that the "reluctance" of some candidates "to learn a new system" required a lot of

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initial support. “Loss of personal connection” was also identified as a disadvantage over onsite observations. However, the benefits were substantial. Compared with the hassle of driving to the observation site in the fall (scheduling, traffic, time, etc.), the virtual visits were “less time-consuming” and caused “far less stress.” The “flexibility” provided by any time online access was also a plus. Regarding the way in which VAT facilitated providing feedback, the supervisor pointed out several benefits: There is “visual evidence to support feedback” and the “ability to view [the video] again” as well as “[commenting] on specific segments” was very helpful in providing good feedback. In addition, the benefits that we had noted from previous years about using video to document specific instructional practices that had not been observed during onsite visits, were also evident as she was able “to see the best” and “request a specific lesson” in order to address additional performance areas. From the supervisor’s point of view, then, VAT accomplished its purpose; she was able to observe a greater variety of lessons, could provide clear feedback linked to specific segments in the lesson, and was able to do so at a convenient time and without having to travel.

It is interesting to note that the candidates who expressed the strongest negative feelings on the survey: “I hate VAT” and “I like nothing about it” rated the supervisor very highly on the questionnaire, with ratings of “5” for every statement and ratings of “5” (on 10 statements) and “4” (on 2 statements), respectively. This suggests that candidates separated their experience with the medium of feedback delivery from the actual quality of the feedback. In other words, they didn’t shoot the messenger! Nevertheless, it is important for their overall experience to be positive. Clearly, with the loss of the in-person contact, combined with the technical issues, a different type of support network is needed for our candidates, especially in regards to technology. We have to consider that “classes typically contain students of varying degrees of technical expertise, computer experience, patience, and personal stamina” (Ammendolia, 2006, p. 1). Our candidates were no exception.

Conclusion

“Clinical supervision has as its goal the professional development of teachers, with an emphasis on improving teachers’ classroom performance” (Achson & Gall, 1987, p.1). From the perspective of the teacher candidates themselves, the change from onsite observations and face-to-face debriefing to video-observations with online feedback did not seem to make a difference in their supervisor’s ability to provide appropriate support and feedback to help them improve, despite the fact that they struggled with implementing the required technology. In addition,

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some benefits emerged from their online experience. For four of the five candidates, the flexibility to choose the lesson to present for evaluation and to schedule online peer observations at their convenience instead of having to miss work to observe teachers at other schools was perhaps the single most important factor in their (albeit reluctant) acceptance of the technology; for the supervisor, eliminating the need for travel to the school sites and the ability to view the videos at a time and location convenient for her, in addition to being able to link comments directly to specific video segments, were the highlights.

The loss of personal, face-to-face contact, and the lack of "feel" for the classroom environment were mitigated by the fact that the supervisor had already establish a rapport with the candidates during the first semester and was familiar with the school setting. Consequently, before transitioning to an online supervision only set-up, we would want to explore different ways to establish that personal connection. Since "the clinical model consistently emphasizes the supervisory relationship as a key to effective intervention" (Grimmet, 1983, p. 10), video-conferencing might be used to build the needed rapport. The supervisor could also facilitate group discussions about teaching using multi-user video conferencing tools. In addition, the candidates, with the help of their students, could create a virtual tour of their school and/or classroom to provide a context for the supervisor so he might have a better reference point. Appropriate technical support will be critical to help reduce (and hopefully eliminate) the frustration that our candidates experienced with recording and uploading videos.

Overall, the results of this exploratory study, though based on a very small sample, show promise for the use of online video analysis tools as a supplement to onsite observations. The two main benefits that emerged were flexibility and convenience. In addition, a reduction in the need for supervisor travel should ease the budgetary and productivity concerns voiced by university administrators. However, before considering it as a viable supervision alternative that would allow us to transition to an online program and provide teachers in remote locations of the state access to an initial certification program, careful consideration of the concerns identified will be the key to ensure the same level of effectiveness as with traditional, onsite models. In their experience with using online supervision exclusively, Heckaman, et al. (2011) point out that "identifying and utilizing efficient and effective methods for assessing [their] candidates' performance in the classroom has been one of the greatest challenges of [their] teacher preparation program" (p. 347). Surely, we will face the same challenges as we move toward the implementation of an online alternative certification program in foreign languages at our institution.

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Chapter Fourteen

Using Technology to Promote Assessment Literacy: A Review of Three Approaches for Language Teacher Education

Margaret E. Malone, *Center for Applied Linguistics*

Assessment literacy refers to familiarity with those measurement basics related directly to what occurs in classrooms. Language assessment literacy extends this definition to the specific issues of language assessment (Stiggins, 2001; Inbar-Lourie, 2008; Taylor, 2009). This paper explores three approaches that use technology to enhance assessment literacy among pre- and in-service language teachers. As embodied in three courses offered by the Center for Applied Linguistics, these are distance learning, blended learning, and tutorial models. The challenges to the three models are discussed in detail, and the paper concludes with a review of the opportunities the models provide and recommendations for their future use, based on feedback from participants.

