GLOBAL RESEARCH ON TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH

TIRF

ROUTLEDGE

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OVERVIEW

This collection features chapters on teacher education and development from the *Global Research on Teaching and Learning English* series, co-published by The International Research Foundation for English Language Education (TIRF) and Routledge. The collection also includes a brand new chapter from the forthcoming volume in the series, *Chinese-speaking Learners of English: Research, Theory, and Practice* edited by Ryan M. Damerow and Kathleen M. Bailey – out in Spring 2020!

ABOUT THE SERIES

The Global Research on Teaching and Learning English series, co-published by The International Research Foundation for English Language Education (TIRF) and Routledge, showcases research by scholars from around the world, whose research has been funded by grants from TIRF, awarded through a carefully vetted international competition. Since 2002, TIRF, an independent foundation started by the TESOL International Association (TESOL) in 1998, has commissioned and/or funded research on a range of topics associated with the teaching and learning of English worldwide. This series offers a collection of previously unpublished empirical studies conducted by grant recipients throughout the world, as well as chapters from invited scholars. Volumes in the series report on issues of current concern to the applied linguistics community and the language teaching profession, and present a wide variety of research topics investigated through a range of research procedures. Most chapters appearing in volumes in this series cover issues that motivated the research, context of the research, research question(s) addressed, data collection and data analysis procedures, findings and discussion, and implications for policy, practice, and future research. This chapter structure helps to achieve consistency and coherence across the volumes, while at the same time allowing each author to report on the unique contents of his/her own study. The authors and editors forego any honoraria so that all the royalties from the sales of this series can be used to support TIRF's programs.

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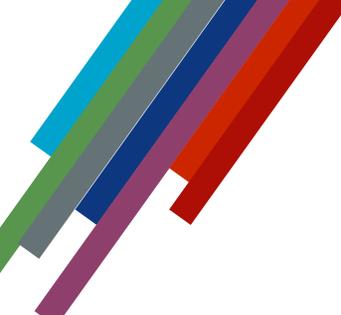
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SERIES EDITORS

Kathleen M. Bailey is Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey. She is a past president of both TESOL and AAAL, as well as the current president of TIRF.

Ryan M. Damerow is the Chief Operating Officer of The International Research Foundation for English Language Education (TIRF), USA.
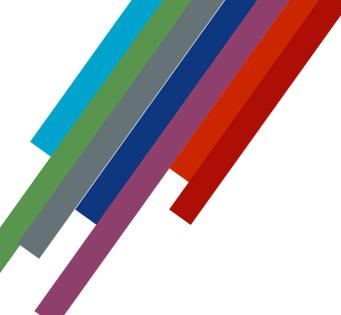
INTRODUCTION

The International Research Foundation for English Language Education (TIRF) is a nonprofit organization working "to generate new knowledge about English language teaching and learning", by applying "research findings to practical language problems" and by "working collaboratively with teachers, researchers, authors, publishers, philanthropic foundations, government agencies, and major companies" (www.tirfonline.org/about-us).

TIRF's mission is "to promote research and best practices that inform and enrich English language education in multilingual contexts." To that end, TIRF "seeks to build a multilingual and multicultural world by supporting English language education through research and professional development." As a means to frame its work, the Foundation maintains that "in the 21st century, personal and social value accrues to individuals who are proficient in English and in some additional language." The six main goals of the Foundation are to:

- "implement a research and development program that will generate new knowledge and inform and improve the quality of English language teaching and learning;

- promote the application of research to practical language problems;

- collect, organize, and disseminate information and research on the teaching and learning of language;

- form and implement appropriate language education policies, recognizing the importance of indigenous languages and cultures worldwide, and of English as an international language;

- promote the professionalization of English language education by offering services such as program review, presentations, and professional development; and

- support early career scholars with their research in English language education." (www.tirfonline.org/about-us)

2019 was a milestone year for TIRF, as it marked 20 years since the Foundation came into being, and 10 years since the Foundation began publishing. TIRF's first publication was a 60-page whitepaper, *The Impact of English and Plurilingualism in Global Corporations* (2009), followed by TIRF's first commissioned paper, *English at Work: An Analysis of Case Reports about English Language Training for the 21st-century Workforce* (2012), co-authored by Anthony Fitzpatrick and Robert O'Dowd. In 2013, two TIRF reports were published, first a commissioned study, *A Case for Online English Language Teacher Education*, the principal author of which was Denise Murray, and second, a collection of six papers on mobile-assisted language learning, written by an international group of teacher-researchers, based in Canada, Australia, Japan, the USA, the UK, and elsewhere.
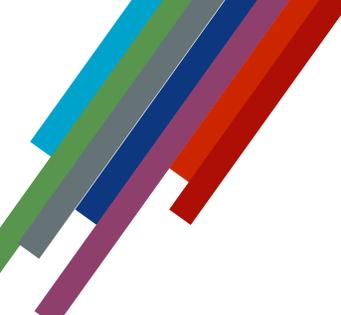
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In 2013, TIRF entered into a partnership with Routledge to co-publish volumes in the *Global Research on Teaching and Learning English* series. From the outset of the partnership, it was envisioned that the books in the series would all include chapters written by recipients of TIRF's Doctoral Dissertation Grants (DDGs), and other TIRF grantees, together with chapters by established scholars in the field. One year later, *Teaching and Learning English in the Arabic-Speaking World*, edited by Kathi Bailey and Ryan Damerow, was the first book in the TIRF-Routledge series. The second in the series is *Teaching and Learning English Grammar: Research Findings and Future Directions* (Christison, Christian, Duff, & Spada, editors, 2015).

The third book in the *Global Research* series, *Teacher Education and Professional Development in TESOL* (Crandall & Christison, editors, 2016), presents original, empirical research findings from a wide range of different contexts and countries, including Canada, Denmark, Israel, Japan, Korea, Qatar, Sudan, and the US. Building on and expanding on the 2013 collection of papers on mobile-assisted language learning, the fourth book in the series is *Digital Language Learning and Teaching: Research, Theory, and Practice* (Carrier, Damerow, & Bailey, editors, 2017). That volume was followed by *Global Perspectives on Language Education Policies* (Crandall & Bailey, editors, 2018). It focused on language policy and planning in educational contexts in which the English language plays a major role. Continuing the theme of 'global perspectives', the sixth book in the series is *Global Perspectives on Language Assessment: Research, Theory, and Practice* (Papageorgiou & Bailey, editors, 2019). The seventh book in the series, *Chinese-Speaking Learners of English: Research, Theory, and Practice* (Damerow & Bailey, editors, 2020), will be published in 2020 and will focus on research on English language teaching and learning in Chinese-speaking contexts.

As noted above, one of the four main goals of TIRF is "to collect, organize, and disseminate information and research on the teaching and learning of language." To that end, we are pleased to make this FreeBook available, also co-published with Routledge. It comprises seven chapters, one from each of the books in the *Global Research on Teaching and Learning English* series. The seven books in the series represent more than 100 chapters, made up of well over 1,000 published pages, written by approximately 150 teacher-researchers. Therefore, faced with almost 'an embarrassment of riches', choosing just seven chapters was not a simple or straightforward task. However, one of the recurring themes running through the seven volumes, Teacher Education and Development (which can be defined and described in many different ways), eventually emerged as a unifying concept, giving coherence and cohesion to this FreeBook collection.
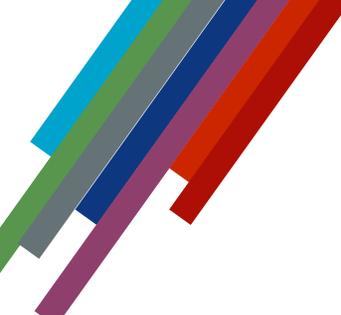
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Some of the chapters in this collection are more obvious examples of the Teacher Education and Development theme than others. For instance, from the first book, *Teaching and Learning English in the Arabic-Speaking World* (Bailey & Damerow, editors, 2014) we chose "Exploring the Impact of Teacher Education Pedagogy on EFL Reading Teacher Identities: A United Arab Emirates Case", by Fíodhna Gardiner-Hyland.

From the third book in the *Global Research* series, *Teacher Education and Professional Development in TESOL* (Crandall & Christison, editors, 2016), we chose the editors' "Overview of Research in English Language Teacher Education and Professional Development", by Crandall and Christison.

From the fourth book in the series, *Digital Language Learning and Teaching: Research, Theory, and Practice* (Carrier, Damerow, & Bailey, editors, 2017), we chose "Empowering Teachers for the Digital Future: What do 21st-century Teachers Need?" by Michael Carrier and Andrew Nye, both based in the UK.

Although the relationships between those three chapters and the Teacher Education and Development theme – teacher identities, teacher professional development, and teachers' needs – are obvious, for some chapters chosen, the relationship may be less immediately apparent. For example, from the second book in the series, *Teaching and Learning English Grammar,* we chose "Corpus-based Lexicogrammatical Approach to Grammar Instruction: Its Use and Effects in EFL and ESL Contexts", by Dilin Liu and Ping Jiang. That chapter is based on data gathered from EFL/ESL students and instructors, including teachers' lesson plans and teaching journals, as well as students' corpus search projects and reflection papers. Therefore, the work of both groups, teachers and students, fits within the theme of Teacher Education and Development.

Sometimes research can reveal what is *not* there, which is the case for the chapter by Sarah Braden and MaryAnn Christison, "The Absence of Language-focused Teacher Education Policy in U.S. K12 Contexts: Insights from Language Socialization Research in a Ninth-grade Physics Classroom", which appeared in *Global Perspectives on Language Education Policies.*

Both the 2019 chapter and the forthcoming 2020 chapter focus on China. The first is by Yueting Xu, titled "How Teacher Conceptions of Assessment Mediate Assessment Literacy: A Case Study of a University English Teacher in China", which was published in *Global Perspectives on Language Assessment: Research, Theory, and Practice.*
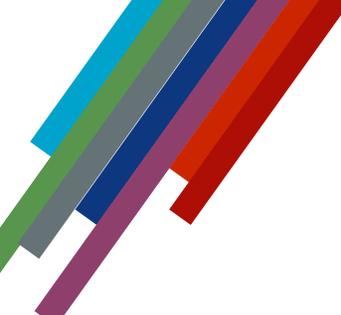
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The forthcoming volume in the *Global Research on Teaching and Learning English* series, *Chinese-Speaking Learners of English: Research, Theory, and Practice* (Damerow & Bailey, editors, 2020), is based on research carried out in China, and that volume is still a work in progress at this time. But, as we wanted to make this FreeBook as useful and as up-to-date as possible, we are including a paper by Xiangdong Gu, Nick Saville, and Ting Zeng, "The Applicability of the CSE as a Self-Assessment Tool to School Teachers".

As TIRF wraps up its 20th year, and prepares to enter its third decade as the Foundation for language education, we are delighted to share these chapters with you, co-published with Routledge, as part of our commitment to supporting teachers and researchers in language education around the world.

Andy Curtis
Chair, TIRF Publications Committee (2018-2021)
50th President (2015-2016), TESOL International Association
Professor, Graduate School of Education, Anaheim University, CA, USA

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JoAnn (Jodi) Crandall
and MaryAnn Christison

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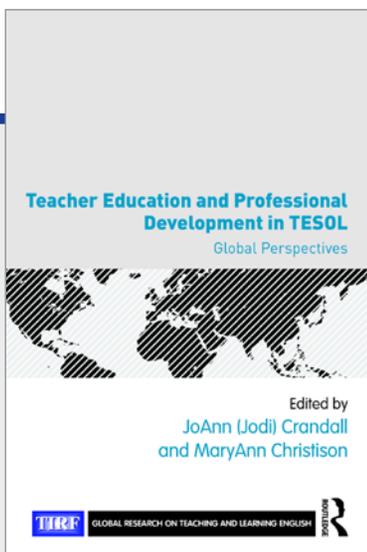
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This chapter is excerpted from

Teacher Education and Professional Development in TESOL: Global Perspectives

Edited by JoAnn Crandall and MaryAnn Christison

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AN OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

JoAnn (Jodi) Crandall and MaryAnn Christison

In the last 40 years, we have witnessed a tremendous growth in the body of research available in second language teacher education (SLTE) and professional development (PD). Much of the research has focused on English and has evolved from a reconceptualization of the knowledge base of English language teacher education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998)—what Johnson (2009, p. 1) refers to as "a professional self-definition"—and from a shift to a sociocultural perspective on second language teaching and SLTE (Johnson, 2006, 2009). Some of the earlier influences on this shift in perspective included a focus on teacher learning (Freeman & Richards, 1996) and teacher cognition (Woods, 1996) in second language theory, as well as from theories in the general education literature, such as the role of reflection (Schön, 1983, 1987; Zeichner, 1987; Zeichner & Liston, 1987, 1996), the inclusion of different knowledge bases—pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge (i.e., how to present and represent the knowledge of a discipline) (Shulman, 1986, 1987)—teacher professional knowledge (Furlong & Maynard, 1995), and personal and practical knowledge (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987; Connelly, Clandinin, & He, 1997; Elbaz, 1981). Within this sociocultural perspective, research also began to investigate the role of prior learning experiences in shaping teachers' thinking (Lortie, 1975), teacher cognition (Clark & Peterson, 1986), and the social and interactional bases of learning in specific contexts in communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Freeman and Johnson's (1998) introductory article in the *TESOL Quarterly* special issue on English language teacher education called for a reconceptualization of the knowledge base of SLTE, moving it away from the emphasis on transmission of disciplinary, decontextualized knowledge (principally from applied linguistics) to a greater focus on teachers and teaching and the role of teachers as creators of knowledge. They identified three sources of that knowledge base: the teachers as learners of teaching (with prior knowledge and experiences as learners and as language learners); the influence of the social, professional, and political contexts in which teachers learn and teach; and the process of language teaching and learning. Freeman and Johnson summarize this as "Who teaches what to whom, where?" (p. 405). They recognized the importance of what later came to be termed *the personal practical knowledge of teachers* (Golombek, 1998) and were influential in bringing about the shift from a decontextualized presentation of theory and practice in English language teacher education to a sociocultural perspective (Johnson, 2006, 2009; Lantolf, 2000).

Prior to this time, the major approach to SLTE (as discussed in the 1985 Britten review of second language teacher education) involved the application of applied linguistic theory to practice (i.e., methodology and skill development) and focused on limited strategies and their effects on student learning. Britten's article also noted the paucity of research in

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language teacher education at the time. In a review of language teacher education in 2000, Crandall observed the beginnings of a change, from a behaviorist transmission theory of teacher education to a constructivist theory of language teacher education, which recognized the teacher as one who creates knowledge by bringing prior learning and beliefs to the teacher education program that needed to be explored. Crandall also noted that language teacher education programs were reportedly not adequately preparing beginning teachers for the realities of the classroom, thereby motivating interest in a sociocultural perspective in second language teaching and SLTE.

From a sociocultural perspective, human learning is defined "as a dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts and is distributed across persons, tools, and activities" (Johnson, 2009, p. 1). It has its origins in the work of Vygotsky (1978, 1986) and in the work of his students Leont'ev (1981) and Luria (1982), as well as the work of Lantolf (2000, 2006), Wells (1999), and Wertsch (1991). It also reflects the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998), in which teacher learning is situated within communities of practice, where teachers and teacher educators interact to "trace the inherent complexities that make up the sum of L2 teachers' learning and teaching experiences, and make visible what those experiences ultimately lead to" in a "transformative process" (Johnson, 2009, p. x)

A sociocultural perspective encourages teachers to become "active users and producers of theory in their own right, for their own means, and as appropriate for their instructional contexts" (Johnson, 2006, p. 240), with opportunities for pre-service or candidate teachers to test and develop their theories of teaching in their SLTE programs and in-service or practicing teachers to become engaged in professional development that is situated in their own teaching contexts (Johnson & Golombek, 2011).

This shift in perspective on teachers, teaching, and their sociocultural and political contexts (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Schön, 1983, 1987) has had a major impact on language teacher education and professional development, in local programs and larger, even global, contexts, made more possible through multiple uses of technology (e.g., networked communities, discussion boards, blogs, online chats, and webinars). This change has also been reflected in the growing focus on communities of practice (CoPs) (Wenger, 1998), professional learning communities (DuFour, 2004), and collaboration in language teacher education and professional development. Such collaboration has occurred among English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers, between English and content/mainstream teachers, between researchers and teachers, and among partnerships between universities and schools, which can be carried out through face-to-face or online courses and discussion.

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The 1998 article by Freeman and Johnson also reported on the paucity of research articles on teacher preparation in *TESOL Quarterly* (about 9% of the total number of articles between 1980 and 1987) and created "a heightened awareness of the need for research on learning-to-teach, teaching, and learning in classrooms" (Wright, 2010, p. 266). In the past two decades, a growing body of research has also emerged that focused on teacher cognition, teacher learning, teacher development, and teacher identity, as well as the roles of reflection, research, and collaboration in professional learning. The growth of English as a global lingua franca and its importance in science, business, and communication have brought about an increase in the need for EFL teachers at all levels of education and for faculty who can teach academic content through the medium of English in universities in Europe and Asia. These societal trends have also created the need for a body of research, with a special focus on non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), who comprise the majority of English language teachers worldwide, concerning their participation in graduate TESOL programs in English-dominant countries, as well as the impact their experiences in such programs have when they return to their home countries. To the NNEST research, we must add the substantial research that is now being done on English language teacher education for immigrants and international students in ESL contexts and for content or subject matter teachers who teach content through the medium of English to English learners (ELs).

Just as teacher education has been shifting from a top-down approach, with expert knowledge and skills "taught" to prospective teachers, to a more bottom-up approach that recognizes the value of teachers' experiences and ways of knowing and brings these into the teacher education program, so has PD for in-service or practicing teachers been shifting from short workshops or seminars designed for teachers by others to a range of professional development activities that teachers initiate and design. Increasingly, TESOL professional development is embedded in the practice of teaching, with questions and concerns about teaching arising from the teachers themselves. Teachers reflect on their experiences and collaborate and engage in conversations with colleagues (either face to face or virtually) in professional learning communities. (See Crandall & Finn Miller, 2014; James, 2001; and Richards & Farrell, 2005, for the range of these professional development practices.)

Online technologies have made it possible for teachers over long distances (Kamhi-Stein, 2000) to learn from one another and engage in asynchronous discussions about their practice. In addition, what was once referred to as "teacher training" has now come to be known as "teacher development." This change in terminology recognizes that learning to teach is a lifelong process, "a process of continual intellectual, experiential, and attitudinal growth of teachers" (Lange, 1990, p. 250) and not just the transfer of knowledge and skills (Mann, 2005).

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Since the 1990s, then, research in SLTE has focused increasingly on language teachers, language teaching, and how language teachers learn to teach. The sections that follow in this chapter will highlight the areas of research in English language teacher education and PD as follows:

- Language teacher cognition, teacher expertise, and novice teacher development

- Teacher identity, globalization, and non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs)

- Reflection and reflective teaching

- Classroom research, action research, and teacher research

- Language teacher learning, collaboration, communities of practice (CoPs), and professional learning communities (PLCs)

LANGUAGE TEACHER COGNITION, TEACHER EXPERTISE, AND NOVICE TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Research on teacher cognition focuses on what Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993) refer to as "teacher insider" knowledge of practice, what Freeman (2002) refers to as the "hidden side of the work," or what Borg (2009) describes as "the unobservable dimension of teaching—teachers' mental lives" (p. 163). This research provides insights into teachers' thinking, knowledge, and beliefs and how these factors affect their classroom practices at all stages "of the process of becoming, being, and developing professionally as a teacher" (Borg, 2009, p. 163), as well as before, during, and after instruction (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Borg, 2003, 2006b; Faez & Valeo, 2012; Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 2005; Johnson, 1999; Kling, 2016; Richards, 1998; Tsui, 2003; Woods, 1996; Wright, 2010).

Research on the role of cognition on second language teaching emerged in the mid-1990s (Borg, 2003), and its importance has grown rapidly since then. As Borg (2009) explains, "we cannot make adequate sense of teachers' experiences of learning to teach without examining the unobservable mental dimension of this learning process" (p. 163), and changes in teachers' practices can only occur when beliefs are changed (Kennedy, 1996). As a review of hundreds of studies from the general education literature concluded (Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998), teachers' preexisting beliefs and ways of thinking can be very difficult to change because of the "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975); that is, the influences on teachers of both prior learning (including language learning) and prior teaching. Johnson (2006) identifies the research in teacher cognition as most significant in capturing "the complexities of who teachers are, what they know and believe, how they learn to teach, and how they carry out their work in diverse contexts throughout their careers" (p. 236). Beliefs

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provide a basis for teachers' actions and their decision-making.

A number of researchers have described the effects of teacher cognition on teachers' interpretation of the knowledge and activities of their teacher education programs (Almarza, 1996; Bailey, 1996; Borg, 2003, 2006b; Farrell, 1999; Johnson, 1992a, 1992b, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Tsang, 2004; Warford & Reeves, 2003). Johnson (1992a, 1994), Numrich (1996), and Tsang (2004) describe the impact of teachers' prior language learning on their decision-making in the practicum and the challenges of trying to live up to one's image of the ideal teacher (Johnson, 1996). (Lindahl, 2016, explores the knowledge of mainstream teachers preparing to teach ELs, specifically their language awareness.)

Several studies have found that language teacher education programs have limited effects on teachers' prior beliefs about language learning and teaching (e.g., Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Borg, 2001, 2005; Murray, 2003; Peacock, 2001; Urmston, 2003). For example, using the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), a 34-item questionnaire developed by Horwitz (1985), Peacock (2001) investigated the beliefs of 146 BA TESL students in Hong Kong over the course of their three-year program and found there was "surprisingly little change" (p. 184) over the three years of their program on their beliefs of the importance of grammar or vocabulary in language learning. Similar results were reported by Mattheoudakis (2007) in a longitudinal study of Greek pre-service English teachers over the four years of their program. Teaching practice had little effect on their beliefs about the centrality of grammar and vocabulary learning (though some of the problems may have resulted from a mismatch between what they had been taught and what the curriculum expected them to teach). Peacock (2001) also found a mismatch between the beliefs of pre-service teachers and experienced ESL teachers at the university. Peacock believes that providing the pre-service teachers with readings and observations changed their beliefs.

Some studies have found that pre-service teachers' beliefs change during the course of their program (e.g., Clarke, 2008). One of the earliest studies reported that the beliefs of five part-time participants in a certificate course in Hong Kong changed over the course, beginning with a focus on being perceived as a confident teacher to a later focus on teaching and the role of the teacher. However, the reported changes might not be continued after the program ends (Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996). For example, Almarza (1996) found that some pre-service teachers temporarily adopted the methodology that they had been taught in their program during their practicum, but they indicated that they would not continue with the method after the practicum. Borg's (2005) study of one pre-service teacher's beliefs during a short-term training for a Certificate in English Language Teaching to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA) course found that some beliefs were deepened during the program, but others were quite resistant to change. One

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reported change was in the pre-service teacher's views about the teaching of grammar, though there was concern that the change might not last after the training program.