Introduction

Assessment of student progress allows language instructors to determine how much students have learned, the effectiveness of their own teaching, and whether and how instruction should be changed to improve learning. Therefore, understanding how to conduct good assessment is crucial for effective teaching and learning. But what is the best way for this information to be conveyed to in-service language instructors who are challenged by limited resources of time, money, and energy?

The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of three approaches used to expand knowledge of language assessment among language instructors of less commonly taught languages via technology. The three approaches described in this paper include a downloadable tutorial, an e-learning course, and a blended learning course. The paper first presents the need for language assessment literacy through a short review of the literature. Next, the paper describes three projects that used different approaches to work with language instructors on assessment literacy and participants' reactions to the effectiveness of these approaches. Finally, it identifies the challenges of using each approach, as well as the opportunities such distance learning approaches can provide for increasing language assessment literacy and integrating this knowledge into classroom practice.

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Literature Review

Assessment literacy refers to an understanding of the measurement basics related directly to what happens in classrooms. Assessment literacy in general refers to the knowledge all teachers need to have about assessment in order to develop, select, and use assessments to provide information about student progress (Boyles, 2005; Stiggins, 2001; Stoynoff & Chapelle, 2005). However, additional challenges exist when transferring general assessment knowledge to knowledge of language assessment. Like other content teachers, language instructors require an understanding of developmentally appropriate language acquisition. Therefore, the term “language assessment literacy” extends this definition to the specific issues of language classrooms and language learners (Inbar-Lourie, 2008; Taylor, 2009).

Strong, properly implemented assessment provides teachers, students, and all stakeholders with important information about student performance and about the extent to which learning objectives have been attained in the language classroom. Quality assessment is necessary to institute, nurture, and replicate quality language programs. First, assessment helps students and teachers measure language proficiency. Second, assessment promotes accountability among language programs. Third, assessment can document success and can make an argument for increased funding for these programs (Reese, 2010).

All assessment should align with curriculum development in order to allow assessment to inform and improve teaching and vice versa. But while it is generally agreed that classroom teachers need to assess students’ progress (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983; Schafer, 1993), many teachers have a limited background in assessment fundamentals (Popham, 2009). While many pre-service teacher education programs may require a course or courses in assessment, there is no requirement that such a course focus on language assessment in particular, thus exacerbating the challenge of helping language teachers understand how to navigate the specific challenges of assessing language outcomes in their classrooms. It is also critical to determine the necessary components of assessment literacy for language teachers in order to develop courses and resources to fill this gap.

Boyles (2005) outlines a set of competencies or components of understanding language assessment that she believes foreign language teachers need to have as a background in order to develop and/or select quality assessments. For Boyles, these competencies include:

1. understanding appropriate testing practices
2. interpreting test results
3. analyzing test results

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4. reporting results to appropriate stakeholders
5. examining the results *vis à vis* teaching
6. applying the results to classroom practices

These competencies serve as an important foundation for assessment literacy. Boyles emphasizes, however, that the foundations of assessment literacy alone are insufficient; language teachers require ongoing professional development and support to refine and improve their understanding of assessment to promote strong classroom applications throughout their careers. As such, she recommends that professional development on assessment occur in a variety of settings, including through distance learning and face-to-face fora, participation in professional conferences, and teacher preparation programs. Such efforts can, Boyles points out, provide opportunities for ongoing professional development for teachers while supporting teaching and learning. This paper explores ways that professional development addresses three of these competencies (understanding appropriate testing practices, examining results *vis a vis* teaching, and applying results to classroom practice) within the context of distance learning.

Boyles is not alone in identifying important concepts of language assessment literacy. Inbar-Lourie (2008) points out that teachers in general are aware of the importance of assessment and that teachers should be cognizant of the intended and unintended effects that certain assessments can have on various groups or individuals. In addition, Inbar-Lourie notes that teachers should be familiar with external assessment formats, procedures, and data analysis so that they can incorporate these elements into their teaching. At the same time, she acknowledges that, frequently, teachers must both assess their students and serve as their teacher, which means that instructors may be conflicted in their roles as teacher and assessor. Inbar-Lourie suggests setting up a framework of core competencies of language assessment. This framework would incorporate a "body of knowledge and research grounded in theory and epistemological beliefs and connected to other bodies of knowledge in education, linguistics, and applied linguistics" (p. 396). Inbar-Lourie also suggests adopting a set of standards and proficiency levels for the knowledge base that teachers should have within the language testing and assessment field.

Taylor (2008) further describes language assessment literacy as being composed of three basic components: skills (the how-to or basic testing expertise), knowledge (information about measurement and about language), and principles (concepts underlying testing such as validity, reliability, and ethics). Taylor argues that a good understanding of all three components is

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essential to assessment literacy, and also that assessment literacy must be developed among all stakeholders to help professionals most effectively develop and use tests in the future.

The need for assessment literacy is particularly acute in the Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs). Defined as languages other than French, German, Spanish and Italian, many LCTLs, such as Chinese and Arabic, are being taught more frequently in the United States than in previous decades (MLA, 2006). However, assessment resources in these languages are limited, particularly compared to those in the commonly taught languages (Jackson and Malone, 2009). In addition, professional development designed specifically for the needs of LCTL teachers is particularly sparse. As a result, the knowledge and skills needed to develop strong assessments may be particularly lacking among teachers of LCTLs.

At the same time that technology represents an opportunity to expand professional development opportunities for teachers, such approaches involve far more effort than taking paper-based materials and putting them online (Richards, 2005).

It seems clear that knowledge of assessment is important for all teachers and that language teachers need to understand both the basics of assessment in general and how to assess language growth in particular. Language teachers, according to Boyles (2005), Inbar-Lourie (2008), and Taylor (2009), require not only knowledge of assessment principles but also support in understanding how to operationalize such principles. However, many language teachers, especially in LCTLs, lack knowledge of assessment and the skills to apply this knowledge to classroom settings so that positive washback (Hughes, 2003) cannot take place between teaching and assessment.

Three Approaches to Language Assessment Literacy

The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) has developed three courses that provide teachers with a background in language assessment, two of which were developed primarily for LCTL instructors and one of which was modified for LCTL teachers. All courses are primarily self-access or involve a distance learning practice: a distance learning course, a blended learning course, and a downloadable, self-access tutorial. It is important to emphasize that no single approach, as Boyles (2005) pointed out, can necessarily be effective for all LCTL teachers. Instead, the different approaches were developed and implemented to meet a specific need for a group of teachers. Each approach is described in a separate section below, as are the reasons for which the specific approach was implemented.

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Distance Learning

In 2002, CAL received a grant to develop a distance learning course to provide a background on the basics of oral proficiency assessment to language instructors. Distance learning courses usually rely on an electronic learning platform (CAL has used e-college, Blackboard, Moodle and its learning for the course described) that provides for both synchronous and asynchronous interactions via discussion boards and live chats. Funded by the U.S. Department of Education, the course was intended to provide an introduction to oral proficiency assessment for language instructors unable to attend a face-to-face workshop. Originally developed for a general language teaching audience, the course has also been offered exclusively for LCTL teachers. Table 1 provides an overview of the modules included in the distance learning course, including length of time during which each module is featured in the course.

Table 1: Overview of Distance Learning Course

Module	Duration	Topics	Activities
Course Intro.	One week	• Course overview • Downloading materials • Submitting assignments • Posting to discussion boards • Completing quizzes • Participating in live chats	Asynchronous discussion board (instructors respond twice during week) Office hours at end of module.
1	One week	• Reliability and validity • ACTFL OPI • CAL SOPI • History of the OPI	Asynchronous discussion board (instructors respond twice during week) Module 1 Quiz Office hours
2	One week	• ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines–Speaking • Oral proficiency samples: Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, and Superior	Asynchronous discussion board (instructors respond twice during week) Module 2 Quiz Office hours

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Module	Duration	Topics	Activities
3	One week	• OPI Structure • Warm Up • Level Checks • Level Probes • Role-play • Wind Down • SOPI Task Structure	Asynchronous discussion board (instructors respond twice during week) Module 3 Quiz Office hours
4	One week	• Rating Tasks • Holistic Ratings • SOPI Samples	Asynchronous discussion board (instructors respond twice during week) Module 4 Quiz Office hours

As Table 1 shows, this distance learning course includes a technology introduction and four main modules that provide an overview of oral proficiency testing. The course includes an overview of the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines–Speaking (1999)*, reviews currently available tests of oral proficiency, provides practice in general rating approaches for oral proficiency tests, and includes sample student performances rated according to the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines–Speaking (1999)*. While the course focuses on oral proficiency assessment, it necessarily describes basic concepts of assessment such as reliability, validity, and impact (Boyles, 2005; Stiggins, 2001; Stoynoff and Chapelle, 2005, Cavella and Malone, 2008). Table 1 provides an overview of the course structure, and each component of the course is described in detail below in the order in which participants work through the course modules.

Introduction

In presenting complex ideas in a digital format, it is important to keep the information clear, precise and to the point. Therefore, each module opens with an introduction to the main topic of the module. The introduction, on a single page, allows the participants to see an overview of the material for the module and provides an advance organizer of the course components listed below.

Readings

Each module includes a short reading that users can download for printing or reading on screen. In designing the readings, the course developers reviewed current print materials and

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reduced the length and complexity of language in all materials. All course readings, except one journal article, are five pages or fewer.