While studies on the impact of in-service professional development on teacher beliefs are more limited, similar results have been reported. Some studies have reported at least some impact (e.g., Borg, 2011; Lamie, 2004). Borg's (2011) study of six participants during an intensive eight-week in-service Cambridge University Diploma in English Language Teaching (DELTA) program reports that all teachers experienced some impact, from being more aware of and better able to articulate their beliefs to having strengthened their beliefs, but with some additions. Other studies (e.g., Breen, 1991; Brown & McGannon, 1998; Faez & Valeo, 2012; Lamb, 1995; Phipps & Borg, 2007, 2009) have found that the impact was more limited. Brown and McGannon (1998), using a survey of 12 common beliefs about language learning derived from Lightbown and Spada (1993), noticed little difference in teachers' beliefs before and after the three-week practicum except in their views on error correction. The authors recommend that more guided reflection be provided. Lamb (1995) reports few changes in a teacher's beliefs about grammar teaching after four months of an 18-month program in Turkey.

The correspondence between teachers' stated beliefs and their classroom practices has also been the focus of research. A review of that research (Basturkmen, 2012) reports a range of correspondence, with limited correspondence sometimes mediated by the constraints of the teaching context and the curriculum (Borg, 2003; Choi, 2000; Lee, 2008). For example, Choi (2000), in his study of Korean middle schools, reports limited correspondence between teachers' beliefs about communicative language teaching and their use of communicative practices. The strongest correspondence between beliefs and practices are most likely with experienced teachers (e.g., Cundale, 2001; Farrell & Lim, 2005).

Borg (2009) cautions that some results from teacher cognition studies may be a reflection of how data are gathered and analyzed, because these studies require self-reflection and verbalization of beliefs (Wright, 2010) and post-program interviews may result in participants saying what they think their instructors want to hear. Because much of the research on teacher cognition involves the use of questionnaires, interviews, reflective writings, or stimulated recall (Gass & Mackey, 2000), Basturkmen (2012) recommends that several methods of data gathering be considered for use in related research.

TEACHER EXPERTISE

As Tsui (2003) points out, studies of English language teachers' expertise are relatively new, though expertise in both knowledge and skills has been a focus of general education

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research since the 1980s, motivated in part by studies of expertise in other professions. Tsui also notes that "there have been no commonly accepted criteria or methods for identifying expert teachers," (p. 6) because teaching is situated, and because different ways of knowing and acting or being an expert differ by domain; also, certain elements of expertise might be culturally specific. Ways of identifying or defining expertise have included a focus on the number of years of teaching, institutional evaluations or teaching awards, the views of peers or students, and student outcomes. (See Faez, 2016, for a case study of "an exemplary teacher educator" preparing teachers for multilingual/multicultural classrooms.)

Research on language teacher expertise has focused primarily on the cognition of experienced teachers (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001; Woods, 1996), personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 1998, 2009), differences between novice and experienced teachers (Richards, Li, & Tang, 1998; Tsui, 2003), how teachers perceive and define expertise (Mullock, 2003), and how that expertise changes over time (Malderez, Hobson, Tracey, & Ken, 2007). (See Johnson, 2005, for an edited volume on teacher expertise.)

NOVICE TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

The first year(s) of teaching are the most intense and anxiety-producing time for teachers, as they transition from student to teacher and try to balance the need to continue learning how to teach with the need to be perceived as a "real" teacher (Farrell, 2009, p. 183). These years are critically important, with the highest degree of attrition from the profession occurring during the first five years of teaching (Moon, 2007), as high as 40%–50% in North America (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). As Faez and Valeo (2012) point out, it is during this time that teachers either develop a sense of efficacy as teachers, or they leave the profession (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). During this time, as well, new teachers notice the gap between what was emphasized in the language education program and the realities of their teaching position.

Farrell, in his 2012 introductory article in the *TESOL Quarterly* special issue on Novice Professionals in TESOL, recounts his own experiences as a novice teacher in the third week of classes. When trying to do a communicative activity in groups, he was publicly denigrated by his director, who proceeded to take over the class, using teacher-led drill activities. Feeling humiliated, he thought of leaving the profession, but the support of his colleagues helped him to continue. Novice teachers face numerous challenges, even those who have supportive colleagues and administrators (Crookes, 1997).

A number of researchers have pointed to the gap between the preparation of language

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teachers and the reality of the schools, classrooms, and students whom they encounter in their novice years and the struggle novice teachers have in trying to implement what they have been taught (Baecher, 2012; Faez & Valeo, 2012; Farrell, 2008b, 2009; Fradd & Lee, 1997; Freeman, 1994; Johnson, 1996; Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Urmston & Pennington, 2008). As Tarone and Allwright (2005) conclude, "Differences between the academic course content in language teacher preparation programs and the real conditions that novice teachers are faced with ... appear to set up a gap that cannot be bridged by beginning language teachers" (p. 12). What has been learned in the teacher education program may be almost forgotten with the new teachers' experiences (Freeman, 1994).

Research on novice language teachers has identified the need for more attention to classroom management (Richards & Pennington, 1998; Farrell, 2006a), more practice teaching experiences (Faez & Valeo, 2012), and better preparation for teaching special education students, teaching students with low literacy, or teaching with technology (Fradd & Lee, 1997; also see Vinogradov, 2016, who reports on a PD program in which adult ESL literacy teachers learn from elementary school teachers' reading instruction).

Two important studies that focus on the socialization of novice language teachers during their first year of teaching include the study by Richards and Pennington (1998) of teachers in Hong Kong and Farrell's (2003, 2006a) case study of a first-year teacher in Singapore. Richards and Pennington report that the major concerns of these first-year teachers were being able to teach the prescribed curriculum and establishing good relations with students. Farrell established that the major problems faced by the teacher resulted from the differences between his perspectives on teaching and the expectations of the school in terms of learner- or teacher-centered classes and the curriculum, as well some relationships with his colleagues. He also notes that while this teacher had been assigned a mentor (which has been shown to reduce attrition), his only contact with that mentor was during his first day.

More recently, Faez and Valeo (2012) used questionnaires to study the experiences of 115 novice ESOL teachers in Canada (with up to three years of teaching experience) and follow-up interviews with 66 of them, to determine the novice teachers' sense of their preparedness and sense of efficacy to teach in adult ESOL classrooms after graduating from a TESOL program, as well as their perceptions of what was useful in their TESOL program. They found that teachers increased their sense of preparedness as they gained experience and a sense of efficacy in particular instructional tasks, such as managing classes, selecting material, and developing lesson plans. However, they felt less prepared to teach ESL literacy (cf., Vinogradov, 2016), English for Academic Purposes, or in an EFL context (cf., the research on NNESTs). They reported that the most useful part of their teacher education program was the practicum for helping to create "a smooth transition" and wished they had had more

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practical experiences and less focus on theory, which one novice teacher found "interesting, but not very helpful in the classroom" (p. 463).

More studies like these, that provide feedback from novice teachers about their preparation for their teaching assignments, are also needed (Farrell, 2008b; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). In addition, more opportunities for observation and reflection on actual contexts of teaching practice, as well as other practical experiences, are needed throughout the teacher education program, ideally creating collaborations between teacher education programs and schools.

What is missing from the research, according to Wright (2010), is a more sociocultural view of learning to teach in pre-service education, focused on the interaction between learners' prior knowledge and beliefs and those of the teacher educator and the teacher education programs. In action and interaction and opportunities for reflection, pre-service teachers are more likely to develop and articulate their developing theories of teaching and learning (Szesztay, 2004).

Other researchers have noted the need for PD that moves beyond short-term workshops to job-embedded, sustained, and situated professional development that is reflective of the social and political contexts of the teachers' classrooms, schools, and community and goes beyond a one-size-fits-all approach. The field of SLTE needs longitudinal research that investigates how teaching expertise emerges, how teachers' beliefs evolve, and what professional development activities are the most useful at different stages of a teacher's career (Allen & Negueruela-Azarola, 2010).

TEACHER IDENTITY, THE GLOBALIZATION OF ENGLISH, AND NON-NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS

The global spread of English has resulted in a wide range of varieties of English, used in a growing number of contexts by diverse students and teachers. There are now more non-native speakers than native English speakers (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006) and an increasing number of NNESTs at all levels of ESL, EFL, and English as an International Language (EIL) education (a majority, according to Graddol, 2006), especially in EFL and EIL contexts. This has also occasioned the development of a body of research on English language teacher education and professional development of NNESTs. In addition, a growing number of mainstream or content teachers in ESL contexts are providing English-medium instruction (EMI) to immigrant students who may also be acquiring the language in primary and secondary school settings (Kaufman & Crandall, 2005) or higher education settings (Crandall & Kaufman, 2002), including international teaching assistants in English-medium universities (Bailey, 1996; LoCastro & Tapper, 2006). In addition, the role of English

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as a global lingua franca and the desire for internationalization of institutions of higher education have led to a growing demand for English-medium instruction in many countries in Europe and Asia (especially in China and Korea). Instructors in EMI contexts may lack confidence in their own command of English, especially of being able to teach through English to students who may also be developing the language. Their pedagogical content knowledge and language proficiency have been a focus of recent research. (See Christison et al., 2016 and Kling, 2016.)

As a result, second language teacher education (and second language teaching) must be made relevant to the diverse sociocultural, educational, political, and economic contexts for the teaching and use of English and the diverse identities of English language teachers and learners. Rather than transferring knowledge and skills relevant to (mostly) Western, and often second language, contexts to settings in countries with different uses for English and different educational histories, future research needs to focus on second language (teacher) educational policies and practices that are appropriate to these contexts and change over time (Canagarajah, 1999; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996). Enrollment surveys have reported that about 40% of those enrolled in the U.S. Master of Arts (MA) in TESOL (MATESOL) programs (England & Roberts, 1989) or 36% in 21 graduate programs in North America (Llurda, 2005) and as many as 80%–90% in some universities in the United States between 1998 and 2001 (Brady & Gulikers, 2004) were NNESTs, many of whom reportedly planned to return to their countries after graduating.

TEACHER IDENTITIES

Teacher identities are not fixed; they are fluid and changing, depending on context, group membership, and language use (Gee, 2000–2001). As Coldron and Smith (1999) observe, "Identity as a teacher is partly given and partly achieved by active location in social space" (p. 711). Becoming a second language teacher involves the development of a teacher identity, identifying with language teaching as a profession, and, over time, becoming the type of teacher one desires to be. The development of teacher identity includes the "opening up of [one's] identity [by] exploring new ways of being that lie beyond our current state" (Wenger, 1998, p. 264). Pre-service teachers during their practicum experiences and new teachers (see Yazan and Peercy, 2016) find themselves having to establish an identity in terms of their classrooms and their position in the school or institution (Antonek, McCormick, & Donato, 1997; Duff & Uchida, 1997).

Studies of teacher identity have flourished during the past two decades, according to Gu and Benson (2015), including studies of English language teachers (Clarke, 2008; Gu & Benson, 2015; Johnson, 2003; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Miller, 2003; Tsui, 2007; Varghese, Morgan,

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Johnston, & Johnson 2005). A number of studies have documented the gap between SLTE, the experiences of being a teacher, and the impact on teacher identity (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Miller, 2003; Tsui, 2003). Research on teacher identity and second language teacher education has also focused on the role of teaching and learning experiences and contextual factors in teachers' practice and identity (Duff & Uchida, 1997), transformative teacher and student identity in teaching (Clarke 2008; Cummins, 2000; Kanno & Stuart, 2011), and identity and the NNEST.

NON-NATIVE ENGLISH-SPEAKING TEACHERS

The largest research focus recently has been on identity and the NNEST, a term which continues to be used, though it has received a great deal of criticism (e.g., McKay, 2003), partially the result of the native speaker fallacy, the view that "the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker" (Phillipson, 1992, p. 193; cf., Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; Faez, 2011; Moussu & Llurda, 2008). This view persists, despite the number of varieties of English spoken around the world (e.g., World Englishes, Kachru, 1997; Norton, 1997), the social and regional variation even within a variety, and the fact that respondents often have difficulty in determining whether a teacher is a NEST or NNEST or in categorizing themselves as NSs or NNs (e.g., Liu, 1999; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001). NNESTs often find themselves marginalized in hiring and in teaching assignments or being accepted as English teachers (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Braine, 1999; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Flynn & Gulikers, 2001; Moussu, 2016; Varghese et al., 2005), especially when being paired with native-speaking "assistant teachers," as has been the case in Japan and Korea. (See Machida, 2016.)

Other studies have focused on self-perceptions of NNESTs (see the edited volumes by Kamhi-Stein, 2004, and Llurda, 2005, for a number of studies), their lack of confidence in speaking English (Machida, 2016; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999), ESL/EFL student attitudes towards NNESTs (e.g., Cheung & Braine, 2007; Mahboob, 2004; Moussu, 2016; Moussu & Braine, 2006; Moussu & Llurda, 2008), TESOL students' attitudes toward NESTs and NNESTs (Butler, 2007; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002), identity development among NESTs and NNESTs in teacher education programs and as practicing teachers (Au & Blake, 2003; Gu & Benson, 2015; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Trent, 2012), self-efficacy (Eslami & Azizullah, 2008), successful NNESTs (Braine, 1999; de Oliveira & Richardson, 2004), and NNESTs accommodating to U.S. pedagogical norms (LoCastro & Tapper, 2006) or the reverse, bridging the gap between (Western) teacher education programs and the sociocultural and political contexts NNESTs face when they return to their home countries (Hong & Pawan, 2014).

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The native speaker fallacy also ignores the relative knowledge and strengths of NNESTs, in EFL situations, where they are likely to share the language and cultural knowledge of their students, as well as in ESL situations, where their experiences as immigrants and English language learners and their bilingualism and biculturalism can be especially helpful to their students (Canagarajah, 1999; McKay, 2003). Moreover, NNESTs can be role models for their ESL students and valuable resources in TESOL teacher education programs (Selvi & Peercy, 2016.) As Canagarajah (1999) has pointed out, "The native speaker fallacy also contributes to the narrow definition of expertise in ELT" defining teaching expertise "in terms of linguistic considerations" (p. 84). (Cf., Eslami, et al., 2016, on the use of the linguistic resources of bilingual teachers in the professional development of secondary school science and English teachers in Qatar, and Inbar & Gagné, 2016, on the multiple perspectives of NNESTs in ESL and EFL contexts.)

Surveys of TESOL teacher education programs reflect limited attention to issues of NNESTs (Polio & Wilson-Duffy, 1998) or teaching in EFL contexts (Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 2005). Kamhi-Stein (1999, 2000, 2004) has suggested including issues related to NNESTs as a means of improving their self-esteem and empowering them. She also recommends involving NESTs and NNESTs in collaboration in their courses, to help each to see their relative strengths, leading to a cooperative learning community (Matsuda, 1997).

A related area of research focuses on the experiences and challenges of immigrant teachers teaching in English-medium schools (Faez, 2012 and 2016), international teaching assistants teaching in U.S. universities (Bailey, 1996; Dhawan, 2001; LoCastro & Tapper, 2006), and mainstream teachers with English learners in their classes (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011; de Oliveira & Yough, 2015). In addition to support for developing their English language proficiency, these teachers also may need to develop multicultural knowledge and educational expectations regarding classroom management, instruction, and requirements of different teaching contexts. Conversely, teachers teaching in English-medium programs in universities with international student populations may need to develop intercultural knowledge of their students' educational backgrounds, expectations, and prior content knowledge, as well as their English proficiency. (See Kling, 2016, and Park and Pawan, 2016.)

Teacher identity research often results in case studies, using interviews and observations (e.g., Golombek, 1998; Tsui, 2003, 2007; Varghese et al., 2005), often with open-ended questions (Moussu & Llurda, 2008). Such studies result in what Clandinin and Connelly (1998) refer to as "stories to live by" (p. 149), or as what Elsheikh (2016) refers to as "life stories … constructed through discourse." While most studies of language teacher identity

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involve a relatively short period of time, Clarke (2008) studied the "process of identity development" of the first cohort of Emerati female English teacher graduates and "the inescapably political nature … through which identity and community are constructed" (p. 1). In another study, Tsui (2007) described the development of one Chinese EFL teacher's identity over the course of six years while he "struggled with multiple identities … and the institutional construction and his personal reconstruction" (p. 657).

Needed research, according to Moussu and Llurda (2008), includes studies of NNESTs' classroom performance, to determine the relationships between teachers' self-perceptions or others' perceptions of them and actual classroom practice, as well as studies focusing on the diversity of NNESTs in terms of countries of origin, languages spoken, the level and context of instruction, time spent in English-speaking countries, and levels of target-language proficiency. Additionally, more studies are needed to determine how TESOL programs can better prepare NNESTs, especially to teach in EFL contexts; the role of program administrators in preparing, hiring, and supervising NNESTs; and observational studies of paired NESTs and NNESTs, in order to determine if this approach would allow the strengths of each to be complementary, as has been suggested by Medgyes (1994) and de Oliveira and Richardson (2004), considering the problems that this approach has also had in countries like Japan (see Machida, 2016).

REFLECTION AND REFLECTIVE TEACHING

Reflective teaching is a process by which teachers "collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection" (Richards & Lockhart, 1994, p. 1). Reflective teaching recognizes the extensive knowledge of teachers, especially as it relates to their teaching context, and that inquiry into their own practice can help them learn more about themselves as teachers and develop a better understanding of teaching. As Murphy (2014) notes, reflective teachers "are capable of learning from, and further developing, their personal understandings and explanations of life in the classroom" (p. 614). Through reflection, teachers become more aware of their own beliefs and practices and "learn to see teaching differently" (Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999, p. 4) and to improve the quality of the learning experiences provided to students (Richards & Farrell, 2011). Reflection helps teachers recognize and confront their own beliefs, values, and assumptions about their teaching, their students, the curriculum, and their practices, leading to transformative practice, and encourages continuing professional development (F. Bailey et al., 1998). Teachers in their reflections can take the more generalized theory and practice of teacher education to the specifics of their own experiences, in their own context, with their students in their classes

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and institution (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 1998, 2001) and theorize their practice with the discourse they are learning in the teacher education or PD programs (Freeman, 2002). Engaging in collaborative conversations with other teachers or teacher educators facilitates more critical reflection, requiring teachers to "negotiate their meaning and, by so doing, to extend and reframe the ways in which they look at their own practice" (K. M. Bailey et al., 1998, p. 537) and "function as transformative intellectuals in settings where they learn and work" (Johnson, 2006, p. 250). Reflection can also increase the professionalism of the TESOL field, providing language teachers and language education teachers with the same focus on their own profession that is valued by other professions, such as medicine or law (cf., Peck & Westgate, 1994).

How to engage or encourage second language teachers in reflection and reflective teaching has been the focus of a number of texts, often discussed through the role of action or teacher research (e.g., K. M. Bailey et al., 1998; Burns, 1999; Edge, 2011; Farrell, 2007a, 2007b; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Wallace, 1991). One of the early studies of the role of reflection used ethnographic interviews, periodic observations, and a videotaped method to elicit introspective data through personal narratives with eight Canadian university ESL teachers, focusing on their decision-making and interpretation of classroom events as they planned and taught their classes (Woods, 1996). The analysis reveals "the teachers' evolving network of beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge" (p. 23) and clarifies why top-down approaches to teacher education or professional development are likely to fail and why focusing on teaching contexts and teacher and student variables (cf., "situated knowledge," Lave & Wenger, 1991) and involving teachers in reflection on their practice can lead to teacher change. As Woods expresses it, "The use of narrative 'cases' of reflection in action … as opposed to using abstract generalized 'rules' of teaching, gives the learning teacher the opportunity to see into the underlying structures of the culture they are joining" (Woods, 1996, p. 297).

Farrell (2006a) used metaphor to help elicit prior experiences and beliefs from Singaporean pre-service teachers in their practicum experience and narratives from previous novice teachers during the first year of teaching (2007b). He also asked students to write about and reflect on critical incidents and share these with others during their practicum (2008a). While these students became more aware of the realities of teaching, he notes that most of the critical incidents were negative, and suggests that practicum students might also be asked to write about their successes.

K. M. Bailey et al. (1998), who undertook three approaches to critically reflecting on their teaching (through teacher journals, videotaping classes, and portfolios), conclude there are many reasons these approaches to professional development worked:

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Excerpted from *Teacher Education and Professional Development in TESOL: Global Perspectives*

They were undertaken voluntarily, emerged from and built upon these authors' current teaching practices, "grew out of and complemented" their teaching assignments, and "seemed organic and natural rather than forced or extraneous" (p. 553). In addition, these practices allowed them to note their professional development over time. Their collaborative investigations of the three reflective practices provide a glimpse into what these professional development approaches can yield (see also Bailey et al., 2001). Lee (2004, 2008) reports on using journals in pre-service teacher education. Mansvelder-Longayroux, Beijard, and Verloop (2007) used reflective portfolios twice with their students during a one-year Dutch program and found that students became more reflective about their practices, though they did not make many connections between their classroom learning and those practices.

Reflection can be engaged in individually, through teacher diaries or journals, or collaboratively, through discussion groups, collaborative planning (e.g., Lesson Study), or in online discussions through collaborative tasks (Pawan, in press). Pawan and Fan (2014) found that when Chinese university English teachers reflected with others, they focused on the practical aspects of their teaching, but when they reflected individually, they were more likely to focus on issues related to their work in the larger social context. Self- or peer-observation can provide opportunities for teacher reflection. So, too, can discussion of critical incidents (Brislin, 1986), in which analysis of real-life problems can lead to better understanding of the issues and dilemmas facing language teachers. Another approach, used by Tan (2006), involves asking graduate students in Thailand to take on the roles of learner and teacher and then to reflect on their experiences, helping to create a professional learning community in the class. Another approach to encouraging reflection involves delaying the feedback sessions after practicum experiences. According to Williams and Watson (2004), an analysis of tutor–student transcripts revealed that this delay provides an opportunity for greater reflection, especially when undertaken in combination with making entries in a reflective diary.

Recently, Mann and Walsh (2013) have critically reviewed the literature and research on reflective practice as lacking "data-led research" and "data-led practice" (p. 292) and needing better "frameworks for fine-grained understanding" and "systematic accounts of the language used in reflection" (p. 294). They called for more collaborative discussion using instruments, such as the Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT), designed by Walsh and TESOL teacher educators to provide a means for teachers to better understand the ways in which they use language in interaction and learning in their classes. They also suggest that in addition to the problem-based prompts that are used to encourage reflection, teacher educators might add the types of "puzzles" or exploratory practice that Allwright (2003, 2005) and Allwright and Hanks (2009) describe, avoiding the more negative connotations of

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problems and focusing on areas of teaching that we might "want to try to understand better" (p. 117).

TEACHER LEARNING, COLLABORATION, COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE, AND PROFESSIONAL LEARNING COMMUNITIES

In her review of teacher professional development over ten years (2000–2010), Avalos (2011) notes that although teacher professional development is studied and presented in many ways, "always at the core of such endeavours is the understanding that professional development is about teachers learning, learning how to learn, and transforming their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students' growth" (p. 10). She describes teacher professional development as "a complex process, which requires cognitive and emotional involvement of teachers individually and collectively" in educational and political contexts that are not always conducive for learning (p. 10).