Speech Samples

Each module includes speech samples representative of the major levels of the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines–Speaking (1999)*. The course is not intended to teach users to rate according to these guidelines but rather to familiarize users with the major levels and how speech samples sound at each major level. Therefore, the samples are brief and easy to listen to in a short period of time.

Discussion Board

Each module includes a topical discussion board in which the instructor writes specific questions or comments to generate discussion on the module topic. While participants can post any question or issue for discussion, the initial topics allow the instructor to guide discussion. The instructor responded to questions posed on the discussion board twice during the week. Such discussions are called *asynchronous* because participants and the instructor can post comments or questions at any time.

Quiz

Each module includes a quiz, which allows the course participants to demonstrate their understanding of the concepts covered in the module. Two module quizzes ask participants to provide a rating, using the major ACTFL proficiency levels, and then compare their own ratings to those provided by the course instructor. The quizzes allow the participants and instructor to monitor progress toward attaining course goals.

Office Hours

Office hours, or live “chats,” are held five times during the course for one hour at a time. All participants who are available, including the course instructor, log into a live “chat room” at a pre-appointed time and discuss the content of the previous week’s module. It is expected that all participants will have completed the weekly quiz prior to the office hours, and a great deal of office hour time is often devoted to the results of the quiz and lingering questions from these results. The synchronous nature of the office hours provides a dynamic opportunity for participants and the instructor to discuss the content of the course. Perhaps the greatest challenge at the beginning of office hours is to begin the discussion, then respond to all questions that emerge and wind down the discussion in an appropriate period of time. As

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electronic learning platforms have evolved during the past decade, office hours are archived so that course users who cannot participate can access the office hours at a later time. However, accessing the archives is no substitute for the interaction of the real-time office hours.

Assignment

Each module includes an assignment that participants complete and return to a "dropbox" for review. The instructor reviews and provides feedback on each participant's assignment. The assignment feature of the course has two major challenges: ensuring that all participants turn in the assignments on time and providing feedback before the next module begins.

Reflections

In seven years, over 160 language instructors and specialists have participated in the distance learning course described above. Over time, the technological challenges (such as dial-up Internet access) have changed; in recent years, participation in office hours has dwindled as participation in asynchronous discussion boards has grown. As a result, CAL has altered the course to include fewer synchronous office hours and more frequent responses to the discussion boards. In general, participants have responded favorably to the format and have provided important feedback to improve the course over time. Comments on the course have included the following:

- *Thanks for the experience. I really liked the online platform. It was convenient and efficient.*
- *I had only heard about the OPI and SOPI before, but didn't really know any details about them. I have a much clearer idea now about what they encompass.*
- *[I learned] that oral proficiency assessment is difficult and one must follow certain guidelines strictly in order to be fair to our students.*

In addition, over 90% of participants surveyed responded favorably to the statement, "I was able to navigate the [distance learning] platform, and it did not hinder my participation in the course." It appears that the distance learning course has been an effective format for teaching basic principles of oral proficiency assessment to over 160 language instructors, although it also has challenges, to be discussed below. However, participants in the online course often comment that they would like a face-to-face component to supplement the online course. The next section describes a project that combines online learning with a face-to-face component to increase instructors' understanding of assessment.

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Blended Learning

While CAL has found the distance learning approach a positive experience for a number of language instructors, CAL staff nonetheless recognizes the advantages of face-to-face professional development opportunities. Since 2008, CAL has been awarded funding annually to manage a summer professional development course for language instructors via the STARTALK program. STARTALK is a Presidential Initiative that funds summer learning programs in critical languages such as Arabic, Chinese, Hindi, Persian, Turkish, Swahili and Urdu and provides professional development to teachers and prospective teachers of these languages. CAL developed a blended learning approach specifically for STARTALK instructors. Blended learning refers to a combination of technology-based and traditional, face-to-face learning. The goal of the course is to deliver training in the basics of assessment, as well as hands-on opportunities to create assessments, that program directors, instructors, and teacher trainers in short-term language programs can implement in a short-term summer program.

Course participants, who have numbered over 150 for the distance learning course and over 100 for participation in the face-to-face workshop, reported the following motivations for enrolling in the blended learning course:

- *Improve my information about the assessments and how I can use it in my class with ease. Meet new teachers and share and learn from their experience*
- *My main goal is to learn and brainstorm about different modes of assessment, and learn about my colleagues' experience*
- *To learn new proficiency assessment skills with hands-on activities and interactive sessions.*

Based on these comments, it is clear that the goals of the courses were shared by the two groups (instructors and participants).

The course content includes the basic principles of assessment, developing and using assessment tasks in the classroom, a review of and applications for the *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines–Speaking* (1999), and opportunities to review the content and reflect upon the National Standards for Foreign Language Education (2009) and review ways to incorporate them into instruction and assessment (Nier, Donovan, & Malone, 2009). The course includes the following components: an introduction to the course technology and four online modules on assessment basics, a two-day face-to-face workshop on developing assessment tasks and rubrics, and a series of follow-up online modules after the face-to-face course. Each component is briefly detailed below. Table 2 shows the outline of the blended learning course.

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Table 2: Blended Learning Course Outline

Module	Topics covered	Duration	Activities
Course Introduction	• Introduction to workshop • Using online technology	1 week	• Readings • Asynchronous chat • Assignment • Quiz • Office hours
Module 1	• Introduction to assessment • Formative and summative assessment • Standards-based assessment	1 week	• Readings • Asynchronous chat • Assignment • Quiz • Office hours
Module 2	• Key assessment concepts • Validity • Reliability	1 week	• Readings • Asynchronous chat • Assignment • Quiz • Office hours
Module 3	• Assessing reading, writing, speaking and listening	1 week	• Readings • Asynchronous chat • Assignment • Quiz • Office hours
Module 4	• Performance assessment • Assessment tasks	1 week	• Readings • Asynchronous chat • Assignment • Quiz • Office hours
First face-to-face workshop	• Needs assessment • National Standards • Proficiency guidelines • LinguaFolio • Assessing culture • Developing assessment tasks • Rubrics	2 days	• Presentations: participant program goals • Whole group instruction • Small group and paired activities • Whole group discussion/sharing

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Module	Topics covered	Duration	Activities
Module 5	• Review face-to-face workshop • Aligning tasks to the Standards • ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines • Integrated Performance Assessment	2 weeks	• Readings • Asynchronous chat • Assignment • Quiz • Office hours
Module 6	• Standardized assessments • Feedback to students • Teacher certification	2 weeks	• Readings • Asynchronous chat • Assignment • Quiz • Office hours

Initial Online Modules

As Table 2 depicts, CAL designed four one-week distance learning modules to be delivered over a one-month period, and approximately 40 STARTALK instructors have participated annually since 2008. Of the 40 or more instructors who annually participate in the distance learning aspect of the blended learning course, approximately 75% participate in the face-to-face workshop. In designing the blended learning course, CAL professional development providers reflected on the biggest challenges of both online and face-to-face professional development opportunities. For online professional development opportunities, such as the distance learning course described above, the greatest challenge is the limited personal relationships developed in a distance learning course over a face-to-face experience (Nier, Donovan, and Malone, 2009). For face-to-face professional development, participants often arrive with different backgrounds and knowledge of assessment. Such disparities in background can make a face-to-face professional development opportunity overwhelming for some participants and a repeat of existing knowledge for others. Acknowledging this challenge, CAL elected to begin the blended learning course with online modules on the basics of assessment—reliability, validity, impact, and practicality—as well as the National Standards for Foreign Language Education (2009). By beginning with this core material, the course developers hoped that all participants would arrive at the face-to-face workshop with shared understanding of the basics of assessment and the National Standards and be ready to apply them in the workshop.

Similar to the distance learning course, the initial online modules include an introduction to each topic, short readings, discussion boards, quizzes, office hours, and assignments. In

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addition to quizzes that asked participants to show that they understood the basic principles being discussed, participants submitted assignments after each module and received personalized feedback on each. A major focus of the course was the development of classroom-based assessment tasks and rubrics that could be used within and shared across STARTALK programs. Assignments focused on ways to integrate the content of the modules into classroom-based assessment tasks.

To make the instructor workload manageable, the course instructors held to deadlines established for submission of assignments. In addition, the course instructors developed templates for responding to each assignment so that feedback could be provided in a standardized way. With the initial online modules, all participants were prepared for the two-day face-to-face workshop.

Face-to-Face Workshop

The initial modules were followed by face-to-face workshop with about 30 participants and four instructors, comprising two lead instructors and two assistants. The participant-to-instructor ratio (1:7) allowed for frequent small-group activity and individual attention. During the face-to-face workshop, the focus was placed on first ensuring that participants understood the content of the online modules through interactive small-group and paired activities. In addition, each participant made a short presentation about his or her language program and goals for participating in the workshop. During the face-to-face workshop, participants developed tasks for the various communicative modes in which students can be assessed, including interpretive listening and reading, presentational writing and speaking, and interpersonal speaking and listening. They received feedback from CAL staff and other participants and select tasks were later posted on the online course. The workshop also focused on aligning assessment tasks to the *Standards for Foreign Language Education* (2009). Participants were able to create assessment tasks for their students that measured performances at the Novice and Intermediate levels. Participants learned appropriate ways to assess students at various proficiency levels, and applied this knowledge to developing and sharing assessment tasks. In this way, participants were able to leave the workshop with knowledge and skills of how to design tasks as well as one or two assessment tasks to use in their classrooms.