Much has changed in professional development since the time when it resulted from top-down decisions by administrators for teachers and presented in short workshops, with little time for reflection and limited opportunity for teachers to work together. Vescio, Ross, and Adams (2008) refer to this change as a "paradigm shift gathering momentum with regard to the professional development of teachers" (p. 80). In place of administrator-designed and mandated professional development that is focused principally on new knowledge and skills for teachers, institutions increasingly are providing opportunities for teachers "to rethink their own practice, to construct new classroom roles and expectations about student outcomes, and to teach in ways they have never been taught before" (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 2011, p. 81).

In addition, teacher collaboration, increasingly through communities of practice or professional learning communities, enables teachers to learn together through a process of increasing participation in the practice of teaching. Although some differences have been noted between CoPs and PLCs, the terms are often used synonymously to describe collaborative inquiry among teachers (and other educators and researchers) who share common interests. Characteristic of both is an emphasis on continuous teacher learning. One difference seems to be that CoPs promote collaboration among individuals in many different regions or even nations, made possible by web-based programs for discussion, reflection, and the sharing of ideas or resources (e.g., blogs, discussion boards, and chats), while PLCs usually refer to learning communities within a school, institution, or even a district, with a desire to improve instruction or the curriculum, often in response to educational reforms.

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According to Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder (2002), "communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (p. 4). All cohesive educational CoPs share three characteristics: mutual engagement (shared interaction), joint enterprise (learning from members' participation and negotiation of meaning), and a shared repertoire (discourse and symbols) (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Several researchers have noted the importance of providing pre-service teachers with opportunities to participate in professional learning communities both before and during their practicum experience. Williams (2009) involved U.S. postgraduate students in a collaborative project working with language learners as they engaged in service encounters that they then developed into lessons as part of the student teaching experience. Tomaš, Farrelly, and Haslam (2008) report that practicum students from the U.S. who became student teachers in the Czech Republic were able to engage more with mentors, students, and community members than would have been possible with a U.S. placement.

General educational researchers have investigated teachers' learning in CoPs (Carr & Chambers, 2006; Lockyer, Patterson, Rowland, & Hearne, 2002), sometimes with a focus on educational reform (Cobb, McClain, Lamberg, & Dean, 2003). TESOL researchers have described the professional development of teachers through CoPs (Nishino, 2012, on Japanese high school EFL teachers; Tsui, 2007, on identity development of a Chinese EFL teacher; Shin, 2016, on online CoPs with teachers of English to young learners from many countries).

Professional learning communities are generally school- or institution-based learning communities where teachers work together to critically reflect on their practice, increase their professional knowledge, and improve student learning (DuFour, 2004; Guskey, 1997; Vescio et al., 2008). While many different models of PLCs have been created, at the center of all is a focus on student learning. As DuFour (2004) indicates, "This simple shift—from a focus on teaching to a focus on learning—has profound implications" (p. 6). The goal is to embed student learning and teacher collaboration into the school culture, leading "to changes in teaching practice" (Vescio et al., 2008, p. 83).

Collaboration during the practicum, involving peer observation and coaching, reflection, and discussion, can help lessen the isolation of the student teacher and foster the exchange of teaching strategies and create more of a community of practice with teacher educators, supervisors, and other teachers (e.g., Vacilotto & Cummings, 2007; Goker, 2006). Teachers can also create a collaborative learning community in their classes. (See Faez, 2016, for a case study of an exemplary (immigrant) teacher who created a supportive learning community for her immigrant students with activities that validated their experiences and languages.)

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Collaborative lesson planning, through Lesson Study, also provides situated professional development focused on teacher practice. In Lesson Study, teachers (and sometimes researchers and teacher educators) work collaboratively to plan lessons, observe students while the lessons are taught (sometimes through video), reflect on student learning, and revise the lessons for subsequent teaching (Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004; Lewis, 2002). Tsui and Law (2007) note that engaging student teachers, mentor teachers, and university faculty in Lesson Study, involving collaborative planning, implementing, and analyzing lessons and taking different roles in the process, allowed participants to "cross borders" (p. 1289) and form a professional learning community. (See Eslami et al., 2016, for discussion of Lesson Study for developing enhanced reading instruction with science and English high school teachers in Qatar.)

CLASSROOM RESEARCH, ACTION RESEARCH, AND TEACHER RESEARCH

Although classroom, action, and teacher research are related and often used synonymously, Bailey (2014) clarifies the differences: "Classroom research refers to the location and focus of the study. Teacher research refers to the agents who conduct the study. And action research denotes a particular research method ... that participants use to conduct research in their settings," inside or outside of classrooms (p. 603).

"Calls for the participation of teachers in classroom-centered research ... were mounting" in the late 1980s (Burns, 2013, p. 245), but the role of teachers investigating their own practice or their classrooms became much more prominent in the 1990s (Burns, 2013). Nunan (1989) called for research "whereby teachers might investigate their own classrooms" (p. xi), requiring an introduction to classroom research methods in both teacher preparation and professional development programs. Burns (2013) notes that the distinction made between *teacher training*, which viewed teaching as a set of "discrete and trainable skills" (Richards, 1990, p. 14), and *teacher education*, which provided a much more holistic view of teachers as professionals focusing on "concepts and thinking processes that guide the effective language teacher" (Richards, 1990, p. 14), was also an important factor in encouraging teacher research. According to Burns (2009), interest in action and classroom research in language teacher education (Allwright, 1988; McKay, 2009; van Lier, 1988) emerged about the same time as the idea of the teacher as a reflective practitioner in the general teacher education literature (e.g., Zeichner & Liston, 1987, 1996), and the concept of the "teacher as researcher" (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Nunan, 1989, 1990) in language teacher education.

Central to the idea of action research, teacher research, or classroom-based research

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conducted by teachers or in collaboration with teacher educators is the belief that teachers "will make their own sense of the ideas and theories with which they are presented in ways that are personal to them" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 2, cited by Burns, 2009, p. 289). As Johnson (1992) explains, the role of research in teacher education is not to provide definitive answers to questions about how to teach, but rather, to "help us see how the ways we organise learning environments can promote or inhibit growth" (p. 5). Engagement with research is also an important component of professional development (e.g., study circles, webinars, online courses). Engaging in research can also help teachers become more critical readers of research and can "socialize novice teachers into a professionalism that views research as the basis for effective teaching" (McKay, 2009, p. 282). In some sense, as well, every time a teacher tries out a new strategy, analyzes the results, and reflects on ways of improving the strategy, that teacher is engaged in research (cf., Schön, 1987).

As Bailey (2014) explains, teacher research is "research designed and conducted by classroom teachers" (p. 602). The research usually focuses on something taking place in the classroom (e.g., classroom interaction, Bailey, 2014), but can also focus on student learning during a course or any aspect that a teacher finds of interest. The TESOL International Association has published a number of volumes of reports of teacher research in different parts of the world: for Asia (Farrell, 2006b), Europe (Borg, 2007), the Americas (McGarrell, 2007), the Middle East (Coombe & Barlow, 2007), Australia and New Zealand (Burns & Burton, 2008), and Africa (Makelala, 2009). Another indication of the importance of teacher research is the inclusion of a regular section on "Practitioner Research" in the *Language Teaching Research* journal.

Classroom research (or classroom-based research) is an umbrella term for a range of research that focuses on "what goes on in the classroom setting" (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 2), which consists of (1) a problem or question, (2) data, and (3) analysis and interpretation (Nunan, 1992, p. 3). While early research focused on effective methodology or teaching (e.g., Moskowitz, 1976; Politzer, 1970), more recently, the focus has changed to exploring teacher and student cognition, beliefs, experiences, and attitudes (through surveys, questionnaires, or diaries); classroom interaction (through interaction analysis or discourse analysis); curriculum or materials (through text analysis); and social and cultural contexts of language classrooms (McKay, 2009). As might be expected, the majority of classroom-based research is qualitative in nature. McKay identifies examples of classroom research that include the use of diary studies in teacher education programs (Bailey, 1990), text analyses of L1 and L2 writing and writers (Ferris, 1994; Hinkel, 2003, 2004), protocol analysis in the vocabulary learning of two Chinese EFL learners (Gu, 2003), and a case study of learners' English development in an ESL or mainstream class

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(Harklau, 1994). Classroom research can also be a part of pre-service teacher education. For instance, after engaging undergraduate teacher education students in classroom research in Australia, Jones (2004) found that they became more reflective and saw connections between the theory discussed in their program and the realities of classrooms and learners.

Bailey (2014) notes that in the 1980s much of the language classroom research was published in English-dominant countries (Kachru's inner circle of Australia, Canada, the U.K., and the U.S.), but studies in the past two decades have included the issue of large classes in many countries, including Nigeria (Coleman, 2006), Japan (LoCastro, 1989), Indonesia (Sabander, 1989), Pakistan (Shamim, 1996), and South Asia (Stein & Janks, 1996).

Action research, defined by Richards and Farrell (2005), is "teacher-conducted classroom research that seeks to clarify and resolve teaching issues and problems" (p. 171) through practical action in classes. Burns (2009) extends that definition to apply not only to classrooms, but also to schools or "whole organizations" (p. 290) with the purpose of bridging "the gap between the ideal (the most effective ways of doing things) and the real (the actual ways of doing things)" (p. 290), in what often becomes a cycle of action and research that can be conducted either individually or in collaboration with other teachers or researchers with the goal of improving teaching and learning. Action research provides teachers with a structured approach to studying and improving their practice, allowing them to be agents, rather than recipients, of professional development (Wallace, 1998).

Burns (2009) notes that the role of action research in SLTE globally may be quite limited, according to Borg (2006a) to contexts in which teachers receive professional support. A survey of 228 teachers from 10 countries (China, Colombia, Greece, Japan, Morocco, Poland, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Thailand, and Tunisia) conducted by Rainey (2000) found that 75.5% had never heard of action research; however, of those who had, 75.9% reported that they had conducted action research in their classrooms as a part of their professional development. Studies that have been conducted by teachers or teacher educators in many parts of the world are less likely to be published or publicly available, but collections of this research are growing, which provide evidence of action research conducted in South Asia (Hadley, 2003), as well as in Japan, New Zealand, Brazil, Thailand, France, United Arab Emirates, and New Zealand (Edge, 2001).

A number of small-scale studies of action research have been undertaken as part of a language teacher preparation program (e.g., Borg, 2005; El-Dib, 2007; Jones, 2004; Tsui, 1996). For example, Tsui (1996) engaged her practicing teachers enrolled in a postgraduate certificate program at the University of Hong Kong in video or audio recording their

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classes, reviewing the tapes for areas to research, and then experimenting with different strategies and recording and reflecting on their results in a diary. El-Dib (2007) engaged his Egyptian undergraduate students in action research and journal writing and analyzed their levels of reflective thinking (p. 25), finding that half of his students used only low-level reflection perhaps because of the heavy focus on theory and practice in the program, with little opportunity or support for reflection.

Teacher educators also have conducted research on their own teaching. Bartels (2005), who asked in a *TESOL Quarterly* 2001 article if action research was "only for language teachers," has edited a collection of 21 studies by language teacher educators from many parts of the world who investigated their own teaching of applied linguistics.

CONCLUSION

As can be seen, the changing perspective of SLTE and PD, from transmission of knowledge and skills to a focus on teachers and teacher learning within social, cultural, educational, and political contexts, has given rise to a large corpus of research on teacher cognition, teacher identity, teacher inquiry and research, teacher reflection, and the role of socially mediated learning in communities of practice or professional learning communities.

Wright (2010), in his state-of-the-art review of SLTE (focused on preparing ESL and EFL teachers in Britain, Australia, and North America and the countries influenced by or adopting practices from them), describes the "rapidly changing theoretical basis for [and research in] SLTE." But he also concludes that "the uptake of new conceptualisations of SLTE has not, in the daily reality of SLTE programmes, kept pace with the valuable theoretical consolidation that has been achieved" (p. 260). This is partially the result of the range of contextual factors (sociocultural, political, economic, historical, and institutional) that affect SLTE. While there are still substantial gaps between theory and practice in both pre- and in-service English language teacher education, research is helping to close that gap and to direct teacher education and development to teachers' (and teacher educators') learning and their role in student learning.

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Excerpted from *Teacher Education and Professional Development in TESOL: Global Perspectives*

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EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF TEACHER EDUCATION PEDAGOGY ON EFL READING TEACHER IDENTITIES

A UNITED ARAB EMIRATES CASE

Fíodhna Gardiner-Hyland

Teaching and Learning English in the Arabic-Speaking World

Edited by
Kathleen M. Bailey
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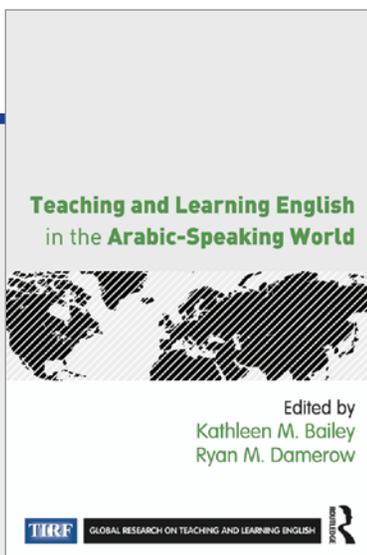
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ISSUES THAT MOTIVATED THE RESEARCH

ISSUE ONE: THE POWER OF PRIOR READING EXPERIENCES

Developing an identity as a reading teacher is a long process of socialization, involving school experiences, teaching beliefs, and reflections about teaching (Borg, 2003; Clarke, 2008; Day, Kington, Stobart, & Sammons, 2005). This "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975, p. 61) marks teachers' socialization as students throughout their schooling as an important influence on their teaching practices (Lortie, 1975). However, these teachers' concepts of the teaching of reading are based on perceptions they developed when they were students, rather than when they were teachers (Lortie, 1975). This biographical baggage (Collinson, 2004) may provide a deep, though not necessarily accurate, sense of what it means to be a developing teacher of reading. For example, in the present research context, Emirati Bachelor of Education (BEd) students enter college with years of exposure to traditional behaviorist reading instruction, including a focus on reading comprehension, direct translation, and intensive reading skills. The quality of this instruction has a lasting impact on how they define themselves as readers and developing reading teachers (Clarke, 2005; McNally, Harold, & McAskill, 2002; Richardson, 2004; Taha-Thomure, 2003).

Teachers' beliefs and past experiences as learners may conflict with the images of teaching promoted in teacher education programs (Freeman & Richards, 1996). In fact, it may be unrealistic to expect student teachers to initiate constructivist settings in schools if their prior experiences do not include constructivist-based experiences (Kaufman, 1996). As Eilam's (2002) study in Israel shows, the teaching behaviors of Arabic student teachers are rooted in cultural beliefs and perceptions. It is, therefore, an important and challenging role for the teacher educator in a UAE context, not only to incorporate student teachers' prior knowledge into curricula, but also to provide opportunities for practical experiences and reflection on those experiences (Freeman & Richards, 1996). Teachers must also harness and shift different forms of knowledge and ensure that changes are reflected in students' teaching practices. This focus involves helping student teachers move from a philosophy of teaching and learning developed as learners, to a philosophy of teaching consistent with their emergent understandings of the language learning and teaching processes developed in college. Their identities are constructed, reconstructed, and deconstructed through an ongoing process of interpreting past and current educational experiences, in which their "identities are neither intrinsically stable nor intrinsically fragmented" (Day et al., 2005, p. 601).

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A UNITED ARAB EMIRATES CASE

Fíodhna Gardiner-Hyland

ISSUE TWO: IMPACT OF TEACHER EDUCATION DELIVERY APPROACHES UPON STUDENT TEACHER PRACTICES

Seen primarily as the inculcation of knowledge and skills, the potentially powerful effects of teacher educators' teaching styles on student teachers' practices have mostly remained unrecognized to date (Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf, & Wubbels, 2001; Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen 2007), particularly in an Arabic context (Barber, Mourshed, & Whelan, 2007). At the heart of this issue is what Kennedy (1991) called "the improvement of practice problem" (p. 3). If the aim of teacher education programs is not simply to transmit explanations of teaching but to support teachers-in-training in developing their own understandings and practices, then the issue of how teacher educators in the UAE conceptualize the knowledge and practices that they seek to develop in student teachers is critical.

Many teacher educators believe that student teachers learn in a way similar to that of children—through having opportunities for hands-on experiences in an interactive, supportive environment (Colby & Atkinson, 2004). While practical experience, including activities such as micro-teaching, problem-solving, and internships, has long been a part of most language teacher education programs, these experiences are often too few and not sufficiently focused on the realities of the classroom (Crandall, 1996; Korthagen et al., 2001), including Arabic contexts (Eilam, 2002; Barber et al., 2007). Drawing on the work of Bruner (1986) and Vygotsky (1978), a number of language educators (Cameron & Baker, 2004; Crandall, 2000; Lunenberg et al., 2007; Verity, 2005) recommend that more extensive and intensive practical experiences be integrated throughout teacher education programs, providing student teachers with greater opportunities to link theory to practice and receive support from experienced teacher educators.

As student teachers learn through example, teacher educators seek pedagogical approaches and experiences that will challenge their thinking about teaching and learning, while at the same time connect theory to practice. Also critical for professional development is to involve students in "learning activities that are similar to ones that they will use with their students" (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000, p. 204). However, teacher educators may not often practice what they preach or function as models for the teaching practices they seek to promote (Anderson, 2005). In order to improve the ability of teacher education to develop new visions of learning in the UAE, teacher educators may need to begin teaching student teachers as those trainees are expected to teach.

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CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH

In response to a demand by government authorities to significantly improve educational practices in the UAE, and to simultaneously Emiratize and professionalize the teaching profession (Clarke & Otaky, 2006; Mograby, 1999; UAE Ministry of Education and Youth, 2000), Vision 2030 was developed. This plan was created to reform education in the UAE by encouraging effective teaching methods. Within this recognition of the need for reform in UAE schools and classrooms, one issue of concern to educators and teacher educators is the need to develop a culture of reading for pleasure.

However, fostering a reading culture among Arab students as a pleasurable activity is a challenge in both the UAE and the Arab world. This obstacle exists partly because of the belief that Arabs share an oral rather than a written culture (Shannon 2003). Within this situation, those entering the education profession in the UAE often face considerable obstacles in the government's primary school system, particularly in the teaching of English reading. Despite the enormous wealth of the UAE, many public schools are ill equipped, lacking basic facilities such as proper libraries. Furthermore, public libraries are not common. For example, the city of Abu Dhabi, with a population of more than 1 million people, currently has only one library. A consequence of this situation is that many Emirati parents are unable to fully support their children's learning. Moreover, schools are commonly staffed with poorly trained and poorly paid Egyptian, Lebanese, Syrian, and Tunisian teachers, who operate within a traditional behaviorist model of transmission based on rote memorization. Ironically, these same teachers supervise Emirati student teachers who have attended extremely well-funded colleges and universities, and have been exposed to radically different Western ideas of the processes of teaching and learning reading.

Within the context outlined above, this research provides insights into the teaching of reading in UAE primary government schools. This study specifically demonstrates, through innovative examples, how Emirati student teachers aspire to make a difference in increasing the quality of the teaching of reading to young learners.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS ADDRESSED

The focus of the study was to determine the impact of a revised teacher education methodology course for second-year BEd students on the reading approaches they used during teaching practice placements in foreign language classrooms. The specific research questions arising out of this context and out of the literature review were as follows:

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1. What is the perceived and observed influence of a revised (Vygotskian social constructivist) teacher education curriculum upon student teachers' methods of teaching reading during teaching practice in UAE foreign language classrooms?

2. What is the perceived and observed impact of reforming delivery in the college classroom (using the constructivist delivery innovations of performance modeling, systematic micro-teaching, and problem-based learning) on student teachers' methods of teaching reading during teaching practice in UAE foreign language classrooms?

3. How do student teachers interpret the impact of teacher education pedagogy upon their prior beliefs, knowledge, and practices, and how does this affect their beliefs and knowledge about teaching reading in an English as a foreign language (EFL) Emirati context?

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Initial documentary evidence from both student teacher and faculty course evaluations revealed a need to change the Year Two reading methodology course to make it more relevant to the context of teaching in an Emirati environment. Semistructured focus group interviews uncovered student teachers' perceptions of the influence of teacher education delivery innovations and curricular changes on their own reading teaching methods. Student teachers were assigned to a particular focus group according to their ability as reading teachers (based on teaching practice reports). These focus groups included categories of 'confident,' 'developing,' and 'reluctant' reading teachers, and were then used to facilitate the comparison of perceptions and abilities of developing reading styles. There were four to eight participants in each group, as determined by Krueger and Casey's (2000) guidelines for focus group numbers most likely to produce optimal interpersonal dynamics. The focus group interview context aimed to provide a safe environment for participants where they could "share ideas, beliefs, and attitudes in the company of people from the same socioeconomic, ethnic, and gender backgrounds" (Madriz, 2000, p. 835). (See **Table 2.1** for an overview of the data collection procedures.)

Online discussions were used to evaluate how student teachers interpreted the impact of teacher education experiences upon their prior beliefs, new knowledge, and practices of teaching reading. The written nature of the online mode provided these EFL student teachers with time to develop their thoughts and arguments (Le Cornu & White, 2000). Drawing on the social construction of mind, language, and discourse (Vygotsky, 1978), online discussions also maintained an emphasis on reflection and reasoning about teaching (Johnson, 1999). Finally, nonparticipant observational analysis was carried out by

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Excerpted from *Teaching and Learning English in the Arabic-Speaking World*

Table 2.1 · An overview of tools, contexts, and timeframe for phases of data collection

	Phase one: intervention	Phase two: application	Phase three: interpretation
Description	*Rewriting and developing the course *Implementing curriculum review and delivery approaches (microteaching, problem-based learning, and modeling)	A teaching practice placement during the college intervention of a revised reading methodology course in which student teachers teach reading in Emirati government primary schools	*The perceived influence of college content and delivery by student teachers using a dialogic forum *6 teacher educators and 90 student teachers evaluating course content and delivery
Timeframe	20-week Reading Methodology Course in Semester 2, Year 2	2-week teaching practice experience in Semester 2, Year 2	End of 20-week Reading Methodology Course
Context	90 student teachers across 6 women's colleges in the college system, taught by 6 faculty of education	16 student teachers in 16 UAE government school classrooms	*90 student teachers engaged in online discussions across 6 women's colleges in the college system *16 focus group student teachers in one college
Research tools	Documentation: course outlines and course evaluations (pre-intervention)	*Non-participant observation *Documentation: teaching practice reports	*Online discussions *Focus group interviews *Documentation: course evaluations

teacher educators at College X, to observe and monitor the student teachers' styles of teaching reading in action in their EFL primary school classrooms.

The process of analyzing data was complex, because it involved a hybrid approach to qualitative thematic analysis. In that approach, emergent themes related to the effectiveness of curriculum development and of instructional delivery of a revised teacher education reading course became the categories for analysis. The analyses used a deductive a priori approach advocated by Crabtree and Miller (1999) to reach the first level of interpretive understanding. The data-driven inductive approach of Boyatzis (1998) using manual coding was also employed by highlighting key themes and words to reach the second level of interpretive understanding. Flanagan's (1954) Critical Incident Technique (Farrell, 2008) was used to draw out the most memorable aspects of the student teachers' past and present learning experiences that had made a difference in their understanding of themselves as developing teachers (Goodson & Sikes, 2001), and particularly in their style of teaching reading during teaching practice. Other data, such as teaching practice reports and course evaluations, were analyzed using the cut-and-paste technique (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990), in which sections relevant to the research

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questions were identified and categorized into the key themes. Color coding was used where necessary to organize the material into 'chunks' or themes (Rossman & Rallis, 1998). This further coding process identified coherent patterns across the data, providing a degree of cross-referencing between the different types of data collected as well as between the two data analysis approaches.

ABOUT THE PARTICIPANTS

As the study's epistemological orientation is interpretative, the findings rest mainly on the perceptions of an intact group of 16 Emirati female student teachers who were undertaking the methodology course on the teaching of reading. Using homogeneous purposive sampling (selective or subjective sampling, guided by a qualitative research design) (Patton, 1990), the production of meaning, tactic knowledge, and naturalistic generalizations were emphasized in semi-structured dialogic forums among an intact group of Emirati women. The anonymous contributions of 76 secondary participants from across the UAE (who also studied the reading methodology course), in both online discussions and course evaluations, confirmed the perceptions of the core group of student teachers in College X. All participants demonstrated an increased self-awareness, reflection on practice, and a problem-solving orientation to the EFL reading classroom. Six international teacher educators, one of whom was the researcher, were involved in the study and conducted nonparticipant observations and course evaluations. In this sense, the study incorporates an implicit ethnographic facet, as in Hammersley's (2002) depiction of ethnography, which involves the researcher in the everyday life of the key participants as their teacher educator. This partially ethnographic aspect is also mirrored in the study's pedagogical orientation, using sociocultural approaches.

All participating student teachers, regardless of background (i.e., desert farming Bedouin or city merchant), dress in a black *abaya* (cloak) and *shayla* (head scarf), with only their faces uncovered. Most of these women are driven to and from college by a male relative or driver in vehicles with tinted windows. Their home lives, "which play a central role in their experiences, [are] very restricted compared with women students from Western countries" (Richardson, 2004, p. 432). For example, the reality for most of these young women is a predestined life in which marriage is arranged, often during their BEd degree. The student teachers' home lives are often controlled by elders, and most of them are prohibited from socializing with men, shopping alone, or traveling without chaperones. However, despite society's adherence to a strict Muslim code of behavior for women and contrary to the perceptions of the typical Emirati woman, who is "protected from public display and not involved in the public arena" (Richardson, 2004, p. 433), this study's core group of student

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teachers are enthusiastic and empowered to contribute to the building of their country's education system. While they are the first generation of Emirati student teachers to attain a degree in education and they are much-needed agents of change, they are nevertheless a product of behaviorist schooling themselves. It is most likely negative memories of previous learning experiences that fuel their desire for educational change.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

FINDING 1: TRANSFORMATIONAL TEACHER EDUCATION PEDAGOGY TO PROMOTE A READING CULTURE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL CLASSROOMS

Initial documentary evidence from both student and faculty course evaluations revealed a need to change teacher education content and delivery, teaching of reading practices in an Emirati environment, and the promotion of a reading culture in primary schools. In addressing Research Questions 1 and 2, with a focus on curricular and pedagogic changes, this case study involved the shaping and contextualizing of a teacher education reading methodology course at College X. Keeping in mind what student teachers need to know about reading to teach it effectively in the context of language learning in UAE primary schools—by moving from understanding reading as a multifaceted, complex phenomenon to the practical application of concepts and methodologies—Emirati student teachers' capacity to successfully teach reading was increased. This movement was seen as a catalyst for addressing negative attitudes towards reading in Emirati schools along with targeting the improvement of reading pedagogy itself.

Within this study, the potential influence of teacher education on developing reading teaching styles was explored. Particularly, explicit performance modeling of reading approaches and implicit modeling of positive attitudes towards reading were addressed. Based on course evaluations, teaching practice reports, and observations, modeled constructivist reading lessons in college were found to be a major influence on shaping what student teachers did in the EFL classroom and the reading culture they promoted. Using NUD*IST statistical inductive coding, effective elements noted by student teachers in focus group interviews included modeling in the college classroom the following: shared reading; reader's theatre; electronic books; storysacks; vodcasts/videos; reading aloud; pre-, while-, and post-reading stages; questioning techniques; Total Physical Response (TPR) activities; puppets and props; using intonation, rhythm, and pitch while reading; role play; drop everything and read; library week events, including guest authors, reading workshops, panel discussions, and school visits; use of resources, such as musical instruments; Post-It notes; and PowerPoint presentations.

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Teaching practice reports revealed that student teachers did indeed experiment with these modeled interactive strategies during their teaching practice placements, demonstrating that many student teachers taught as they had been taught to teach. For example, student teachers on teaching practice placements reported that the lively and attractive features of storysacks (a cloth bag filled with a book, puppets, and related activities) further engaged EFL learners in the storylines and sustained their interest for longer periods of time:

> My students were so interested in the storysacks of *The Hungry Caterpillar* by Eric Carle, that when the lesson ended, they asked if I could read it again with them. They never did this before. (College X, 2007, p. 1 [focus group interviews, Group 1: 2007, p. 2])

The following quote demonstrates student teachers' perceived influence of modeling positive beliefs and attitudes towards reading and motivating EFL students to read for pleasure, as modeled by their teacher educator:

> We've taken all the approaches ... that can or cannot be implemented in Emirati classrooms ... Now we know which is good and what is not good for young EFL learners.... Also our view of reading teaching is different from our teachers. I mean they thought only about comprehension, pronunciation, and grammar. We want students to develop a love of reading and not be afraid to make mistakes. This is what we learnt in college. (College X, 2007, p. 1 [focus group interviews, Group 1])

Student teachers further expressed a desire to become agents of change by setting themselves apart from their former teachers, moving to more child-centered approaches, instilling a love of reading among EFL children, and creating a positive reading culture. An example of these changes is found in the comment below:

> From our past experiences, some reading techniques in EFL classrooms were not really promoting the love of reading, so now as future teachers we really want to promote the love of reading so that students will have the desire to read for pleasure in a reading friendly environment ... we know what we have to do to improve this situation. (College X, 2007 p. 6 [focus group interviews, Group 1])

The evidence from student teacher responses indicates that effective teacher education pedagogy, particularly performance modeling of reading approaches and behaviors, can indeed influence styles of teaching reading. This evidence also shows that student

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teachers can be better prepared with the skills and strategies necessary to teach reading in UAE classrooms.

FINDING 2: CONTRASTING THE TRADITIONAL BEHAVIORIST READING PARADIGM WITH THE COLLEGE CONSTRUCTIVIST READING PARADIGM

The data in **Table 2.2** are drawn from online discussions that summarize the discursive construction of subthemes that emerged. In addressing Research Question 3, these subthemes were used to evaluate how student teachers interpret the impact of teacher education experiences on their prior beliefs, new knowledge, and reading practices during teaching practice. The online asynchronous forums gave EFL student teachers time to develop their thoughts, arguments (Jonassen, 1996), and statements of belief that were personalized and extended. The analysis used a combination of deductive thematic analysis along with NUD*IST inductive coding to organize and confirm emerging themes direct from the data. The broad categories of 'a traditional reading paradigm' and 'a college reading paradigm' form the opposing themes of 'becoming EFL reading teachers' from the perspective of 90 student teachers across six UAE colleges over a six-month period.

The student teachers' newly acquired knowledge of theories and approaches enabled them to critically reflect on their past and present experiences in light of the perceived benefits and application to an EFL classroom. As evidenced in Table 2.2, one of the most characteristic discursive strategies employed by the Emirati BEd students is the construction of a series of strong binary oppositions that revolve around the contrast between (1) the progressive teacher, who uses student-centered, interactive reading methods, and (2) the traditional teacher, who uses teacher-centered, behaviorist reading methods. As highlighted in an earlier study in the same research context (Clarke, 2005), the traditional teachers include both the majority of Arabic teachers that student teachers experienced in their previous schooling, along with the majority of the supervising Arabic school teachers they have worked with during their teaching practice placements in government schools. Therefore, teaching approaches are defined in terms of the interactive reading approaches the student teachers have encountered during college lectures, tutorials, and teaching practice placements in private English schools. Underpinned by a Vygotskian constructivist theory (Jones & Brader-Araje, 2002) and informed by their newly acquired professional knowledge and beliefs, the trainees themselves make a clear distinction between themselves and their past teachers, by declaring a firm intention to (1) develop a love of reading, (2) create a print-rich and literacy-rich environment, (3) teach using a variety of reading approaches, (4) challenge and scaffold students' learning by catering to differentiated abilities, and (5) promote

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Table 2.2 · The discursive construction of 'traditional classroom delivery' versus 'college delivery of reading methodology'

Traditional reading paradigm	College reading paradigm
Teacher-centered	Student-centered
Behaviorist approaches (e.g., Round Robin Reading and the alphabetic approach)	Using constructivist and behaviorist approaches, (e.g., shared reading, reading aloud, reader's theater, phonics)
Accuracy	Fluency (reading with intonation, meaning)
Direct learning through comprehension exercises	Indirect learning of language through stories
Passive teaching: drilling of reading textbook	Active teaching: role play, props and instruments; improvising; reading for pleasure; authentic texts
Whole class choral reading	Differentiated reading and scaffolding
Bare walls	Print- and literacy-rich environment
Listen, repeat, and memorize	Develop criticality, reflection, and questioning skills; students challenged and scaffolded
Grammar, comprehension exercises	Three stages in a reading lesson: pre-, while, post-
One book (emphasis on course book)	A variety of genres (course book as a guide)
Low motivation and self-esteem	High motivation and self-esteem
Reading happens in school	Reading happens at school and at home
Teacher correction	Peer- and self-correction; constructive feedback
Teach for exams; summative assessments	Teach to learn; formative assessments
Arabic teachers, unqualified	Qualified Emirati teachers with a Bed
Government teaching = traditional teaching	College teaching = constructivist teaching

fluency using a variety of genres. This nontraditional approach to teaching and learning, inspired by constructivist principles and modeled in the teacher education classroom, is perceived by Emirati student teachers to be more conducive to learning to read in the UAE than are traditional teacher-centered approaches to teaching reading. As progressive practitioners, their online discussion postings and focus group interviews express a desire to make a difference in developing students' reading skills and voice the type of classroom environment they want to create.

FINDING THREE: BECOMING AGENTS OF CHANGE THROUGH RECONSTRUCTING CONCEPTIONS OF PRACTICE

There is an expectation that Emirati student teachers will contribute to the development of education in their country (Gallagher, 2007). As pioneers, they are faced with the challenge of improving the quality of the teaching of reading and student learning outcomes. Follow-up focus group interviews reveal that becoming a versatile foreign language

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reading teacher who promotes pedagogic change may be more challenging than expected.

In addressing Research Question 3 (how student teachers interpret the effect of teacher education pedagogy upon their prior beliefs, knowledge, and practices), conflicting beliefs and practices raised tensions for the reluctant (weaker) reading teachers. These student teachers aspire to become agents of change and teach reading in an interactive, constructivist way. Yet when confronted with the realities of the EFL classroom, they fall back into old patterns of behaviorist learning experiences. Their style of teaching is influenced partly by survival behavior developed during the student teacher's own apprenticeship of observation, and partly by stored images of current school mentoring teachers' behaviorist reading approaches. On this topic, one student teacher shared the following thoughts:

> I think I will use the reading strategies promoted in college in UAE classrooms because this is the right way to teach reading. I will forget about the traditional way because I didn't learn that much from it. (College X, 2007, p. 9 [focus group interviews, Group 3])

Yet teaching practice reports, such as the examples given below, reveal that in practice, these six student teachers predominately teach reading as they themselves have been taught rather than as they have been taught to teach, despite an interactive lesson plan being presented:

> Her reading style is mainly teacher-centred and she provides limited opportunities for students to be active in her classroom. On her next placement, Student X should try to relax more so that she can enjoy being with the students. She needs to have more confidence in her ability to teach and with increased confidence I'm sure her rapport with the students can only improve. Student X's potential as a teacher of English is of a satisfactory level. (College X [TPCMR], 2007 [developing student teacher])

> Student Y's classroom management skills are good and she has an effective teaching persona and can command students' attention. However, she needs to focus on engaging students actively in learning activities through effective whole class, group and pair work. She needs to understand that students cannot learn by just listening and that students need to be active with relevant and meaningful language learning activities…. She fills

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a lot of class time with teacher talk and does not engage students in language use above word level answers. (College X [TPCMR], 2007 [reluctant student teacher])

Student Z's style of teaching is traditional. She uses lots of repetition and focuses on accuracy of language. She has good classroom control. However, she needs to work on eliciting more answers from students by giving them time to answer, encouraging them to interact in a variety of groupings and developing her own questioning techniques. (College X [TPCMR], 2007 [reluctant student teacher])

Here, the teacher-centered behaviorist paradigm, in which individuals are passive learners and not challenged beyond the word level, is reminiscent of years of exposure to traditional reading instruction by former Arabic teachers and current government school mentor teachers. When faced with pressures during teaching practice placements, the student teachers unconsciously based their teaching more on their previous experiences, making it difficult to alter the effects of the apprenticeship of observation of pre-college experiences. They reverted to what Oldfather, Bonds, and Bray (1994) characterize as the default mode in education, with which they are familiar. This collapse into the comfort zones of behaviorist methodologies contradicts the constructivist pedagogy promoted in the college classroom. Therefore, the focus group responses and teaching practice placement reports demonstrate that this group of student teachers has failed to shift from a transmission, product-oriented perspective to a constructivist, process-oriented one. This finding extends Eilam's (2002) study in Israel by showing the power of the apprenticeship of observation, especially for reluctant student teachers.

However, the confident and the developing student teachers, who wholeheartedly embraced constructivist teaching of reading methods introduced in college, took more risks with their teaching. Such teachers have developed eclectic teaching of reading styles that combine both their learning and teaching experiences, including behaviorist and constructivist methods of teaching reading, as evidenced from excerpts of teaching practice reports below:

Overall, Student J's style of reading teaching is eclectic and motivating. She tried out a number of reading approaches, including reading aloud, sustained silent reading and guided reading. The students are active in her classes, yet she also uses effective repetition and comprehension checking strategies for reinforcement of new concepts. She has very good potential as a teacher of English

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to foreign language learners. (College X [TPCMR], 2007 [developing student teacher])

Student K demonstrated she was able to manage reading groups effectively. She was very at ease with the students and very positive in her dealings with them, so was able to develop an excellent rapport with them in a short time. In her observed lessons, student K was able to motivate her students through a variety of interactive kinaesthetic activities (e.g., props for each character to be raised throughout the story) and so they remained engaged and on task until the end of the story. She had a good balance between checking understanding and maintaining the flow of the story. (College X [TPCMR], 2007 [developing student teacher])

As seen in the above examples, these student teachers have learned to assimilate and accommodate (Piaget, 1971) both past and present teaching influences. Implementing an extensive reading program during teaching practice, setting up a temporary reading corner or mobile library, creating a literacy-rich and print-rich environment, and involving parents in literacy events were among the initiatives promoted by this group of student teachers. As evidenced in online discussions, their desire to become agents of change, as informed by their professional practices in the college classroom, already sets them apart from their past and present government school teachers. A typical online discussion example includes the following:

I aspire to become a student teacher who encourages students to love reading, engage and involve them in reading sessions. Also, I will use different approaches like Reading Aloud, Shared Reading and Reader's Theatre to motivate students and encourage them to participate in discussions. I won't forget some of the old methods like using repetition and choral reading. In addition, I will become a teacher who applies the three stages of reading—pre, while and post-reading that will help students to comprehend the storyline. I want to make a difference. (College System, Academic Services, Online Discussion Posting [ODP], 2007, No. 21)

This testimony of desiring to change suggests not only a personal embrace of the variety of reading methods promoted in the college classroom but also a synthesis of past and present beliefs and practices. The confident reading teachers have created a new understanding and reconstructed their conceptions of practice (Johnson, 1999) in the reading classroom.

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The student teachers' new view of the teaching of reading, however, has created a more complex view of learning to read in a foreign language than the previous view of reading a story and asking comprehension questions. The traditional reading process that focused on control and management was an easier option, with which Emirati children are already familiar. College X's course has therefore created a tension that challenges the role of the reading teacher from that of transmitter or implementer of the curriculum (Suliman, 2000) to facilitator of learning to read in a foreign language. Holliday (1994), Nunan (1989), Pennycook (1994), and Phillipson (1992) have cautioned against the transplantation of communicative language teaching methodologies from one context to another, and typically from Western to non-Western contexts (Gallagher, 2007). However, these concerns contradict the perspectives of the Emirati student teachers in this study who aim to become agents of change within a traditional system of national education. In fact, many of the student teachers actively seek out and welcome outside influences.

IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY, PRACTICE, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has highlighted the importance of linking reading theory and practice, engaging in curriculum review processes, implementing constructivist-based teacher education, and prioritizing the development of socioculturally appropriate materials and pedagogy. While these key areas may help guide the development of Arab teacher education reading programs, Smith (2000) raises an interesting point regarding "the folklore about student teachers 'changing' the schools" (p. 12). While the student teachers view themselves as agents of change within a traditional system of primary school education, whether or not they will actually effect change in the teaching of reading in Emirati primary schools will need further research. An initial follow-up study on the impact of College's X's BEd program in schools conducted by Clarke, Hamston, and Love (2007) found that graduate teachers were experiencing difficulties in combining the roles of a new teacher and an agent of change. This challenge was compounded when colleagues at their schools did not endorse the kinds of constructivist pedagogic approaches advocated by the BEd program. Despite this obstacle, in many school situations they found graduate teachers were having a positive influence on their school communities. They were initiating change in the form of professional development reading workshops for colleagues on topics such as the role of storytelling, integrating English with other subjects, and establishing processes for sharing curriculum materials.

However, there currently are changes sweeping the country in educational reform and policy development, with international groups of educational consultants being employed to implement a new centralized curriculum throughout government school classrooms.

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Initial research could be conducted into the practical difficulties and growing needs of graduate teachers in implementing this prescribed curriculum. The results of such studies may assist student teachers' transition from college to the classroom and may promote collaboration among the graduate teachers, existing school teachers, educational consultants, and ministry officials. This research would also entail the deconstruction of the framework that student teachers have formed around the binary opposition of traditional versus progressive and behaviorist versus 'constructivist' approaches to the teaching of reading, as evidenced in this study. In addition, the potential struggle to maintain their current beliefs as they take up roles within an environment predicated upon a differing set of educational beliefs would warrant further research. The influence of both the schools' mentor teachers and the nature of the school environment itself on student teachers' developing belief systems and reading styles could be assessed. Also, as stated in the research literature, the provision of systematic support for new teachers can increase the effectiveness of teacher performance in schools (Boreen, Johnson, Niday, & Potts, 2000; Wong & Breaux, 2003), and therefore an extension of this research could involve the establishment of links between the undergraduate college classroom and school classrooms in which graduates teach. Through the provision of access to a wealth of reading resources in the college library, professional development reading workshops, online interactive reading courses, and collaborative special events in schools (e.g., book week), beginning teachers may have an increased chance of becoming change agents when they are supported by communities of teacher learners (Corrie, 2000).

CONCLUSION

This chapter has explored the impact of teacher education pedagogy on EFL reading teacher identities in a UAE context, representing one aspect of a wider study focusing on the beliefs, previous learning experiences, and developing reading teacher identities of Emirati student teachers. It offers a way of thinking about the formation of the teaching of reading styles in an Emirati context, as a dynamic process of identity development involving both past and present influences. Therefore, whether student teachers' conceptions of practice exist a priori, or whether they are created through transformational teacher education experiences, this study suggests that both processes interact simultaneously. Constructing a paradigm from a single case study is paradoxical, yet when integrated with other similar studies from the region, this study can contribute to providing a greater understanding of pedagogical identity formation in the UAE, a location that is currently underrepresented in the research literature.

Few countries in the world have experienced the rapid economic and educational development seen in the UAE over the past 30 years. Yet it remains to be seen how that

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development will help foster an improved education system, education methodology practices, and literacy levels that will sustain future generations. Exploring ways in which Emirati student teachers and graduates learn to teach reading is a long-term endeavor. Teacher education programs are the first step in a professional journey that requires the nourishing conditions to support the promotion of a reading culture in the UAE through teacher development. It is, nonetheless, a journey that will never end because, no matter how effective we are as teacher educators, we can always improve.

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Teaching and Learning English Grammar

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MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The past two decades have witnessed a call for new theories and approaches to grammar instruction (Conrad, 2000; Ellis, 1995; Hinkel & Fotos, 2002; Hughes & McCarthy, 1998; Larsen-Freeman, 2002, 2003; Liu & Master, 2003). Of the proposed theories and approaches, three stand out: grammar teaching in discourse contexts, the lexicogrammatical approach to grammar, and corpus data-driven teaching. The call for teaching grammar in discourse contexts has its roots in functional grammar and is founded largely on the belief that grammar deals not only with forms but also with semantics (meaning) and pragmatics (context-appropriate use) (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Hughes & McCarthy, 1998; Larsen-Freeman, 2002, 2003). Functional grammar focuses on meaning and treats grammar as a resource for language users in making meaning in a given social context. Thus, as Larsen-Freeman (2003) suggests, language form, meaning, and use should be approached as an integrated whole.

The three aspects of grammar are interwoven because "a change in one will involve a change in another" (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 4). Students of English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) should learn not only how to use correct grammatical forms but also how to use them in a meaningful and appropriate way. This view contrasts with traditional grammar teaching with its focus on grammatical forms and little attention to their discourse contexts, resulting in students often not knowing how to use grammatical forms meaningfully and appropriately. A discourse-based grammatical approach can help address this problem.

Lexicogrammar views lexicon and grammar as two inherently connected parts of one entity, challenging the traditional "wisdom of postulating separate domains of lexis and syntax" (Sinclair, 1991, p. 104). In this view, "a grammatical structure may be lexically restricted" (Francis, 1993, p. 142), and, conversely, lexical items are often grammatical in nature, for the use of a lexical item often has grammatical implications (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998; Conrad, 2000; Hunston & Francis, 2000). Many corpus studies have exhibited this close lexical and grammatical connection (Biber et al., 1998; Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; Francis, Hunston, & Manning, 1996, 1998). In light of these findings, some scholars have argued for the use of the lexicogrammatical approach in language instruction (Aston, 2001; Hunston & Francis, 1998, 2000).

The suggestion of using corpus analysis in grammar teaching emerges from new advancements in corpus linguistics that show how corpus concordance not only makes accessible an enormous amount of authentic language input but also creates various

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inductive and deductive language learning opportunities not available previously (Aston, 2001; Conrad, 2000; Francis, 1993; Hunston, 2002; Hunston & Francis, 1998; Johns, 1994; Sinclair, 2004; Stevens, 1995). Corpus-based L2 instruction can involve either inductive or deductive learning. In terms of inductive learning, language learners observe grammar and vocabulary usages in concordance data and then discover and generalize findings about usage patterns and rules. In deductive learning, language learners use corpora either to test the rules and patterns they have learned or to classify concordance data by applying the rules and patterns. It has been argued that such learning activities motivate students and promote discovery learning—a method of inquiry-based instruction in which learners build on prior knowledge and discover facts as they are guided in the exploration of new ideas and concepts, and these activities are "particularly effective for the acquisition of grammar and vocabulary" because they help learners to notice and retain lexicogrammatical usage patterns better by engaging them in "deeper [language] processing" (Aston, 2001, p. 19). Furthermore, corpus data offer contextualized language use, which enables learners to understand better what Larsen-Freeman (2002) calls "grammar of choice" in language use. It is important to note that corpus-driven learning is not appropriate for beginning- or low-level students due to their limited English proficiency (Aston, 2001).