Follow-Up Online Modules

After leaving the face-to-face workshop, most participants returned to their home institutions to conduct their summer language programs. To provide instructors with flexibility

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during their concurrent programs, the follow-up modules were designed to take place over a two-week period rather than a one-week period like the initial modules. While the follow-up modules followed the same structure as the initial modules, these modules began with a review of the tasks developed in the workshop. The assignments in the follow-up modules were also more connected to actual classroom instruction than the initial modules. In addition, participants in the face-to-face workshop suggested topics for the follow-up modules to continue learning after leaving the face-to-face workshop. Table 2 showed topics covered during the follow-up modules. The blended learning course has allowed 160 LCTL teachers to not only learn about principles of language assessment but also to benefit from hands-on guidance.

Reflection

The blended learning format has been reported as helpful through both online participant evaluations of the course as well as by the decision to re-fund the course annually since 2008. Each year, participant evaluations and reflections are considered in course improvement and used to update the course. The challenges of the blended learning format will be discussed below.

Tutorial

While CAL's STARTALK blended learning course has been highly effective, not all STARTALK instructors have been able to participate, as many instructors do not have the time to devote to this extended learning opportunity. In 2009, CAL received funding to transform the essential parts of the blended learning course into a downloadable, interactive, self-access tutorial for LCTL teachers to provide background on the essentials of assessment. In addition, data from the pilots showed that using terms from the "backward design" approach, or beginning with learning objectives and working backward (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005), was highly effective for the audience. Therefore, the tutorial modules, and subsequently the blended learning course, were designed to include explicit references to backward design, as it resonated with the target audience.

While the tutorial content is based on the blended learning course, it was altered for a self-access format. Table 3 outlines the modules of the tutorial.

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Table 3: Tutorial Modules

Module Name	**Description**
How to navigate this resource	Shows users how to navigate the tutorial and includes practice in all uses of the mouse, next button, hyperlinks and other features of the tutorial
Purposes for assessment	Explains some of the purposes for which LCTL teachers assess their students in order to contextualize assessment within teaching and learning
Validity	Explains the current theory of validity as an argument rather as a yes/no scenario
Reliability	Describes reliability or consistency in assessment and how to improve such reliability in LCTL classrooms
Practicality	Outlines principles of practicality and some difficulties LCTL instructors face, including time, funding, available tests and other resources
Impact	Addresses how assessment can have an impact, either positive or negative, on teaching and learning.

As Table 3 shows, the tutorial describes the principles of effective of assessment and includes specific references to challenges that LCTL teachers may face. Perhaps the most important aspect of the tutorial is the use of LCTL-based scenarios, activities, and quizzes. Each module opens with a realistic scenario contextualized within a LCTL classroom. Target audience reviewers suggested including a teacher from the target culture to make the tutorial user-friendly and relate directly to LCTL teachers, who are often native speakers of the target language.

Each module also includes activities situated within a K-8 and 9-16 classroom. The activities allow tutorial users to apply the knowledge gained from the module to a realistic situation and to choose to complete the activity for the K-8 or 9-16 level. Sample responses to the activities are included so that users can compare their responses to the activities to those developed by CAL. Finally, each module includes a quiz of multiple-choice and constructed response questions that allow users to compare their responses with the sample responses provided.

The tutorial was reviewed by six language testing experts and piloted by 11 target users. The reviews by language testing experts identified ways to strengthen the use of assessment terms, as well as suggestions for how to make the tutorial user-friendly for the target audience. The pilot with 11 target users provided helpful feedback on ways to improve the tutorial for the target audience, including ways to reword technical language so that it was accessible to the users. Pilot participants indicated that the organization of the tutorial with inclusion of effective examples of assessment use allows the users to work through a structured approach and then apply such examples to their own situation.

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While all three approaches (distance learning, blended learning and a downloadable tutorial) included technological efforts to meet the different needs of busy language instructors, participants and instructors have encountered challenges in applying each approach. These challenges are described in the next section.

Challenges to the Assessment Literacy Approaches

The major challenges of the three approaches included: ensuring active participation (distance learning and blended learning), maximizing ease of use based on technological and English literacy (distance learning and blended learning), selecting and organizing content appropriate for the audience, transforming theory into practice, and differentiation for different levels of experience with assessment. Each of these challenges is described below, along with ways that the challenges have been addressed in the different approaches.

Ensuring Active Participation

Perhaps the greatest challenge in the distance learning and blended learning approaches was working to encourage active participation by users. While the e-learning platforms allowed instructors to track student logins and progress, instructors often had to follow up with participants who had not logged into the course, failed to participate in discussions or office hours, or neglected to submit assignments. For participants who did not log into the course, the course developers promptly instituted a policy described in registration materials that any enrolled user who did not begin to participate within a prescribed period of time would be dropped from the course. Because all courses were offered at no cost to the participant, this policy was effective from the instructor point of view. However, multiple messages were necessary in order to effectively communicate the deadlines to participants.