In short, the research examined above supports a contextualized, corpus-based lexicogrammar approach to grammar instruction. However, while there have been quite a few publications introducing the use of corpora in language teaching (Aston, 2001; Flowerdew, 1996; Hunston & Francis, 1998, 2000), there has been little empirical research on the applicability and effectiveness of a corpus-based lexicogrammatical approach in grammar instruction.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The specific research questions motivating the current study were the following:

1. To what extent is a corpus-based lexicogrammatical approach applicable when used as a unified approach in EFL and ESL contexts?

2. How effective and useful is this approach from the perspectives of students and teachers in such contexts?

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DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

CONTEXT AND PARTICIPANTS

This study was conducted at a university in China and two universities in the United States (see also Liu and Jiang, 2009). It lasted one semester at each school. The participants in the study at the Chinese university were five sections of the Essentials of English course for second year English majors (160 students). The course was designed to provide students with essential language skills, including the ability to use vocabulary and grammar. The participants at one of the U.S. universities were two Level 5 Reading and Structure classes (21 students) at the school's English Language Institute. At the other U.S. university, the study included three English classes: two composition classes for non-native speakers of English (27 students) and one MA TESOL grammar class with over 80% of the students being non-native speakers of English (28 such students). Despite the fact that the two composition classes differed somewhat in language content/skill and the ESL students in the MA class possessed a somewhat higher English proficiency, the subjects were included in the study for two reasons: (1) they were the only ESL classes available and (2) the number of participants in the ESL setting was much smaller compared with that in the EFL setting (76 vs. 160). To limit the effect that the differences in language context might have on the study, efforts were made to align the content of the classes as closely as possible by making corpus-based lexicogrammar a focus for all the classes. The subjects' English proficiency level was within the intermediate to upper-intermediate range with some students in the MA class reaching the advanced level. No low-level students were included because, as mentioned above, corpus-based learning would be too difficult for them.

The corpus used in the study was the British National Corpus (BNC) and the BNC Baby. (Some students in the United States had access to the BNC via a free online interface provided by Brigham Young University professor Mark Davies.) Prior to the study, the participating instructors underwent extensive training on corpus use and the issues of lexicogrammar and contextualization of grammar teaching. During the training, the researchers and the instructors also spent a substantial amount of time discussing how to effectively incorporate corpora and lexicogrammar in the existing language curriculum and developing teaching strategies, sample classroom activities, and sample lessons.

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DATA COLLECTION

The data for this study consisted of the following: (1) students' work including their corpus search assignments, grammar exercises, written reports about their corpus data analyses and findings, and reflections about their corpus studies on lexicogrammar; (2) instructors' teaching logs, lesson plans, sample teaching activities, reflection journals, author notes taken during instructor discussion meetings, and the authors' informal discussions with the instructors; and (3) students' and instructors' post-study questionnaires (see Appendix A). The various sources of data allowed data triangulation to enhance the validity and reliability of the study. The questionnaire consisted of two parts—open-ended questions (1–10 on the students' version and 1–13 on the instructors' version; instructors answered Questions 11–13, while learners did not) and five Likert-scale questions that were answered by all participants. The open-ended questions sought to obtain information regarding the participants' practices in and assessment of the use of corpora and lexicogrammar. The questions were the same on both the students' and instructors' versions except for some wording differences (i.e., learning vs. teaching) to reflect their respective perspectives. The Likert-scale questions were intended to ascertain the subjects' general assessment of the lexicogrammar approach on a five-point scale. The total number of students who completed the questionnaire was 198 out of the 236. With the eight teachers' (four in each setting) responses added, the total number of completed questionnaires was 206.

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Analyses included qualitative and quantitative parts. The qualitative part focused on an interpretive examination of the students' and teachers' responses to the open-ended questions on the post-study questionnaire, as well as student-written corpus research assignments, reports, and reflections. In addition, teacher data (teaching logs, lesson plans, sample teaching activities, reflection journals, and the authors' informal discussions with the instructors) were analyzed as they supported the themes that had emerged from learner data. Quantitative analyses were conducted on the subjects' responses to the Likert-scale questions on the post-study questionnaire.

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

In examining the various qualitative data from both the students and instructors, we followed a two-step procedure commonly used in social sciences/education research. First, we perused the data multiple times and marked up sections that seemed interesting and

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important to answering the research questions. Then, we scrutinized the data again, paying special attention to the marked sections, and organized the important marked sections/quotes thematically. The analysis identified four major beneficial effects and two major challenges in corpus-based lexicogrammar learning, as well as a number of factors that were reported to influence the learners' experience.

Positive Effects

The first benefit of the corpus-based lexicogrammatical approach was enhanced language awareness and a better command of some lexicogrammatical usage rules/patterns reported by many of the learners and the teachers. On the first open-ended question of the survey—what were the most useful and valuable things learned—a majority of the participants (n = 118) mentioned lexicogrammatical usage patterns. Similarly, in answering Questions 3 and 4 on the questionnaire concerning what they had learned from the corpus searches and what aspects of language they found corpus searches most helpful in learning, more than two-thirds (n = 138) responded with some version of "lexicogrammatical usage rules and patterns." As one student put it, "I solved some [grammar] problems that I had for a long time [by using corpus searches]." Quite a few commented that they obtained a lot of information that they could not have found in other sources such as dictionaries. As indirect evidence of the value of corpus research in learning lexicogrammatical patterns, searching for such patterns was the most frequently conducted type of search reported by the majority of the students. It was also the type of search activity they would like to do more in the future.

The second positive effect reported by participants was a greater appreciation of the importance of context for a vocabulary item or grammatical form. More than half of the student participants mentioned that the study helped them to better understand how lexicogrammar use is often affected by context. In answering the question about the role of context in lexicogrammar use based on their learning in the course, 182 subjects (88.3%) wrote that it was important or very important. In their answers as well as in their reflection papers, some subjects explained that by examining lexicogrammatical patterns, they had many opportunities to see first-hand how context/register determined people's choices of lexicogrammatical items and how form, meaning, and use were interwoven. For example, one group's corpus search project about the passive use of the verb *give* showed a significant difference across BNC Baby's four sub-corpora: only 6.7% of the total tokens occurred in Spoken, 15.8% in Written Fiction, and 25.5% in Written Newspaper, but 52% in Written Academic. The finding led one member of the group to the following reflection: "I'd never given much thought to the passive voice in English before…. Now I see that it is not

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only important to know how to use the passive voice, but also when to use it, which is something I had never considered." As another example, one student conducted a corpus search about the phrasal verb *back up* in the different sub-corpora and found that in the written language, especially academic/news writing, it was used mostly to mean "support" but in spoken language it often meant "move backwards or reverse."

The third positive impact reported by participants was an increased critical understanding of grammar. One student wrote, "Before the course, I learned traditional grammar from my Korean teachers. I followed their concepts [rules] and indications [explanations] without thinking why they [the rules] should be considered like that.... [Now I have developed] a good habit to judge whether a grammatical rule is correct." Similarly, another student stated the following regarding the most valuable things gained: "Grammar can't be taught like a math formula: applying a fixed formula to the sentences without the understanding of the meaning in context." The subjects' enhanced critical understandings of grammar can also be seen in their responses to the question about whether their corpus research findings challenged the traditional view about grammar being rigid rules that native speakers follow. A majority (68%) answered "yes," although 26% said "no" and 6% did not respond. One student wrote, "our group research results are somewhat different from [the description in] the textbook. As a result, I now know the grammar textbook is not always correct."

Finally, the lexicogrammar approach helped promote discovery learning and made learning more interesting and effective for students. A positive effect was noted by both students and teachers. More than a third of the students put down enhancement of discovery learning skills as one of the most useful and valuable things they learned in the course. Furthermore, quite a few students commented that they really enjoyed the discovery learning aspect of the corpus searches. As one student wrote, "Comparing the different sentences and seeing how the speakers and writers used the same word or structure for varying effects was a surprisingly effective way to study not only English structure but usage by real people." Another student stated the point succinctly in explaining why corpus research was helpful: "I just can type [in] words or phrases. Then a lot of examples [will] come up on the screen in front of me. From the examples, I can figure out some rules of English." Quite a few students also mentioned in the questionnaire responses that they remembered better by conducting corpus analyses.

In the teaching journals, some instructors also discussed discovery learning and focused on how conducting corpus analyses promoted the retention of new information for their students. One instructor at the Chinese university summarized the value of discovery learning this way: "I've found that using corpus searches allowed the students to infer [to make inferences about] the unique features and patterns [of the lexicogrammatical items

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they were learning] and then to compare their findings with the descriptions in the textbook. As a result, students gain a better understanding and [experience] better retention of what they were [are] learning." Finally, by working with students on their searches and reading their reports, teachers had the opportunity to guide and facilitate learning and to understand students' discovery learning/thinking process on a deeper level than would occur during non-corpus-based classroom activity. For example, in reflecting on how much she had learned from the way her students used corpus data to figure out the differences among modal verbs, one U.S. instructor wrote: "Interestingly enough, I think I learned as much as the students did, not about modals themselves but about how the students understand modals."

Challenges

The first major challenge was access to corpora. This challenge was manifested in the lack of easy access to corpora in some contexts, especially at the Chinese university, due to the limited number of computers available for student use. The second challenge, and perhaps the most difficult one from the students' perspective, was how to effectively analyze concordance data to identify lexicogrammatical usage rules/patterns. Almost all the students mentioned this issue either directly or indirectly in their answers to the question about the greatest challenge(s) they faced in using corpora. Many of them stated that they often felt overwhelmed by the extremely large number of examples generated by their searches and the time required for going over and analyzing the data. The problem was further exacerbated when many of the generated examples were irrelevant to their study question. In addition, many students were frustrated by the large number of unknown words in the data generated by the initial searches. There are three likely sources for these problems. The first explanation is inadequacy in the training given to the students about how to conduct effective corpus searches. The second explanation may be related to the lack of sophisticated search functions in the existing corpus search engines. Finally, a third explanation is the low-level English language proficiency of some of the students.

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

General Attitudes

The Likert-scale questions elicited responses on a five-point scale showing the general attitudes of both the students and teachers about the use of corpora. Data from the two participant groups were combined. The results are summarized in **Table 3.1**. These data generally corroborate the aforementioned findings from the qualitative analysis. Concerning Question 1 (i.e., how helpful was corpus use in lexicogrammar learning), 81%

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of the subjects selected the positive choices "Very," "Quite," and "Somewhat." On Question 2, regarding how much they learned, 87% selected the positive choices with about 40% believing they had learned a good amount or a great deal. Question 3 focused on whether the subjects would use corpora in their future learning or teaching activities, and the majority (54%) of the subjects said "Yes" or "Yes, very much." Although the overall response to the question was positive, a little over 30% were "Not sure," and about 15% said "No." As indicated above in the qualitative analyses, possible reasons for participants' expressions of uncertainty about the value of corpora include the large amount of time and effort that corpus analyses demand and the lack of easy access to corpora.

Table 3.1 · Post-Study Assessment Ratings of Attitudes Toward Use of Corpora

Rating	Question 1 on Helpfulness of Corpus Use	Question 2 on Amount of Learning From Corpus Use	Question 3 on Plan to Use Corpora in the Future	Question 4 on Relationship Between Grammar/ Lexicon	Question 5 on Importance of Context in Grammar Use
1	Not at all 8 (3.9%)	Nothing 8 (3.9%)	No 9 (4.4%)	Not as close as 7 (3.4%)	Not as important 10 (4.9%)
2	Minimally 31 (15.0%)	Minimal 18 (8.7%)	Probably not 24 (11.7%)	Not quite as close 34 (16.5%)	Not quite as important 15 (7.3%)
3	Somewhat 106 (51.5%)	A little 100 (48.5%)	Not sure 65 (31.6%)	About the same 63 (30.6%)	About the same 70 (34.0%)
4	Quite 46 (22.3%)	A good amount 75 (36.4%)	Yes 90 (43.7%)	Closer 81 (39.3%)	More important 73 (35.4%)
5	Very 15 (7.3%)	A great deal 5 (2.4%)	Yes, very much 18 (8.7%)	Much closer 21 (10.2%)	Much more important 38 (18.4%)

Regarding Question 4 (i.e., comparing their views on the relationship between grammar and vocabulary before and after their experiences with using corpora), 50% now consider the relationship "Closer" or "Much closer" than before. Thirty percent hold the same view as before, and 20% now view it as not as close. On Question 5 (i.e., comparing their views before and after their experiences with using corpora on the importance of context in selecting a vocabulary item or grammatical structure in a text or in discourse), 54% selected "More important" or "Much more important," suggesting that the use of corpora and lexicogrammar enhanced the majority of the subjects' understanding of the relationship between grammar and vocabulary choice.

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Factors Influencing Learning

To ascertain whether the context for learning (i.e., EFL vs. ESL) was a possible factor affecting learners' responses, a *t*-test was conducted between groups using combined means. The results of the *t*-test are reported in **Table 3.2**, where a significant difference between means can be seen, with the ESL group mean higher than that of the EFL group, meaning that the ESL students were more positive about the benefits of using corpora compared with the EFL group.

There are a number of factors in both the ESL and EFL contexts that may have affected students' responses on the usefulness of corpora in grammar instruction and should be taken into account in considering this result. The ESL students had better access to corpora, and the classes were smaller, which would likely mean more individual attention from the teacher and more interactive learning opportunities. The lack of good access to corpora and large class sizes pose special challenges in the implementation of the corpus-based approach, yet corpora offer EFL learners a source of authentic language data not available otherwise. Thus, how to deal with the special challenges of using a corpus-based approach in EFL is a very important question. We will return to this issue in the Discussion section of this chapter. A final factor that may have influenced students' responses was that one of the ESL classes was an MA-level course whose students possessed a higher English proficiency and appeared more motivated than students in the EFL classes.

Table 3.2 · Post-Study Overall Assessment of Attitudes Toward Use of Corpora by Context

EFL (*n* = 152)		ESL (*n* = 54)		Both (*n* = 206)		*t*-Test Results			
M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*Mean Difference*	*t*	*p*	*d* (effect size)
3.26	0.59	3.57	0.8	3.34	0.67	0.31	2.527	0.01	0.43

Besides comparing the responses to the Likert-scale questions from the two different contexts, we ran an ANOVA to check whether there were significant differences among the nine different classes. The results indicate that there are significant differences (see **Table 3.3**). The results of the post hoc Tukey's test is shown by subscript letters attached to the class means (e.g., for EFL Group 1, $M = 3.04_{a,b}$). The test reveals where the differences lie between the groups. Means (*M*) that share a common subscript are not significantly different by Tukey's test, where $p < 0.05$, while means that do not share a common subscript are significantly different. For example, ESL Group 3, with a subscript of "c" (i.e., $M = 4.14_c$), which focused on grammar, was significantly different from ESL Group 1, with subscripts of "a" and "b" (i.e., $M = 3.16_{a,b}$), and Group 2, with a subscript of "a" (i.e.,

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2.75$_a$), which focused on composition, and from all of the EFL groups except for Group 2 with subscripts of "b" and "c" (i.e., M = 3.67$_{b,c}$). In addition, the results show that four of the classes stood out, with three having noticeably higher means on the five-point scale (EFL 2, ESL 3, and ESL 4), indicating more positive attitudes, and one showing a markedly lower mean (ESL 2), indicating less positive attitudes. Of the three classes with the highest means, two were grammar classes (ESL 3 and 4), and the one with the lowest mean was a composition class (ESL 2). These differences would suggest that the language content/skill focus of the class might have been an influencing factor on attitudes toward corpora-based instruction in ESL contexts.

Table 3.3 · Students' Overall Assessment of Attitudes Toward Use of Corpora by Class

Class	Content/Skill	M	SD	ANOVA			
				df	F	Sig	R *(effect size)*
EFL 1 *(n = 27)*	Overall	3.04$_{a,b}$	0.62				
EFL 2 *(n = 26)*	Overall	3.67$_{b,c}$	0.42				
EFL 3 *(n = 36)*	Overall	3.21$_{a,b}$	0.55				
EFL 4 *(n = 35)*	Overall	3.27$_{a,b}$	0.59				
EFL 5 *(n = 24)*	Overall	3.08$_{a,b}$	0.56	8/189	10.64	0	0.31
ESL 1 *(n = 10)*	Composition	3.16$_{a,b}$	0.7				
ESL 2 *(n = 12)*	Composition	2.75$_a$	0.79				
ESL 3 *(n = 24)*	Grammar	4.14$_c$	0.48				
ESL 4 *(n = 4)*	Read/grammar	3.65$_{b,c}$	0.57				

Note: Means (*M*) sharing a common subscript are not significantly different by Tukey's test, where *p* < .05.

Table 3.4 · Student Attitudes Toward Use of Corpora by Content Groups

Content Group	M	SD	ANOVA			
			df	F	Sig	R *(effect size)*
Composition (*n* = 22)	2.94$_a$	0.76				
Overall skill (*n* = 148)	3.25$_a$	0.59	2/195	27.33	0	0.22
Reading/grammar (*n* = 28)	4.07$_b$	0.51				

We also ran an ANOVA on the students' mean ratings grouped by the three major language skills the classes respectively focused on: (1) composition, (2) overall skills, and (3) grammar. The results of the ANOVA and a post hoc Tukey's test are reported in **Table 3.4**.

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The grammar group's mean rating is significantly higher than the other two groups' ratings, and the overall skill group's rating is higher, though not significantly, than the composition group's rating. Such a finding would suggest that the language skill focus of a class was also a likely factor in determining students' responses to corpus-based lexicogrammar teaching.

In **Table 3.3**, we saw that there was a significant difference in the overall assessment means among classes with the same language skill focus (e.g., the five EFL classes), suggesting other factors, such as the teacher and individual differences among the students themselves, may be factors influencing the result. A comparison of the instructors' responses to the five-point Likert-scale questions with their own students' responses shows a relationship between the two on their reactions to corpora-based instruction. The students whose teacher ratings were high responded more positively on the Likert-scale ratings than those whose teacher ratings were low. The teachers whose Likert-scale ratings were high also had very positive views about their teaching practice as noted in the data from their teaching journals and researcher observations of instructor meetings.

Based on these data, it seemed reasonable to pursue further quantitative analyses to ascertain whether the instructors' attitude had an impact on their students' learning experiences. We classified the instructors into three groups based on their Likert mean ratings (1 to 5): "Not very positive" (with a mean of 3.0 and below), "Median positive" (with a mean between 3.1 and 3.99), and "High positive" (with a mean of 4.0 and higher). Two instructors fell into the low positive attitude group, four into the middle group, and two into the high group. Then we ran an ANOVA on students' mean ratings. The test with post hoc Tukey's results is reported in **Table 3.5** and reveals that the mean rating by students whose instructors were in the high group is significantly higher than the mean ratings of the students in the other two groups. These findings suggest that the instructors' attitude likely had an influence on the students' learning experiences. Of course, the students themselves could have been a factor. The wide distribution of the students' answers on the Likert-scale questions shown in **Table 3.1** may serve as evidence. Based on the instructors' observations, students who were usually more motivated responded to corpus use more positively than those who were less motivated.

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Table 3.5 · Student Assessment of Corpus-Based Instruction by Groups Based on Instructors' Attitudes

Groups by Instructors' Attitudes	M	SD	ANOVA			
			df	F	Sig	R (effect size)
Low (*n* = 39)	2.96_a	0.68				
Middle (*n* = 109)	3.21_a	0.58	2/195	33.65	0	0.26
High (*n* = 50)	3.90_b	0.51				

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

While the study has yielded some interesting findings, it is important to note that there are a few limitations. First, there was a large difference in the number of subjects between the two settings; also, the content and language skills taught were not the same across all classes. Second, due to limited resources and other factors related to access, no formal face-to-face interviews could be conducted with the students or teachers; consequently, we had no opportunity to gain a more in-depth understanding of some of the issues that we examined. Third, the study did not employ language tests to measure, in quantitative terms, students' language learning achievement. Therefore, it lacked an objective measure of students' learning gains.

These limitations point to important considerations for future research. First, future studies on corpus-based lexicogrammar teaching should include better sampling techniques across contexts and more balanced samples across groups. Second, several more specific lines of inquiry need to be explored. More content and language skill-specific research on the use of corpora is needed to help determine the effectiveness of this approach in various specific language skill areas, such as lexicogrammar skills in reading or writing. Quasi-experimental research that uses tests of language proficiency to more accurately measure the effects of the use of corpora and lexicogrammar on students' language learning would also be useful.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Despite these limitations, the overall positive effects of the corpus-based lexicogrammatical approach in both EFL and ESL settings shown in the current study indicate that EFL/ESL teachers should try to incorporate this strategy into their instruction, if they have the resources. However, teachers who implement a lexicogrammar approach need to be fully aware of the challenges they may face and the different variables that can affect the design and use of corpus-based curricula, such as

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access to computers and the Internet. As they consider whether or not and to what extent they want to incorporate corpus-based learning, a number of factors should influence the decision-making process, such as their students' own learning objectives and levels of language proficiency.

It is also important to note that some of the difficulties in corpus searches found in the study, such as the limited functions of certain search engines, will require advancements in technology before they can be resolved. Some progress has been made in this regard. For example, Wible, Chien, Kuo, and Wang (2002) have developed the Lexical Difficulty Filter software program, which can filter out examples that contain difficult words. Progress is being made, but more work in this area is needed.

The research on using corpora in language classrooms can help teachers confront the challenges they may face in the implementation of a lexicogrammar approach. For example, in dealing with the issue of the lack of good access to corpora, teachers could sometimes print out concordance lines about a lexicogrammatical issue they want to talk about in class and give each student a hard copy. In this way, students will have access to the data and be able to work on specific problems in or out of class.

To help students become more confident and proficient in corpus use, teachers should model corpus searches. Modeling is a crucial scaffolding technique in preparing students for success in their own corpus research. Many students and instructors in the current study talked about the need for such modeling, from both positive and negative experiences. While modeling is extremely helpful, it is not sufficient for students to become competent corpus users. "Learning by doing" is equally important. As a student research group reported in their corpus project that compared the use of *maybe* and *perhaps* in the spoken and written corpora, they first included fiction as a sub-corpus of their written corpus. However, on further examination of the data, they noticed that a substantial portion of the writing in fiction was actually dialogue, so they decided to exclude fiction from their written corpus, which was an appropriate decision and one based entirely on their own learning.

Another effective practice is to have students participate in deductive search activities before engaging in inductive ones. In deductive learning activities the students are asked to test a lexicogrammatical rule or usage pattern they have been taught or already know. In such an activity, students search the corpora for examples to confirm or reject a rule or usage pattern they have been given. Such an activity is much easier than an inductive one in which students must go through language examples by themselves to identify a rule or pattern. Students' successes in conducting deductive learning searches give them more

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confidence to pursue inductive searches, enhancing their interest and increasing motivation.

In another useful practice, students can conduct group corpus research assignments in addition to or in lieu of individual ones. There are several advantages to having students work in groups in corpus searches. First, identifying lexicogrammatical rules and usage patterns is a very demanding task, so if group members pool resources, they are generally more successful than an individual might be. Second, corpus searches are time-consuming, especially the task of going through the many tokens or examples a search usually generates. When several people share the work, the process becomes more efficient. Additionally, in large classes, small group work may help students become more engaged by offering them more opportunities to participate, interact with, and learn from one another. In fact, the findings of this study show that students generally prefer group corpus projects over individual ones. However, teachers should be aware of the fact that group work can sometimes be very difficult if there are problems with group chemistry that might result from personality clashes, cultural differences, or levels of language proficiency, among other things.

Finally, thorough preparation on the part of the teacher (e.g., going through corpus query results before each lesson) is important, especially for non-native-speaker teachers, who, as research has shown, may not feel confident enough about their language ability and may not be quite sure about some of the lexicogrammatical usage rules/patterns (Liu, 1998; Llurda, 2005). It is advisable for teachers to make detailed preparations by doing any necessary corpus searches before class on each lexicogrammatical point to be taught. In this way, they are less likely to be caught off guard about issues about which they are unsure. In fact, the process of doing a corpus analysis gives teachers additional opportunities for language study, which will in turn further enhance their language knowledge and confidence in teaching.

CONCLUSION

This study has provided additional data on using a lexicogrammatical approach to teaching English grammar in both EFL and ESL post-secondary contexts. The results of the study support findings from previous research, indicating that there is a close lexical and grammatical connection in language use. Both language learners and teachers recognized the connection. The data also suggest that a lexicogrammar approach is useful in

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promoting discovery learning and therefore can serve as a catalyst for helping language learners develop a deeper understanding of usage patterns and of how vocabulary and grammar are connected. In addition, findings from this study have been useful in identifying some of the pedagogical challenges that teachers face in implementing a lexicogrammar approach, particularly in EFL contexts, and in offering suggestions for how these challenges may be resolved.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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APPENDIX A

POST-STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Open-Ended Questions
(Questions 11–13 were on the teacher version only)

1. What are the most useful and valuable things you have learned in the course?

2. What corpus search activities have you done and for what type of information?

3. What have you learned from the corpus searches?

4. In learning/teaching what aspects of language have you found the use of corpora most helpful for?

5. What do you think are the greatest challenge(s) in the use of corpora for English learning?

6. What types of searches would you like to do more in the future for English learning/teaching?

7. Based on your learning/teaching this semester, what do you think is the relationship between grammar and vocabulary (entirely different or closely related), and why?

8. Based on your learning/teaching this semester, what do you think is the role of context in our choice of words and grammatical structure in language use?

9. Traditional grammar (especially prescriptive grammar) views grammar as rigid rules that naïve speakers of the language follow. Have your corpus research findings challenged this view? By the same token, have your corpus findings changed your view about grammar? If yes, then how?

10. Besides what you have been provided, what additional help and resources would you like to have in the future in order to use corpora and contextualized lexicogrammar more effectively for English learning?

11. In what ways do you find corpora useful for you as an ESL/EFL teacher?

12. What are the challenges you have found in incorporating corpus-based lexicogrammar in your teaching?

13. What have you done in assessing your students' learning of lexicogrammar?

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II. Likert-Scale Questions

1. How helpful has the use of corpora been for your learning/teaching?

    a. Not at all.

    b. Minimally.

    c. Somewhat.

    d. Quite.

    e. Very.

2. How much have you learned from the use of corpora?

    a. Nothing.

    b. Minimal.

    c. A little.

    d. A good amount.

    e. A great deal.

3. Would you like to include the use of corpora for your future English learning/teaching?

    a. Not at all.

    b. Probably not.

    c. Not sure

    d. Yes.

    e. Yes, very much.

4. Compared with your previous understanding (i.e., before the course), what is your current view about the **relationship between vocabulary and grammar** (i.e., how closely they are connected)?

    a. Not as close.

    b. Not quite as close.

    c. About the same.

    d. Closer.

    e. Much closer.

5. Compared with your previous understanding (i.e., before the course), what is your current view about the **importance of context** in determining language users' choice of words/grammar?

    a. Not as important.

    b. Not quite as important.

    c. About the same.

    d. More important.

    e. Much more important.

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EMPOWERING TEACHERS FOR THE DIGITAL FUTURE

WHAT DO 21ST-CENTURY TEACHERS NEED?

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Digital Language Learning and Teaching

Research, Theory, and Practice

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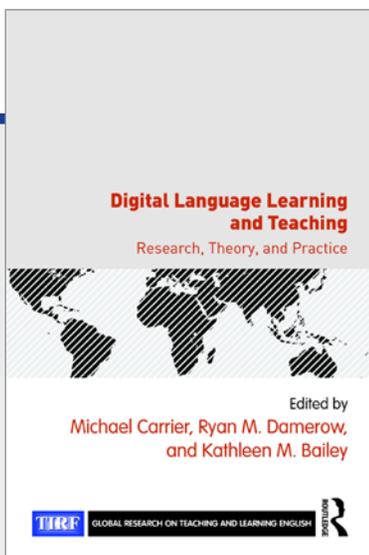
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INTRODUCTION

Digital technologies have empowered learners to learn more effectively and more independently, with resources being available instantly. But where does this leave teachers? How does the traditional role of the teacher need to adapt to complement and enhance what teachers already do? And should policymakers be doing more to ensure that teachers are not disempowered and are therefore able to meet the expectations that digital technologies bring?

This chapter will address the developing and future trends in digital language learning, the application of educational technology to English language education, and what these issues mean for teacher development. We will look at new pedagogical models and new classroom methodologies and activities that enable teachers to integrate technology into the classroom. We will also look at differentiation strategies in the classroom: How can the use of technology enable teachers to give different tasks to different students, facilitating their individual learning styles and helping them to achieve their individual goals?

While this wealth of possibilities is empowering for learners, it can often feel challenging for teachers—especially those in educational cultures where teachers are traditionally dominant. We will look at the new digital knowledge and digital competences that language teachers need in order to enhance their existing pedagogical skills. We will then consider how teachers can identify their strengths and weaknesses in digital competence areas by mapping themselves against a digital competence framework. We will conclude by considering how new training and resources can be planned, linking where appropriate to assessment of the skills gained.

DIGITAL LEARNING—IT IS NOT ABOUT TECHNOLOGY BUT PEDAGOGY

What is digital learning? It is the application of digital technology to the teaching and learning of any subject, but in this chapter we will focus only on language learning. Digital technology has been used in language learning for many years, starting with computer-assisted language learning from the 1980s onward. However, too much emphasis is often given to looking at the technology behind digital learning. It is not the technology, but the pedagogy that makes digital learning interesting to us as educators and to teachers and learners who are trying to achieve the most successful outcomes. Or as Fullan and Quinn (2015) note, "pedagogy is the driver, technology is the accelerator" (p. 82). It is clear that digital learning needs to be pedagogically led, and thus the key differentiators for success are the identification of digital competences that teachers need and the provision of training to help them acquire these competences. This insight has led to the development

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of the Cambridge English Digital Framework for Teachers (Cambridge, 2016).

The following useful definition from the Digital Now Foundation helps us focus on the main benefits of digital learning: "Digital Learning is learning facilitated by technology that gives students some element of control over time, place, pathway and pace" (Digital Learning Now, 2014, p. 5). It is this aspect of student autonomy—of students' control over the way that they can access, structure, organize, and control their learning—that is most beneficial to the learner and to the teacher. We will return to the concept of control over time, place, pathway, and pace when we look at the pedagogical implications of digital learning.

DIGITAL LITERACY

Digital literacy normally refers to the range of skills that technology users need to have not only in order to operate equipment and software, but also in order to understand what the potential uses of technology might be. Digital literacy includes "the individual and social skills needed to effectively interpret, manage, share and create meaning in the growing range of digital communication channels" (Hockly, Dudeney, & Pegrum, 2013, p. 2). For the purposes of this chapter, we will focus only on the digital literacy of teachers, considering what digital teachers need to know in order to be digitally literate in a manner that enhances their teaching and supports the learning of the students.

Digital learning is here to stay. It brings so many advantages to learners by increasing access to learning opportunities and by improving equity in terms of how disadvantaged students can access knowledge and learning. It provides ubiquity to learning, helps students develop autonomous and independent learning, improves the reach of learning opportunities across society, and promotes the sustainability of education by providing learning opportunities at lower cost to a wider range of the population.

However, the current situation in schools is not as positive as it should be, as outlined by an OECD (2015) report:

> Schools and education systems are, on average, not ready to leverage the potential of technology. Gaps in the digital skills of both teachers and students, difficulties in locating high-quality digital learning resources from among a plethora of poor-quality ones, a lack of clarity on learning goals, and insufficient pedagogical preparation for blending technology meaningfully into lessons and curricula, create a wedge between expectations and reality.
>
> (p. 190)

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It is clear, therefore, that the major focus of institutions wishing to offer digital learning needs to be on the skill set of the digital teacher.

WHAT DO DIGITAL TEACHERS NEED?

What do teachers need to know? Digital teachers need new competencies, new knowledge, and new activities in the classroom in order to make the best use of the new digital technologies. They need to know what digital learning means, and they need to develop the confidence to understand and implement it in their classrooms. We must remember that it is the skill of teachers that makes digital learning work: "'Computers' don't teach kids, teachers do" (Trucano, 2015).

To build those skills, teachers need to identify the skills and the professional development required. They need a source of guidance, a framework that outlines what those skills comprise, and they need a source for the training and professional development input: "To build teacher professionalism, policymakers and the profession itself must establish clearly and concisely what teachers are expected to know and be able to do" (OECD, 2016, p. 3).

In digital learning, the role of teachers is different. They become facilitators and guides rather than instructors:

> The teacher is just as engaged as the learners in online activities. She guides learners through the process of discovery, understanding, and knowledge construction. As a facilitator and/or guide, the teacher helps learners recognize their goals…. [T]he teacher is a participant in the learning process.
>
> (Vai & Sosulski, 2016, p. 83)

NEW PEDAGOGICAL MODELS

Digital teachers need to know about the new range of pedagogical models open to them. These models include blended learning, mobile learning, adaptive learning, the flipped classroom, one-to-one (1:1) classrooms, and personalized learning. Each of these models makes some use of digital learning technologies, drawing on the features that the technology can offer—features that are now commonly called *affordances*. It is beyond the remit of this chapter to define each of these new pedagogical models, but it is clear that teachers and trainers preparing new teachers for the future need to ensure that a basic knowledge of these models is part of their professional repertoire.

Digital teachers need to be able to select which of a number of pedagogical models and

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associated methodologies and activities will provide the best learning context for their students. Doing so will normally entail creating a combination of pedagogical models, mixing both formal learning in the classroom and informal learning outside of the classroom. The mix will need to include a balance between peer and group activities using a constructivist and output-oriented approach and student self-study and self-directed learning activities with less access to the peer group and to output opportunity.

A key change in a pedagogical model for digital teachers is to understand the dynamics involved in taking more responsibility than in the past for the students' out-of-class learning experiences. Traditionally, teachers focused on preparing classroom lessons, possibly with some follow-up activities for homework. What is important now is that digital teachers focus more explicitly on what students access and engage with before the lesson, during the lesson, and after the lesson. This focus is important because of the lack of classroom time normally allocated to language learning, whether in a compulsory education context in a government school or in a private language school or university language center program. Typically, these nonintensive programs do not provide the number of hours necessary to develop fluency and accuracy to a high level. Thus, the two or four or six hours of classroom time per week need to be supplemented by 8 or 12 or 16 out-of-class hours of study, exposure to authentic language, and practice, all utilizing digital technology. Motteram (2013) calls this context "the extended classroom":

> An extended classroom is one that allows learners to engage in material beyond the regular class period.… We also see technologies being used to make it possible to cover areas of the curriculum that there is just not enough time for in the busy world of formal education.
>
> (p. 7)

This out-of-class focus implies, therefore, that one of the key competences of digital teachers is that they can design appropriate activities for the learner to engage with before and after the class as well as activities that are appropriate during the class. This focus also implies that digital teachers are aware of and can direct students to use different learning materials, learning technologies, smartphone apps, website resources, and so on. In essence, digital teachers are creating an individualized curriculum for digital learners. It may still be centered upon the classroom experience and classroom instruction, but it specifies and provides guidance for the activities both before and after the class that utilize the affordances and language content of the digital learning resources available.

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NEW DIGITAL LEARNING CHANNELS

Digital teachers need to know about the new digital learning channels that they can use to bring authentic language input and authentic language tasks to the learners, whether in groups or as individuals. In class they need to know how to operate an interactive whiteboard (IWB) and where to find the resources that are suitable for the IWB (see Rubadeau, 2017). They need to learn about digital textbooks and whether the digital or print version of a particular textbook would be most appropriate for their learners. Digital teachers need to consider whether the students should have individual tablets or laptops or phones at their disposal so that they can work individually and together on digitally enabled content. This approach might entail the school investing in tablets to produce a one-to-one classroom or creating a BYOD (bring your own device) policy so that students can use the equipment they already have but under the control and guidance of their teachers. The school may loan devices to students without their own.

Digital teachers need to know what kind of digital learning opportunities exist for the out-of-classroom activities that they feel should be included in the learning plan of students. They need to be able to recommend which smartphone apps students can use to practice their vocabulary. Or it might mean curating a list of websites that teachers recommend students utilize for grammar practice, reading comprehension, listening comprehension development with YouTube videos, or other resources. In some schools, this resource curation can be structured more easily if the school has invested in a learning management system (LMS). Digital teachers can then create or select from other sources the kind of activities that should be built into a structured study plan for the students to access through the LMS.

The concept of the one-to-one classroom, where all students have their own devices, such as tablets, has become very popular in certain locations, especially North America, South America, and Asia. One of the advantages of the one-to-one setup is the development of classroom management software, such as that developed by Netop, which allows teachers to manage and control each of the individual tablets around the classroom in real time by utilizing software installed on their own tablets. This management software allows them to remove distractions by, for example, blocking Facebook or blocking email access. It also allows teachers to divide the class into pairs and groups for more communicative activities. Teachers can broadcast learning material of any media type from their own tablets to each of the groups or individuals separately. Clearly this facility adds an extra set of skills and competencies to the requirements of a digital teacher.

One of the latest examples of digital learning is the new massive open online courses

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(MOOCs) that are being offered by universities across the world, for all sorts of different course topics, at zero or low cost. MOOCs lead to a democratization of learning and are having a dramatic effect on higher education. There is a wide range of providers, from famous organizations like Coursera, Udacity, and FutureLearn in the UK, to programs run by individual schools and universities. This new development is a prime example of what digital teachers need to know about, understand, and engage with in order to meet the needs of students in the future as well as at the present time. Digital teachers do not necessarily have to teach a MOOC, but they have to understand what it is and when they would recommend that students engage with such a learning opportunity.

Other digital learning channels include virtual communities like Busuu, Duolingo, and other websites that allow students to contact learners in other countries. They also permit remote teaching via videoconferencing or FaceTime in order to include students who are absent or sick, as well as the use of virtual classrooms, either live and synchronous (like Adobe Connect) or asynchronous (like Blackboard and other LMSs), and structured programs (like MOOCS).

Although it is not necessary for digital teachers themselves to learn the details of technologies that are utilized in digital learning, it is of course important that they are aware of which technology tools and equipment can be employed. In addition to using IWBs, teachers need to know how to set up a simple projector and white wall system so that digital content can be accessible in schools that do not have the budget for IWBs.

New developments in technology tools include small hand-sized projectors that clip onto a smartphone so that teachers can take digital content from room to room without having to have a complex technological setup available in the school. Similarly, there are offline servers, such as the Cambridge Class Server, which provide a full and completely independent Wi-Fi network with classroom management software, learning material storage, and everything needed to set up a digital learning network inside a classroom that does not itself have either technology or connectivity available. Other new display technologies are being trialed in North America, such as a whiteboard that automatically transmits anything that is written on the board directly to the students' tablets or phones so the teacher's writing is mirrored and can be saved for future reference on the students' devices.

A very popular tool is the personal response system (PRS) that allows teachers to give quizzes, surveys, or exercises that require multiple-choice answers and to set this up as a live activity so that all the students choose an answer or vote at the same time. The results of the entire class's selections are shown on the screen in real time. This activity is

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a very motivating way to do reinforcement activities after a particular lesson segment or to motivate students by involving them in sharing their opinions and ideas. The PRS system is simply a free app that students download onto their devices and which connects to a website set up by the teacher.

TEACHER COMPETENCE FRAMEWORKS

A teacher competence framework, or professional development framework, is a document or online repository of competence statements expressed either in can-do statements, as in the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), or in more informal language. The set of competences aims to give a comprehensive list of the knowledge, skills, and awareness of a subject that teachers need to have available to them in order to be professionally competent and effective. The framework's overall aim is to define effective teaching broadly around three areas that work together:

1. What teachers need to know;

2. What teachers should be able to do in putting that knowledge into practice; and

3. The resources and tools teachers use in doing so.

Cambridge English Language Assessment, the British Council, and EAQUALS (2013) have all developed teaching frameworks and jointly produced a document setting out what they have in common:

> Why is it useful to have a professional development framework? Other professions have used frameworks to create well-established definitions of expertise, measurable outcomes and greater accountability. In education it is important that teachers can take control of their own development priorities.
>
> (British Council, 2016)

The teacher competence framework is intended as a guide and support for teachers who can assess their own skills against the theoretical framework and self-assess their strengths and weaknesses. It is also used by trainers to evaluate the needs of teachers they are training. The Cambridge English Teaching Framework therefore provides a set of competences and skill descriptors. It is an evidence-based competence framework based on extensive research. In addition to surveying teachers and trainers around the world about their competence knowledge and needs, the research team behind the Cambridge English framework collected a large amount of teacher assessment data from training programs delivering Cambridge English teaching qualifications "including assessors' reports of lesson

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observations on pre-service (CELTA) and in-service (ICELT and Delta) courses" (Cambridge English, 2016).

The resulting framework created a system of competences at four levels of career and expertise development mapped against five categories of competence, such as "learning and the learner" and "teaching learning and assessment." **Figure 4.1** shows an overview of the framework of competences in a matrix. There are four stages of a teacher's career development and five categories of knowledge and skill at each stage for a total of 20 categories, as shown in the figure.

Each of the 20 categories has subcategories consisting of a number of competency statements. Teachers can drill down and map themselves against the competencies in these subcategories, assessing themselves against a total of over 100 competency statements. These can be seen in detail online at www.cambridgeenglish.org/teaching-english/cambridge-english-teaching-framework/.

Teachers and trainers can assess (or self-assess) the competencies of an individual at different career stages against the framework competency statements. They can then produce evaluations that suggest deficits and guide the design and selection of future study and training components. This self-assessment can be done interactively online using a tool that stores the assessment of each competency and produces a personalized and printable profile of the teacher's strengths and weaknesses.

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Excerpted from *Digital Language Learning and Teaching: Research, Theory, and Practice*

	Foundation	Developing	Proficient	Expert
Learning and the Learner	* Has a basic understanding of some language learning concepts. * Demonstrates a little of this understanding when planning and teaching.	* Has a reasonable understanding of many language-learning concepts. * Demonstrates some of this understanding when planning and teaching.	* Has a good understanding of many language-learning concepts. * Demonstrates some of this understanding when planning and teaching.	* Has a sophisticated understanding of language-learning concepts. * Consistently demonstrates this understanding when planning and teaching.
Teaching, Learning and Assessment	* Has a basic understanding of some key principles of teaching, learning and assessment. * Can plan and deliver simple lessons with a basic awareness of learners' needs, using core teaching techniques. * Can use available tests and basic assessment procedures to support and promote learning.	* Has a reasonable understanding of many key principles of teaching, learning and assessment. * Can plan and deliver lessons with some awareness of learners needs, using a number of different teaching techniques. * Can design simple tests and use some assessment procedures to support and promote learning.	* Has a good understanding of key principles of teaching, learning and assessment. * Can plan and deliver detailed lessons with good awareness of learners' needs, using a wide range of teaching techniques. * Can design effective tests and use a range of assessment procedures to support and promote learning.	* Has a sophisticated undertanding of key principles of teaching, learning, and assessment. * Can plan and deliver detailed and sophisticated lessons with a thorough understanding of learners' needs, using comprehensive range of teaching techniques. * Can design a range of effective tests and use individualized assessment procedures consistently to support and promote learning.
Language Ability	* Provides accurate examples of language points taught at A1 and A2 levels. * Uses basic classroom language which is mostly accurate.	* Provides accurate examples of language points taught at A1, A2 and B1 levels. * Uses classroom language which is mostly accurate.	* Provides accurate examples of language points taught at A1, A2 and B1 levels. * Uses classroom language which is consistently accurate throughout the lesson.	* Provides accurate examples of language points taught at A1-C2 and levels. * Uses a wide range of classroom language which is consistently accurate throughout the lesson.
Language Knowledge and Awareness	* Is aware of some key terms for describing language. * Can answer simple learner questions with the help of reference materials.	* Has reasonable knowledge of many key terms for describing language. * Can answer most learner questions with the help of reference materials.	* Has good knowledge of key terms for describing language. * Can answer most learner questions with minimal use of reference materials.	* Has sophisticated knowledge of key terms for describing language. * Can answer most learner questions in detail with minimal use of reference materials.
Professional Development and Values	* Can reflect on a lesson with guidance and learn from feedback. * Requires guidance in self-assessing own needs.	* Can reflect on a lesson without guidance and respond positively to feedback. * Can self-assess own needs and identify some areas for improvement.	* Can reflect critically and actively seeks feedback. * Can identify own strengths and weaknesses as a teacher, and can support other teachers.	* Consistently reflects critically, observes other colleagues and is highly committed to professional development. * Is highly aware of own strengths and weaknesses, and actively supports the development of other teachers.

Figure 4.1 · The Cambridge English Teaching Framework Categories

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THE CAMBRIDGE ENGLISH DIGITAL FRAMEWORK RESEARCH

The successful development and application of these teacher competence frameworks led the research team to identify that one key area was not fully covered by the core framework, namely the new competences required by the field of digital learning. As a result, a group of digital learning experts analyzed the component skills of teaching using technology and drafted a set of competences that teachers would need.

THE PROBLEM

Many teachers feel confused and often overwhelmed by the options available for incorporating technology into their lessons. The resulting lack of confidence they have in being able to use digital resources to enhance teaching and learning can be due to pressure from institutions, students, edtech marketing efforts, peers, and society in general.

THE SOLUTION

Cambridge English decided that a framework related specifically to digital competencies for language teachers and their trainers would be the best first step to solving this problem. This framework would generate some structure and sense of progression and would allow for all future training (from Cambridge English and other providers) to be linked to the digital skills that teachers need. Due to the specific digital nature of the framework, it would sit alongside the existing Cambridge English Teaching Framework rather than be incorporated into it.