Another great challenge, referred to already, was balancing the participants' need for more time to complete assignments with the scheduled pace of the courses. The distance learning and blended learning courses were designed so that short assignments would be submitted at the end of each module, and the instructors allotted two days to correct the assignments. Any late assignment resulted in a conundrum for instructors. On the one hand, instructors wanted to provide the most extensive feedback possible to participants; on the other hand, providing feedback long after participants had moved on to the next module was ineffective in confirming understanding of concepts ahead of the next topic. In addition, the workload for instructors was immense, and reviewing late assignments meant an additional task in the following modules. As a result, instructors made firm deadlines for assignments and had

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to provide little or no feedback to assignments more than one week overdue. While these changes have made a positive impact on instructor scheduling, it is nonetheless challenging for busy teachers to all submit assignments in a timely manner.

Time is always a challenge for such courses, and course instructors must work together and with the participants to ensure that the course requirements are feasible within the time frame.

Maximizing Ease of Use Based On Technological and English Literacy

An additional challenge was to maximize ease of use of the distance learning platform for users. There are two major issues to consider for effective use of distance learning with language instructors: technological and English literacy. While these challenges were most prevalent in the distance and blended learning courses, they were also considerations in the development of the tutorial. In the early days (2004) of CAL's distance learning efforts, developers found that many users lacked the basic hardware and software necessary to participate effectively in the courses. Relying on dial-up connections meant that users could not download speech samples quickly and effectively and that participants would sometimes lose the connection during the office hours. To address basic technology issues, CAL began to advertise the course with basic technological requirements. While this served to eliminate participants without required hardware and software capabilities, the focus on technology highlighted another issue—that of technological literacy. A number of participants demonstrated high motivation to learn the material but had great difficulties logging in to the course and following instructions. To combat these issues, course developers have always included an introductory module that requires participants to practice using all aspects of the course (downloading different file types, listening to speech samples, uploading documents, contributing to the discussion boards, participating in the office hours). At the same time, developers recognize that pursuing the course builds technological literacy for some participants, and this building of technological literacy is an important outcome for participants.

A second potential barrier to distance learning for this audience is English language literacy. While all participants have been highly educated, a number have found the online office hours difficult because of the reading and writing skills needed to participate effectively. While the asynchronous discussion boards allow for more presentational and less interpersonal writing, it remains a challenge for many participants to engage as well online in English as they would in their first language. To respond to this issue, for the blended learning approach, course developers instituted a Chinese language section that allows participants to respond to

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discussion boards and conduct office hours in Chinese, affording full participation for this audience. The necessary expertise in assessment and highly functional language ability are not always available among course instructors in all languages, however, which means that target language discussion boards and office hours are not feasible for all participants. Therefore, maximizing ease of use based on both technological background and English language proficiency is an ongoing challenge.

Selecting and Organizing Content Appropriate for the Audience

Another issue in designing any assessment literacy approach is selecting and organizing content appropriate for the audience. While the courses were developed for distance learning rather than face-to-face learning, additional changes were made to accommodate LCTL speakers. A number of participants showed that they did not understand the material through their responses to quizzes and assignments. For this reason, course materials were adapted based on concepts that many participants demonstrated confusion about in the quizzes. In addition, explaining technical terms without resorting to jargon is an ongoing issue for any language assessment course or material. Through surveys and questionnaires, the development team was able to discern ways to reduce jargon and improve explanation of technical terms for all approaches. However, course instructors must continually work to make sure that the content is accessible.

Transforming Theory into Practice

As Inbar-Lourie (2008), Boyles (2005), and others have pointed out, language assessment literacy consists of communicating knowledge about assessment to teachers in a way that they can apply it in their own classrooms and with their own students. The challenge of any kind of professional development then lies in taking theoretical concepts, communicating them in concrete ways, and working with the participants to translate these theories into classroom assessment activities that provide important information about teaching and learning. There is an additional geographic challenge inherent in transforming theory into practice via distance learning, self-access materials, or an off-site workshop: course instructors cannot observe the participants' classroom activities to determine the extent to which these activities mirror the theory that has been discussed. To address this challenge, the approaches developed by CAL have been reviewed to determine to what extent the participants could incorporate what they had learned.

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Obviously, it is most difficult to assess the impact of the self-access tutorial on classroom practice. One strength of the tutorial as reported by users is the scenarios based on realistic teachers and their own classrooms. It is hoped that the realistic scenarios help users to apply the methods and activities presented in their own classrooms.

The distance learning course has shown some success in helping participants incorporate the theory into their classrooms. Activities have been designed so that participants can reflect upon how to increase speaking assessment in their own classrooms. In addition, over different iterations of the course, staff have developed focused questions on the discussion boards and office hours to allow participants to give examples of how they used elements of the course to assess speaking in their own classrooms. Over time, the office hours have included a great deal of discussion among participants and instructors on how to successfully integrate speaking assessment into the classroom. However, with a five-week online course, any impact is limited in scope.