The team set up the initial organizational structure and began by writing components and descriptions for a small segment of the framework. This version (version 0.1) was tested with a number of education experts who had relevant experience and could offer advice and also with a range of teachers, the intended users of the product, who would hopefully use the framework. What was learned from the feedback on version 0.1 really helped to shape the framework and the direction that it has taken in its revised form.

The revised draft posits a new set of six categories of competence, summarized in Table 4.1: (1) knowledge related to the digital world, (2) skills and knowledge for digital language teaching, (3) professional development, (4) designing learning, (5) delivering learning, and (6) evaluating learning.

Within these six categories are 25 components or subcategories, such as digital citizenship, sourcing materials, and preparing learners for digital lessons, as set out in Table 4.1.

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Table 4.1 · The Digital Framework Categories and Subcategories

The Digital Framework for Teachers is organized into six categories. Each category is made up of a number of components. Choose a component to assess your level and learn more about key concepts that relate to it (Cambridge English, 2016).		
The Wider Digital World	*The Digital Language Teaching Context*	*Designing Learning*
Productivity	Online learning	Sourcing and evaluating materials
Information management	Principles	Collating and curating
Digital citizenship	Approaches and methodologies	Developing materials
Legal issues	Improving language proficiency	Lesson planning
Digital welfare and safety	Improving language knowledge and awareness	Course planning
	Face-to-face learning	
Delivering Learning	*Evaluating Learning*	*Professional Development*
Setting up and managing a face-to-face learning environment	Assessing learning	Reflection and development in a digital environment
Setting up and managing a digital learning environment	Evaluating materials and delivery	Being part of a professional community
Preparing learners for digital lessons and courses		
Responding to learners		
Communication and interaction		

Drilling down from these six categories and their 25 subcategories, the framework then provides over 100 detailed competency statements. Taking one competence as an example, the four stages of progression are developed as shown in **Table 4.2**.

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Table 4.2 · Extract from the Digital Framework for Teachers

Category: The digital language teaching context Subcategory: Approaches and methodologies	
Awareness	I am aware of a few of the better-known approaches and methodologies for digital learning (e.g., blended learning, self-study), but I may not be able to clearly articulate their impacts on teaching and learning.
Understanding	I am familiar with some of the key ways in which digital tools and resources bring about changes to the way teachers structure learning, and I am aware of some of the better known approaches and methodologies for digital learning (e.g., blended learning, flipped classroom).
	I can describe some of the ways that these approaches and methodologies impact teaching and learning and the contexts in which they might be appropriate.
Habit	I can apply a range of different educational approaches and methodologies (e.g., constructivism, connectivism) to my own teaching context, and I understand the way they are impacted by digital tools, resources, and trends.
	I have a good understanding of the different contexts in which certain approaches and methodologies are likely to have a more positive impact on intended learning outcomes.
	I can provide advice and basic training to others on the best methodologies and approaches for their teaching situations.
Mastery	I have a detailed understanding of the ways that digital technologies are impacting pedagogies, methodologies, and approaches, and the various impacts that these changes have on teaching and learning.
	I can clearly articulate the relative merits of a certain approach or methodology for a certain context, learner, or group.
	I keep up to date with new technology and can identify potential impacts of changes on teaching.
	I share knowledge and best practice with peers, and I encourage interest in exploring the ways the digital technology impacts language teaching and learning.
	I can create and implement strategies and policies across a school or organization based on the best methodologies and approaches for various teaching situations.

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KEY CONCEPTS

In addition to providing a set of competencies that can be used to assess teachers' knowledge and skills, the Digital Framework also has a crucial training function and provides input on the range of concepts that are integral to digital learning. These concepts include, for example, accessibility, adaptive learning, advertiser-funding metadata, aggregate data, asynchronous learning, blended learning, blended learning cycle, BYOD, cloud computing, and content management systems (CMSs) (Cambridge English, 2016). The concepts are explained as part of the framework documents, which can be found at http://teachwithdigital.org.

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DIGITAL TRAINING FOR TEACHERS

It is clear from an analysis of the digital framework that many teachers would need to add new competences, or improve their current competences, in order to meet all the criteria in the higher stages (e.g., mastery) of the framework. It is therefore vital for the success of digital learning that teachers can access such training either in preservice training or in-service professional development so they have the knowledge, skills, and awareness of theories, practices, and tools of digital learning. To encourage engagement and avoid the resistance that is often found in teachers faced with integrating technology into their teaching (see Rubadeau, 2017), it is also important that teachers gain professional and even monetary recognition for this
type of training so that they will be motivated to invest time in courses.

What is needed is a mix of short and inexpensive courses alongside longer, academically certified courses at master's and certificate levels. Indeed, various universities already offer Master's programs in this field, such as "Digital Technologies, Communication and Education" (Manchester) and "Digital Learning and Teaching" (North Carolina State). Some degree programs are themselves delivered online and provide the theoretical and the practical basis for the application of digital learning.

For many teachers and institutions, shorter and more targeted development may be preferable. This training can be focused on each component of the framework, making it possible for each competence to be developed and assessed.

To make such training accessible and affordable, it is preferable to deliver it online—that is, digital learning programs delivered by digital learning platforms. Online training is not only easier for teachers who cannot take time off work, but it also creates a kind of "loop input" (Woodward, 1988, p. 23) that will help teachers use the same technology with their students. "Loop input is a specific type of experiential teacher training process that involves an alignment of the process and content of learning" (Woodward, 2003, p. 301). That is, the teachers are trained using the same pedagogical activity or methodology that they will be expected to use with their students.

Some courses already exist, including those offered by specialist training organizations. For instance, ELTjam offers programs such as "Essential Digital Pedagogy" (ELTjam, 2016), and The Consultants-E offers programs such as "Teaching Live Online" (The Consultants-E, 2016).

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WHAT IS NEXT?

Digital learning is a rapidly growing and developing field. New types of digital technology and pedagogical applications for language learning are becoming available and will continue to provide new and more varied activity types in and out of the classroom. It will be the responsibility of language teachers and trainers of language teachers to be able to evaluate and engage with these new aspects of digital learning for the benefit of their students.

There are a number of competence frameworks available for language teachers that increasingly have digital learning components, and policymakers, administrators, and teacher trainers need to be aware of this set of CPD (continuing professional development) tools. These frameworks can help teachers to analyze their strengths, weaknesses, and development needs to enable them to provide digital learning and maximize student learning outcomes. To make this analysis worthwhile, teachers need to have opportunities for further development programs in order to take advantage of the affordances of digital learning and build their personal digital literacy.

CONCLUSIONS

Digital learning is here to stay. It is highly unlikely that in the next 5, 10, or 20 years the use of technology support inside and outside the classroom will diminish rather than increase.

The increase in digital learning means that teachers need new skills, competencies, and access to training and development. Teachers need to develop the competencies that comprise digital literacy in order to take advantage of what technology enhancement and enabling can provide.

Institutions need to fund the necessary training, research, and experimentation in pedagogy and technology use. Trainers need to plan teachers' initial preservice and in-service professional development according to a scaffolding structure, such as the Digital Framework for Teachers described previously.

Above all, teachers of all types should embrace the new approaches to learning and teaching that digital technology makes available, maintaining a sense of curiosity and creativity toward new approaches rather than skepticism.

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Excerpted from *Digital Language Learning and Teaching: Research, Theory, and Practice*

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INSIGHTS FROM LANGUAGE SOCIALIZATION RESEARCH IN A NINTH-GRADE PHYSICS CLASSROOM

Sarah Braden and
MaryAnn Christison

Global Perspectives on Language Education Policies

Edited by
JoAnn (Jodi) Crandall and
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Sarah Braden and MaryAnn Christison

The number of English learners (ELs) in grades K12 in public schools in the United States is close to five million, which is about one learner in nine, and demographers estimate that in 20 years it is likely be one in four learners (Goldberg, 2008, p. 10). ELs have lower standardized test scores and lower high school graduation rates than their native-English-speaking peers (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Furthermore, language minority students, including ELs, are underrepresented in STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) fields. Equity in access to STEM degrees and professions is a social justice issue that carries economic implications (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2011). As the demographics in the United States change to include more individuals from language minority backgrounds in the workforce (Cohn & Caumont, 2016), it has become imperative to ensure equitable access to STEM careers. Despite the need for science and language education policy that is responsive to the needs of linguistically diverse students, current policy efforts from both science- and language-based perspectives continue to fall short of this goal.

In this chapter, we demonstrate that an inadequate focus on language in the development of STEM expertise leaves even highly qualified teachers ill-prepared to work with ELs. In addition, English as a second language (ESL) endorsement programs that fail to engage mainstream teachers with language socialization issues (i.e., "the process by which individuals acquire the knowledge and practices that enable them to participate effectively in a language community" (Longman, 2008, p. 490) will fall short in helping teachers meet the needs of ELs in science classrooms.

ISSUES THAT MOTIVATED THE RESEARCH

In the United States, there are no national policies regarding the education of science, technology, engineering, and math teachers. Individual states create teacher licensure requirements and have their own processes for developing content standards and administering standardized tests. In the absence of explicit policy on how to educate U.S. science teachers and in the context of teacher accountability through high-stakes testing, content standards have become the guiding principles around which teachers are educated and evaluated. The absence of explicit standards for teaching the language of science means that science teachers are likely underprepared to teach the language of their disciplines.

Although there are no national policies that govern the teaching of science, the National Research Council (NRC) outlined a framework for science education in 2011. Although the NRC framework advocates for teacher performance expectations to be developed based

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on a knowledge of diverse learners' backgrounds and language proficiency levels, the Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS) (NGSS Lead States, 2013), which are based on the NRC framework, do not contain an explicit language focus. Thus, the use of the NGSS with diverse learners requires that teachers already know how to accommodate ELs in their classrooms. The inclusion of scientific practices (e.g., asking questions, planning and carrying out investigations, constructing explanations) is one of the core dimensions of NGSS. However, the language demands of scientific practices are complex (Lee, Quinn, & Valdés, 2013), and without specific training or attention to the linguistic components of these practices, teachers are not likely to recognize and effectively respond to the language demands facing ELs as they engage in these practices.

Although teachers' knowledge of language is an important factor in improving STEM outcomes for ELs, it is also true that "the school context—its culture and conditions—matters just as much, if not more" (National Research Council, 2011, p. 23). Carlone, Haun-Frank, and Webb (2011) found that for African American and Latina fourth-grade girls, the fact that they were earning good grades on science assessments was not enough for them to identify as "smart science students" (p. 461). In order to help ELs affiliate with science, researchers and teachers must understand how students are positioned socially as they develop the conceptual and linguistic knowledge that is required for success in science classrooms.

The research presented in this chapter analyzes linguistic practices that occurred during inquiry tasks (i.e., tasks that pose questions or problems rather than present a set of facts) in three lab sessions in a ninth-grade physics classroom. To interpret the linguistic practices of the six lab participants, we used Braden's (2016) descriptions of three prominent classroom identities: (1) the science expert, (2) the good student, and (3) the good assistant. According to Braden, students who developed identities as science experts used specific linguistic practices to articulate positions of expertise by issuing directives to their peers, strategically ignoring peer comments, evaluating peer performances, and controlling materials. Those pupils articulating good student positions used similar communicative strategies to those of the science experts, but rather than attending to science content, they focused on ensuring other students followed the teacher's instructions, staying on task, and understanding the actions of the science expert. In contrast, students who developed identities as good assistants participated in lab groups by following their peers' commands, asking for permission from peers before manipulating materials, and abstaining from verbal participation in science content conversations. As we examine the linguistic practices of the participants across the three labs, we focus on Sofia, the EL among the participants, to determine how she was socialized into her role as

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a good assistant rather than a science expert. We take this stance because in order to help ELs learn language and science content—and to affiliate with science—researchers, policymakers, and teachers must understand the important role that social positioning plays in the development of the conceptual and linguistic knowledge in STEM.

CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH

Science for All Academy (hereafter referred to as SFAA) is a small, district-run public charter school in a mid-sized city situated in the western United States. The school serves students in Grades 6–12 and offers a rigorous science-focused curriculum. All students spend extra time in science classes and have a greater number of science credits required upon graduation than the minimum set by the state. In the 2014–2015 school year, the school reported a student population that identified as 47% White, 37% Hispanic, 6% Pacific Islander, 5% African American, 3% Multiracial, and 1% Asian. In addition, the school reported that 8% of students were classified as ELs.

The ninth-grade classroom that served as the site for this research was led by a teacher who had 10 years of teaching experience and bachelor's and master's degrees in physics education, as well as state licensure in physics and an ESL endorsement. Mr. Henderson (a pseudonym) had also won numerous awards for physics teaching.

The three lab groups were made up of six students who participated with one another in different configurations across the three labs: (1) Sofia, an EL from the Dominican Republic; (2) Rose, a Spanish-English bilingual Latina student from a non-affluent family; (3) Henry, a White middle-class male with parents who are scientists; (4) Alexis, a Biracial student from a non-affluent family; (5) Andrea, a bilingual Latina student with exceptional grades but non-scientist parents; and (6) Candace, a White middle-class student with parents who are both scientists. Henry, Alexis, and Candace were all native English speakers.

The focal participant of the research was Sofia. At the time of data collection, she was in her first year at SFAA and was designated an EL by the school as a result of language testing. Her socialization pathway was intricately connected to a student called Rose, who was present in all of the labs. Sofia often relied on Rose and another bilingual student, Andrea (present in Lab 3 only), to translate both linguistic and cultural information for her.

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RESEARCH QUESTIONS ADDRESSED

Two research questions motivated the study.

1. What pathway of socialization does one EL undergo while participating in science inquiry labs?

2. What language and education policies directly and indirectly shape the EL's socialization pathway?

RESEARCH METHODS

The research methodology for this study employed both ethnographic and discourse analytic methods. In this section, we discuss our data collection and analysis procedures.

DATA COLLECTION

Data were collected weekly with one to three visits per week for seven months. Data sources included field notes, audio and video recordings of whole class and small group discussions, interviews with the teacher and students, and artifacts (e.g., copies of student work and photos of lab set-ups.). From over 200 hours of audio and video recordings, a corpus of 19 hours of classroom interaction was created for detailed discourse analysis. The corpus data were spread across three different inquiry tasks that were undertaken by students in the labs. The results presented here focus on the data from the discourse corpus.

DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES USED

Data were analyzed using an iterative process (Glesne, 2011), and discourse was analyzed following the methods outlined by Wortham and Reyes (2015) for conducting discourse analysis within and across speech events. This process allowed us to identify links or pathways in social and linguistic activity across the three labs.

In order to answer Research Question 1, the data in the discourse corpus that involved Sofia were identified, and the interactions in which she was present were tagged according to participants' orientations to the three identity models. The discourse was subjected to a detailed analysis to identify and trace Sofia's pathway of socialization both within each of the labs and across the lab tasks. To answer Research Question 2, Sofia's pathway was reexamined to determine how it was shaped, both directly and indirectly, by the teacher's pedagogical choices and by policy.

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FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Sofia predominately exhibited practices of the good assistant and good student and did not occupy the science expert role in any of these labs. The following sections describe her participation in the three labs, showing how these data were used to answer the research questions. These data also show how the teacher directly and indirectly influenced the opportunities Sofia had for language and content learning during inquiry tasks.

LAB 1—MODELING NEWTON'S LAW OF GRAVITATION

In Lab 1, students modeled the inverse square relationship ($1/x^2$) found in Newton's Law of Gravitation by varying the distance of a light source from a device designed to measure or approximate a reading of light intensity. In this model, students determined the relationship between the variables of distance and light intensity as a metaphor for thinking about the relationship between distance and the gravitational force of attraction between two objects.

Sofia consistently participated in the role of a good assistant in this lab by listening to her peers and retrieving materials for them when they expressed a need. She was often silent during discussions with all group members, but she did participate in one-to-one conversations with Rose. To understand some of the language socialization processes for Sofia, a dialogue with four of the participants is presented in Extract 1. The transcription conventions used for the extracts appear in **Figure 5.1**.

Symbol	Meaning	Symbol	Meaning
H	Henry	-	self-interruption; break in the word, sound abruptly cut off
A	Alexis	(p.p)	measured pause of greater than 0.5 seconds
S	Sofia	@	laughter; each token marks one pulse
R	Rose	[]	overlapping speech
.	end of intonation unit; falling intonation	()	uncertain transcription
,	end of intonation unit; fall-rise intonation	#	unintelligible; each token marks one syllable
?	end of intonation unit; rising intonation	< >	transciber comment, nonvocal noise, gesture, or gaze
=	latching; no pause between intonation units		

Figure 5.1 · Transcription Conventions

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As the dialogue in Lab 1 begins, students are constructing the light box for the experiment.

Extract 1

9.   H: Wenh wenh wenh wenh wenh wenh, I feel like maybe we should get another

10.   piece cause this isn't very flat especially when it's up there. No so we could like get

11.   a piece of this paper and get like make our own paper. Or we could even just write

12.   it, put it on the paper that's a good idea.

13.   A: What is @@? =

14.   H: =Get=

15.   A: =You keep changing your mind @@ [as you're talking to me. <*smiling*>

16.   H: [@   sorry. I'm sorry.

17.   A: It's like or maybe we should or maybe hunh? mm that's a good idea <*funny*

18.   voice>

19.   H: wow <talking quietly to self>

20.   R: Lost. (1.0) Can I make the little box thing?

21.   H: Wow w-well you could make a b-a square. You wanna make a square?

22.   R: @@ yay making a square @@

23.   H: Yay making squares ow.

24.   A: Ow @@

25.   H: Ow

26.   A: Ow

27.   H: O:w (4.5) could you just cut, see where this mark is?

28.   R: No I don't.

29.   H: Cut that like that and the[n:

30.   R: [Where's the other mark. Isn't it that one?

31.   H: Wait there yeah.

32.   R: [Okay

33.   H: [Just cut it, cut a square out.

34.   R: ## scissors ##

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35. S: Okay I will get

36. R: Hunh?

37. H: Say what?

38. S: I will get the scissors. ## okay?

A number of factors point to Sofia's positioning as a good assistant in this interaction. First, she does not speak until Line 35, allowing the other students to talk about the light box they are constructing. When Sofia does speak, it is clear that she had been listening to her peers because she offers to collect scissors for the group in Lines 35 and 38. Although this task represents some level of participation, there is no indication that Sofia is participating in the negotiation of science concepts, and she does not use any lab-related technical vocabulary. To understand what might have prevented Sofia from participating in other ways in this interaction, it is important to study the interaction among all four participants.

Henry occupies the position of science expert, as he thinks aloud about how to modify the light box (Lines 9–12). Alexis uses the pronoun "me" in Line 15, indicating that she and Henry are aligned in a conversation that excludes Rose and Sofia. When Rose indicates that she is "Lost" (in Line 20), neither Henry nor Alexis respond to her. She follows the statement about being lost with a request to be included by making "the little box thing" (Line 23). In this way, Rose is trying to take up a good assistant position in the group as a way of actively participating in the lab despite not having control over the task. Sofia observed these interactions and many similar ones over the course of Lab 1. To participate in a conversation about the science content of the lab, Sofia would have had to force herself into a conversation to which she was not being invited.

LAB 2—MEASURING ELECTROSTATIC FORCE

In Lab 2, students measured the electrostatic force between a packet of salt and a balloon charged with static electricity. Sofia worked with Rose and Henry in this lab as well; however, rather than allowing her peers to characterize her only as a good assistant, there were moments in Sofia's interactions in which she attempted to be recognized as a good student by her peers. In Extract 2, Sofia participates as a good student by engaging with Rose as she lowers the balloon over a packet of salt and, later, by giving Rose instructions.

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Extract 2

72. H: You zero it no yeah. Yup okay. No! [you don't touch it to the envelope ## things

73. R: [A::::::::h!

74. S: [A::::::::h!

75. H: M-maybe hold it like this

76. S and/or R: We tried that
    ---Deleted one line, non-group member comment---

78. R: How much salt did you put in there?

79. H: Ah I don't know, I don't think it matters. Like that much I mean you can't put a

80. ton in.

81. R: It is so hard.

82. S: Do it fast.

83. R: The hardest

84. H: Do it like all around

85. S: Yeah

86. H: Not just like that.

87. R: I know I am but it's pretty hard.

88. H: Don't don't let it touch anything.

In Lines 72–74, Henry instructs Rose not to touch the charged balloon to the salt packet because this action would transfer the charge from the balloon to the packet. When Rose accidentally touches the balloon to the packet, Sofia's overlapping exclamation in Line 74 indicates that she follows the logic. In Line 76, the use of "we" aligns Rose and Sofia, indicating that they are working together. Sofia's participation in the lab by working with Rose initially and by giving instructions to Rose (Line 82) indicates that Sofia participated in Lab 2 differently when compared to Lab 1. Despite demonstrating that she had the ability to participate in collaborative behaviors and issue commands, practices which align more with the good student or science expert identities, she was not able to maintain this type of participation throughout her lab experiences. For example, after the command Sofia issues to Rose in Line 82, Henry quickly assumes the science expert role. Despite some moves that showed she was capable of good student and science expert participation, Sofia still did not participate as a science expert in this lab. Participating as a science expert would have required her to compete for this role with Henry, who identified himself as a science expert across the different lab tasks.

LAB 3—MEASURING THE SPEED OF A WAVE

In Lab 3, students measured the speed of a wave traveling through a rope that was suspended between two table legs. Two accelerometers were attached to the rope and a hand-held lab computer with a fixed distance between them. In this lab, Sofia again participated as a good student and a good assistant while she worked with Rose. Andrea and Candace participated as science experts in this group. Early in the lab Sofia held the lab computer but was unsure about changing the settings. She asked Andrea, "Do we have to go to rate to change it?" Andrea responded, "You know how to change it, right Candace?" After this exchange, Candace took the computer from Sofia and did not return it. As a result, Candace was the only student who had access to collecting the data and evaluating their quality. This interaction was pivotal in placing Candace in the position of science expert because her peers made adjustments to the lab setup as a result of Candace's interpretations of the data. Candace's prior knowledge of how to manipulate the lab computer allowed her to accumulate additional science expertise that was denied to the other members of the group who did not view or manipulate the lab computer. Although Sofia demonstrated interest in learning how to use the lab computer by asking how to change a setting at the beginning of the lab, she was denied the opportunity to develop that expertise because of the way in which she was socialized by her peers.

An analysis of Sofia's participation in the three labs demonstrates that her disciplinary identity and related expertise were shaped by the interactions with her peers as she conformed to their expectations. The fact that Sofia was unable to articulate an identity as a science expert is important because students who occupy the role of science expert have an advantage over other students; they have opportunities to test out their scientific content knowledge, to instruct others, and to have firsthand access to data and lab equipment. Sofia did not voluntarily and regularly participate in classroom discourse; she only verbally participated in peer groups. This behavior is not unusual for ELs who often choose not to participate in whole class discussions. Consequently, the interaction among her peers in labs may be even more important for her content and language learning than is teacher-led instruction. The way in which Sofia was socialized by her peers to participate in peer groups as a non-expert had important implications for her in-the-moment learning and may also impact how she will see herself relative to STEM disciplines in making future career choices.