The blended learning course has provided maximum opportunity to assess the transformation of theory into classroom practices. Because participants are teaching or managing their own classes simultaneous to all or part of the blended learning course, the course provides an avenue through which participants can develop, try out, and report on assessment activities in their classrooms. This almost instantaneous application allows participants to both work with new assessment approaches and report challenges and successes. In turn, each participant's attempts serve as a learning opportunity for all participants. In the blended learning course, participants report that the multiple modalities—face-to-face and online—as well as the two-month learning window combined with their simultaneous teaching activities allow them to try out and improve assessment activities. In addition, the activities developed can be revised and used from year to year in different classrooms. Participants report that it is the quality of feedback that they receive from the instructors that is most helpful in developing their own assessment activities.

Differentiation for Different Levels of Experience with Assessment

Perhaps the greatest issue, for all three approaches discussed in this paper, an issue common in all teaching and learning, is that of differentiation: Participants begin the courses with different background and instructors need to work to accommodate all levels of background. A number of participants have indicated that they felt the material was too difficult or simple or that the course moved too slowly or too quickly. Therefore, despite efforts to self-

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pace the materials and continual efforts to improve the materials, there will always be participants for whom the course is too challenging or rudimentary.

Opportunities and Recommendations

While the challenges are many, there are nonetheless many opportunities provided by these approaches to delivering language assessment literacy instruction. They include allowing learner-driven and self-paced access (all approaches), counteracting geographic, time, and budgetary constraints to professional development (tutorial and distance learning), providing instructor feedback (distance learning and blended learning), creating opportunities for interaction and connections among language educators (distance learning and blended learning) and developing a common foundation of assessment literacy (all approaches).

All three approaches allow for learner-driven and self-paced access to the material, from the maximally self-paced tutorial to the distance learning course to the online modules of the blended learning approach. Each approach allows the learner to access, work through, and quiz him- or herself on the material in a timeframe specified by the learner (as with the tutorial) or within a delineated period such as one week during which the learner can access the material on his or her own schedule (e-learning). Participants have praised the level of self-access and its flexibility for in-service teachers, because it allows such teachers to learn about assessment at their own pace without the constraints of an in-person course. Therefore, the self-paced nature of the three approaches is helpful for participants who juggle demands of regular teaching.

An additional advantage of the distance learning aspects of these professional development efforts has been their ability to counteract geographic, time, and budgetary constraints. Because the distance learning and downloadable tutorials are provided virtually, there is no need to travel or make any effort other than turning on the computer. In addition, because both courses and the downloadable tutorial are free, participants have been able to gain fundamental assessment knowledge free of charge.

Instructor feedback and attention have also been cited as an important aspect of the distance and blended learning approaches. Participants receive individual feedback on every assignment submitted on time, and this feedback helps them improve not only their understanding of assessment but also of how to implement effective assessment activities in the classroom. Another advantage is the ability for learners in the distance and blended learning approaches to connect with and learn from colleagues from across the country, continent and, at times, world to learn about assessment and share successes. While the majority of participants

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have come from the United States, the synchronous and asynchronous aspects of the course have sometimes allowed participants to connect with colleagues from all over the world. All participants have commented on the ability to share ideas with colleagues as a positive opportunity.

Finally, the three approaches described have provided opportunities for hundreds of language teachers to learn more about the principles of language assessment and how to apply these principles in their own classrooms. Boyles (2005) listed five competencies language instructors need to master to be language assessment literate; these approaches have provided groundwork for three of the five competencies identified: Understanding appropriate testing practices, examining the results *vis a* vis teaching, and applying the results to classroom practices. As technology evolves and as more in-service language instructors seek training in assessment, using technological media and distance learning approaches to professional development such as those described in this paper may help to fill part of the assessment literacy gap among language instructors.

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This edited volume on language teacher education includes fourteen refereed papers based on presentations at either the 6th International Conference on Language Teacher Education (held in Washington DC in May 2009) or 7th International Conference on Language Teacher Education (held in Minneapolis, MN in May 2011). The papers showcase research and practice related to the education of language teachers from many different national and international contexts including foreign language education, English as a Second/Foreign Language, and heritage language instruction. This sharing of ideas and insights into language teacher education in such diverse international, national, and disciplinary contexts is truly intended to help all language teacher educators to expand their horizons and improve their practice.

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>
> *–Participant at the 6th International Conference on Language Teacher Education*

> “This is the only conference where the needs of my profession and work as a language teacher educator takes center stage. The knowledge and professional contacts I gained here are invaluable.”
>
> *–Participant at the 7th International Conference on Language Teacher Education*

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