Although the interactions described in this chapter took place in peer groups in labs, it is important to remember that it was the teacher who played an important role in how his students were socialized in their lab groups because he created the lab assignments and also the classroom culture that supported the peer interactions that ultimately developed in the lab groups. The teacher indirectly facilitated the creation of the roles that students carried out in

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Excerpted from *Global Perspectives on Language Education Policies*

their lab groups by not providing an explicit structure for determining which students in the lab would take leadership roles and by not providing instruction on the specific language that students needed for collaborating and for conducting and carrying out the scientific investigations. As a result, students relied on their pre-existing expertise and on ways to collaborate with one another in their lab groups that together resulted in the reproduction of social hierarchies that already existed when the students entered the classroom.

IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY, PRACTICE, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

STEM education is of utmost importance in the United States and in developing countries throughout the world because modern economies revolve around expertise in STEM fields. To meet societal demands, local educational agencies, such as schools, strive to build stronger STEM curricula, as well as a strong core of STEM teachers. In these endeavors, strong teacher education programs for STEM teachers are vital. However, teacher education in STEM fields has traditionally focused on the need for teachers to develop high levels of content area expertise and some general pedagogical knowledge (e.g., planning lessons and using multi-media). These values are reflected in disciplinary standards and in the ways that teachers and their students are held accountable for science learning on standardized tests.

The data from the three labs show that language socialization plays a role in how high school students develop identities as science students and how they affiliate with the discipline. As Sofia's pathway in developing expertise as a science student was tracked and analyzed, it became apparent that the choices she made were in large part influenced by how she was socialized by her peers and by the lab practices that were put into play by her peers and her teacher. The teacher played a role in influencing and directing the language socialization pathways of the learners in his class. Although he was a highly qualified and experienced STEM teacher, his instructional practices demonstrated lack of awareness of his own potential for influencing the socialization pathways of his students. By not recognizing the important role he could play in helping students develop disciplinary language, the teacher had, unknowingly and against his desired outcomes, created an environment that enabled a subset of students to accumulate expertise as a result of the lab experiences, as opposed to creating labs in which all students were given the chance to develop expertise as scientists.

If the educational gaps are to be narrowed and more students from language minority backgrounds are to choose STEM professions, STEM teachers must be aware of the importance of disciplinary language and language socialization in their classrooms. The

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highly qualified teacher in this study met the state's requirements, but it was not enough to shift his attention to the ways in which language operated in his classroom. The standards that the teacher used to guide his instruction and for which he was held accountable by the state were not focused on the role of language in this particular science discipline. In addition, the ESL endorsement curriculum in the state does not provide explicit guidelines related to language socialization research. We argue that science content standards, such as NGSS, that focus teachers' attention on science practices and science content knowledge, should also include attention to science language. In addition, ESL endorsement programs that serve mainstream content-area teachers should include language socialization research in their curricula. Making these two policy changes would encourage teachers to develop an awareness of the role that language plays in constructing science knowledge and in influencing students' science-related identities.

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HOW TEACHER CONCEPTIONS OF ASSESSMENT MEDIATE ASSESSMENT LITERACY

A CASE STUDY OF A UNIVERSITY ENGLISH TEACHER IN CHINA

Yueting Xu

Global Perspectives on Language Assessment
Research, Theory, and Practice

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ISSUES THAT MOTIVATED THE RESEARCH

It is generally accepted that assessment connects teaching and learning because through assessment teachers would know whether what they teach has been learned. Therefore, the quality of assessment can affect how the quality of education is evaluated. Given that many assessments are conducted in the classroom by the teacher, teachers' competency in assessment, or assessment literacy (AL) is arguably critically important to the quality of assessment.

Teacher AL, however, is a complex concept that is influenced by multiple sources, such as mastery of theoretical principles, teacher conceptions of assessment, institutional issues, and larger sociocultural contexts (Xu & Brown, 2016). Among these factors, *teacher conceptions of assessment* (TCoA), a belief system that embraces all that teachers think about the nature and purpose of assessment (Thompson, 1992), is believed to be an important mediating factor of teacher AL. Regrettably, the relationship between the two has not been adequately investigated. This chapter, therefore, attempts to address this gap by exploring how TCoA mediate AL through a case study of a Chinese university English teacher's practice.

CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH

College English is a compulsory subject for non-English-major undergraduates in their first one or two years of university study. In College English, classroom assessment has been increasingly carried out, which is due in part to the downplay of importance of the College English Test Bands 4 and 6 as exit proficiency tests, and in part to the parallel position of formative and summative assessments prescribed by the *College English Curriculum Requirements* (CMoE, 2007). Hence, teachers arguably need to conduct assessments for both learning and accountability purposes.

The participating teacher (Rosa, a pseudonym) works in a university that specializes in technology and teacher education in a metropolitan city in southern China. She was chosen as one of the participants of a larger project on teacher assessment literacy mainly for the following reasons. First, she was one of the high performers in a previously administered test of AL, scoring two standard deviations higher than the average (Xu & Brown, 2017). Second, she had more than ten years of teaching experience. Third, she was a voluntary participant, teaching the course Comprehensive English to first-year undergraduate students in a large class of 50 students.

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THE NATURE OF TCOA

To understand the conjunction of teacher AL and conceptions of assessment, the nature of TCoA needs to be briefly outlined. Research shows that TCoA are both collective and personal. They are collective because teachers who work in the same sociocultural contexts are likely to hold similar conceptions. The influences can be exerted through policy priorities, multiple pressures from different stakeholders' interests, and social values and cultural traditions (Chen & Brown, 2013; Harris & Brown, 2009). TCoA are socially and culturally shared cognitive configurations or phenomena (van den Berg, 2002), acting as the "filter and foundation of new knowledge" (Kagan, 1992, p. 75).

Teacher conceptions of assessment are also personal because they arise from one's early experiences of educational processes (Pajares, 1992). Given individuals' diverse personal experiences, teachers in the same sociocultural contexts may display different conceptions of assessment. Understanding teachers as individuals means giving attention to their needs and prior experiences (DeLuca & Bellara, 2013), particularly when emotions associated with these assessment experiences are often negative (Stiggins, 1995). The co-existence of collective and personal dimensions suggests that teachers may simultaneously hold multiple and, at times, conflicting conceptions (Harris & Brown, 2009).

Understanding the nature of TCoA leads to two important issues to bear in mind when exploring their relationship with assessment literacy. First, given that TCoA are value-laden, teacher AL might not be value free, but built upon the same value system which underpins TCoA. Second, changes in TCoA may take longer than changes of assessment knowledge and skills, as they evolve along one's personal learning and teaching trajectory. This issue suggests that improving teacher AL may involve a very challenging process of transforming teachers' deeply-rooted conceptions of assessment.

PRIOR RESEARCH ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TCOA AND AL

Results of research on the relationship between AL and TCoA are inconclusive. Some studies have found that the amount and type of training in assessment was independent of the beliefs teachers had about the purposes of assessment (e.g., Brown, 2008), suggesting that perceptions might resist training. Others reported a positive relation between TCoA and AL (Levy-Vered & Alhija, 2015; Quilter & Gallini, 2000). Such discrepancies may be partly due to the different constructs of TCoA and AL examined in these studies. For example, Levy-Vered and Alhija's (2015) study defined AL as theoretical knowledge of assessment and measured it with the *Teacher Assessment Literacy Questionnaire* (Plake, Impara, & Fager, 1993), while Brown (2008) equated AL to assessment training over pre-service courses.

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Hill, Gunn, Cowie, Smith, and Gilmore (2014) addressed this controversy by probing into TCoA at the entry and the exit stages of a teacher education program, as well as the possible ways in which teacher education programs can scaffold teacher candidates' assessment knowledge and beliefs. Results show that their three-year program increased teacher candidates' confidence in using assessment and transformed their understanding of assessment from a student's to a teacher's perspective. Deneen and Brown (2016) concluded that to become an assessment-literate teacher requires necessary knowledge, skills, and beliefs that are appropriate to the context in which assessment is conducted. Assessment literacy is less likely to improve if teachers have negative feelings about assessment and/or if they are under great pressure to prioritize accountability over learning purposes.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS ADDRESSED

Two important messages can be summarized from the above review. First, TCoA are a complicated issue that is related to both personal and sociocultural factors. To understand it, we need to understand teachers' personal experiences and the larger sociocultural context in which they are situated. Second, the relationship between AL and TCoA has been controversial. How TCoA exert an influence on AL has remained under-explored. Thus, this study addressed these gaps by answering the following two research questions:

1. What are the case teacher's (Rosa's) conceptions of assessment?
2. How do Rosa's conceptions of assessment mediate her assessment literacy?

RESEARCH METHODS

The present research adopted a case study approach (Merriam, 2001) that is exploratory and descriptive in nature. It attempts to determine the "how" and "why" of the relationship between TCoA and AL, and to explore the situated, holistic, and integrated dynamism of the case that other research methods, such as surveys and experiments, do not usually provide. As such, a single case is sufficient to explore the depth and insights of a teacher's conceptions of assessment and their relationship with AL.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Given that TCoA and AL are constructs that are not directly observable but are embedded in what teachers say and do, classroom observations and interviews were chosen as the main means of data collection. The first and primary data source was classroom observations,

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specifically, 35 hours of video-recordings of Rosa's classroom practices, and my field notes. In total, 23 sessions were observed throughout the entire academic semester. Each 90-minute session was video-recorded.

The second data set comprised seven rounds of interviews with Rosa. Each interview lasted between 30 and 60 minutes and was audio-recorded and fully transcribed. The purpose of the interviews was to understand the underlying principles of Rosa's assessment practice, her conceptions of teaching, learning, and assessment, and her reflections on how her conceptions of assessment might influence her AL. The final transcripts were sent back to Rosa for her verification.

DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

A qualitative data analysis software, NVivo 9.0, was used to facilitate the data analysis. The key initial step was the reorganization of the observational data. All the video recordings were watched and re-watched. In NVivo 9.0, every 15-minute segment of video-recoding was summarized to describe what was observed as an episode. Additional ideas were added from the field notes. If the episode was related to the teacher's assessment practices and/or her conceptions of assessment underlying such practices, that episode was identified and extracted for further analyses. In total, 31 episodes from the classroom observations were identified and then fully transcribed. This process transformed the field texts into research texts, which were then analyzed.

The interview data were initially coded to assign meaning. In open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), each line of the interview data was coded by labeling the topic being described. The open codes were then subject to axial coding to identify relationships among them and to establish core categories that are closely related to the two research questions.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

ROSA'S CONCEPTIONS OF ASSESSMENT

Rosa's conceptions of assessment have stemmed from her earlier learning and teaching experience and have been influenced by her institutional and sociocultural contexts. Rosa has absorbed many doctrines advocated by Confucianism since she was young. Deeply convinced by the doctrine that "all was inferior to academic performance" (*wan ban jie xia pin, wei you du shu gao* in Chinese), Rosa and her family made her academic performance a top priority.

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Driven by the goal of being admitted by key universities, Rosa dedicated persistent efforts to her school work and outperformed her peers. To ensure that she would be fully devoted to study, her parents did not allow her to do any housework or develop an interest in music or sports. She concentrated on the three main subjects to be tested on the entrance exam to college (*Gaokao*): Chinese, mathematics, and English. Being one of the top students in her class, Rosa was expected to enroll in an elite university in China.

The high expectation from her teachers and family, however, created huge pressure that unfortunately she could not endure, and she ended up failing the most important exam in her life: the *Gaokao*. With her teachers' and parents' regretful acceptance, she was admitted to a three-year English teacher education program at a local community college. Rosa described her experiences as follows:

> "I was a victim of exams, suffering from different kinds of them. In the middle school, I never felt the joy of learning. I was always worrying about not securing the first place in exams. If I was the second place in any of the exams, I felt painful. That kind of feelings was stupid, but it was true."

The perception of being a victim of the exams reflects Rosa's misgivings about the exam-oriented educational system. Her emotional experience with assessment was not positive, due to the tremendous pressure to score high and secure a top spot. Her use of the word *stupid* to describe the painful experience of not being in the first place on exams indicates her resentment over the old way of assessment. This negative emotional experience with assessment apparently constituted part of Rosa's conceptions of assessment, which, in turn, influenced her assessment decision-making.

Entering college with a defeated self-image, Rosa soon found herself totally free in this new community: There was no pressure to excel on exams, but there were plenty of opportunities and time for her to try out new ideas and take part in different activities, such as joining a book club, being a leader in the student union, and playing a part in a drama festival. None of these activities hindered her study, as her parents had told her. Instead, they facilitated her all-around development. Upon her graduation with straight As in both curricular and co-curricular activities, she successfully pursued a master's degree in a well-respected university in a southern metropolitan city. After three years of graduate study, she became an English lecturer in University B (pseudonym) in the same city.

With 11 years of teaching experience in University B, Rosa had become a very committed teacher, constantly searching for effective methods to improve her pedagogy and assessment. Particularly, she volunteered to experiment with different kinds of

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assessment in her classroom to compare their effectiveness. Reflecting on why she proactively engaged in assessment innovations, Rosa attributed it to her self-image as a high-score, low-competency person.

> "My mindset was score-oriented. I think I am a high-score, low-competency kind of person. Frankly, when you talked about classroom assessment, I felt it was the panacea for the exam-oriented education. We need to assess students in an all-around way, not just test scores. Exam-oriented mindset is crazy."

This excerpt suggests that Rosa spared no effort in promoting classroom assessment because she wanted to prevent her students from having the educational experience she had. Yet Rosa was not adequately prepared in terms of assessment, as she did not take any formal course in educational assessment, which she regretted.

Researcher:	Did you receive any assessment training before and after you became a teacher?
Rosa:	In my M.A. program, there was a language testing course. But it was not a compulsory course, so I did not take it.
Researcher:	Why didn't you take this course?
Rosa:	It was too technical. Many jargons. Too hard for me to understand at that time. But now I regretted not taking it (laugh). It was at least an opportunity for systematic learning about it.
Researcher:	Did you have any other formal or informal training experience of assessment?
Rosa:	In some conferences I attended before, they talked about assessment and classroom assessments. I learned about some basic concepts, like summative and formative assessment. When I observed my colleagues' classes, I paid attention to their strategies. If their strategies were useful, I would try to use them in my class.
Researcher:	Do you need any assessment training?
Rosa:	Definitely. Now I regret not taking more courses about assessment theories. Input is very important.
Researcher:	What do you think should be part of the training?
Rosa:	I want to know more about how to plan and conduct classroom assessment.

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What can be inferred from this excerpt about Rosa's AL preparation is that (1) formal input of assessment principles in her pre-service teacher education was absent; (2) she learned about assessment by exposing herself to fragmented sections of assessment principles at academic conferences that were not necessarily tailored to her needs; (3) she learned practical assessment strategies from her colleagues; and (4) she had a great need for more formal assessment training, especially about how to conduct classroom assessment. These inferences indicate that Rosa's formal assessment training was insufficient, which prompted her to learn about assessment mainly through experience and from her colleagues.

In sum, Rosa's conceptions of assessment are mainly about her delineation of tests as an ultimate means of student assessment. These conceptions primarily derive from her own negative experiences as a victim of exam-oriented education, which was under the influence of the long testing tradition in China. This experience then motivated her to become an active explorer of classroom assessment. Her inadequate preparation in AL, however, could not support her in conducting classroom assessment very effectively, as discussed in the following section.

ROSA'S ASSESSMENT LITERACY UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF CONCEPTIONS OF ASSESSMENT

As a victim of exam-oriented education, Rosa held positive conceptions about the effectiveness of classroom assessment. In her first class, Rosa specified her assessment plan (see **Table 6.1**) to her students. The plan was dominated by the final and mid-term exams, which made up 70% of the end-of-term grades. However, the remaining 30% was divided by six different kinds of assessment, each taking up as little as 3% (e.g., the oral test). This complicated plan immediately confused the students, who were university freshmen and had mainly experienced tests in their pre-tertiary education. Rosa expressed her wish to enlarge the proportion of classroom assessments in one of the interviews (ellipses in the transcript means irrelevant information has been left out).

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Table 6.1 · Rosa's Assessment Plan

Assessment Tasks	Weight	Requirements
Final exam	60%	Measures students' knowledge and skills of English listening, reading, and writing.
Mid-term exam	10%	Measures students' knowledge and skills of English listening, reading, and writing.
Attendance and participation	10%	Requires students to attend classes on time and take part in class discussions voluntarily.
Group drama	3.50%	Requires students to work in groups of four and to shoot a ten-minute video to act out an episode of any passage of the textbook.
Oral presentation	3.50%	Requires students to deliver a five-minute presentation based upon thematic topics in the textbook.
Oral test	3%	May take many forms. Students who take part in any speaking contest held by the university can be exempt from the test.
Essays	5%	Requires students to submit four essays to the automated essay rating website before deadlines.
Quizzes	5%	Requires students to take five dictation quizzes during the semester.

"I don't like the plan. I hope classroom assessments will take up a larger proportion. … Because if more are included, it can motivate students to work harder. When they know their performance would be evaluated, they would work harder. But I can't change the weights. The university wanted it this way--the final exam takes up 60%. The result is, some students don't care about classroom performance and other tasks. They think they could pass as long as they do well in the final exam."

The above quote suggests that Rosa believed that the larger proportion of classroom assessment would motivate students to invest more effort in English language learning. However, her insufficient AL and the assessment plan prescribed by the faculty did not support her in incorporating a proper number of assessment tasks. The overwhelming variety of assessment tasks (i.e., attendance and participation, group drama, oral test, group presentation, essay, and quiz) seems to have given Rosa many challenges. When asked why she included so many assessment tasks, she explained as follows.

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Rosa:	It would be harder for me to calculate the scores. But I think it is worth it.
Researcher:	Why?
Rosa:	Because more tasks will involve students in learning English.
Researcher:	How did you decide which task to be included?
Rosa:	I chose some assessments based on my experience. For example, attendance is necessary. If I didn't incorporate attendance, some students may have skipped classes. I also talked with some colleagues. They shared with me their practice.

Inferences could be made concerning Rosa's beliefs about classroom assessment, as well as her rationale for including so many assessment tasks. First, she believed that classroom assessment is a lever for learning, and that more assessment tasks mean higher possibilities for facilitating student learning. Second, she believed that making every activity count towards the end-of-term grade would be the best incentive for students' English learning. These two interpretations point to the influence of teacher conceptions of assessment on her practice within which assessment literacy is embedded. Given that six assessment tasks seemed too time-consuming for Rosa to score each task, she became concerned about how to quantify these classroom assessments and to grade students in a reliable and trustworthy manner.

The way in which Rosa quantified classroom assessment is a nexus of her conceptions and AL. In quantifying classroom assessments, Rosa encountered two big challenges. The first was how to grade oral tests fairly and reliably with her "exempt" rule. Rosa made a rule that students who participate in any English speaking or singing contests could be exempt from taking the oral test. Her initial intention was to encourage students to take part in co-curricular English learning activities which would enhance their oral competence. Yet soon she found herself confused about how to grade fairly and consistently.

"I am quite confused about how to grade. ...If their oral tests are waived, what score should I assign them? Should it be full mark or something else? Will it be unfair to those students who take the oral test? Will it de-motivate some other students?...But now my rule seems to make things complicated. You see, even though they all come to the oral test, it does not make a big difference if a student is awarded 80 or 60 out of 100. The oral test only takes up 3% of the final grade. ...The oral test can't make discriminations among students. This is a problem. When students realize that classroom assessments actually don't count as much as the final exam, they will no longer pay attention to them."

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The problems that Rosa confronted were two-fold. The first is fairness; she was concerned about whether her rule of exempting some students from the oral test was fair to those who had not participated in co-curricular activities. Her concern seems to make sense, as the "exempt" rule without accompanying rubrics and grading criteria would end up confusing both the students and teacher. Second is the difficulty of generating scores that can discriminate among students of different proficiency levels. Although Rosa attributed this difficulty to the small proportion of the classroom assessment, my interpretation is that Rosa's challenge can be attributed mainly to the absence of rubrics and grading criteria. Without clear descriptors of each level of attainment, the students' performances on the oral test cannot be easily quantified.

A similar kind of challenge is seen in the assessment of class attendance and participation, for which Rosa wanted to generate reliable scores. Given that the assessment plan did not specify how this assessment was to be done, Rosa first asked the group leaders to check their group members' attendance every day, and to keep a detailed record; second, she awarded credit points to those students who volunteered to talk in class. The first strategy, however, was not welcomed by either the group leaders or members. My observations indicated that most of the groups gave up keeping records after several weeks. The following classroom excerpt in Week 7 of the semester shows this unsuccessful implementation.

Rosa:	Last class, I asked the group leaders to hand in the record of your attendance this class. Did you do it?

(One student raised his hand.)

Rosa:	Okay. Peter's group has done it. Please give it to me after class. How about other groups? (turning to the rest of the class) How about your records? I hope you can hand them in so that I can accurately record your class attendance. It's part of your final grades.

(The rest of the class remained silent.)

Apparently, Rosa's plan of asking group leaders to take charge of quantifying attendance was not effectively carried out. Rosa did not seem to blame the student leaders for their reluctance to keep records of group members' performance, as the students would need more guidance and training from the teacher concerning how to do it. Rosa did not have handy solutions herself, which inevitably led to her abandon the plan. By comparison, Rosa's second strategy of giving credit to voluntary speakers in class seemed to work well, as seen in the following classroom excerpt in which Rosa asked the students to do the blank-filling exercise after she played the audio.

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Rosa:	Now, before we check the answers of the blank fillings, could you tell me what the two main factors that influence people's personality are? Any volunteers?
Student 1:	Heredity and environment.
Rosa:	Very good. Could you explain what are heredity and environment?
Student 1:	Heredity means the characteristics that you inherit from your parents and ancestors.
Rosa:	Very good. Group leader of this group, 2 credit points for his answer. (The group leader nodded.)
Rosa:	We may say, a range of features we inherit from ancestor; these features may influence our personality, right? Do keep the word 'heredity' in mind.

In this excerpt, Rosa probed to elicit further responses from this student, and when he gave the satisfactory answer, she instantly reminded the group leader about recording credit points for this student before she gave additional feedback on the answers provided. My observations suggest that this was a repeated practice throughout the semester, which can be considered as part of the evidence that Rosa emphasized fair grading of class participation.

In addition to her practice of classroom assessment, Rosa conducted a study in which her conceptions of assessment moved her AL forward. In Rosa's assessment plan, drama and presentations were two tasks that required students to work in groups and generate products from their joint effort. In her prior practice, she had evaluated the group work and assigned members of the same group the same grade based upon the overall quality of the work. Yet, she was not satisfied with this conventional practice. Rosa expressed skepticism about it and her wish to change it in one of the interviews:

> "I gave them the same grade. I talked to many colleagues, and they said it's convenient to give everyone the same grade. But I wonder whether it is fair to those students who are more capable. As far as I know, some group work was done by one or two key persons in the group. Some other lazy people just showed up and read the scripts of the PowerPoint slides. But they got the same grades!"

The above excerpt reveals two points about Rosa's AL and conceptions of assessment. First, Rosa's conception about grading group work was influenced by her colleagues' practices. Second, while Rosa was aware of the potential unfairness of awarding the same score that may encourage free-riders and discourage higher performers, she had no

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alternative due to her insufficient AL.

Rosa was very serious about changing her current practice of grading group work. She asked me to recommend some academic journal articles to read, and from time to time we discussed possible approaches introduced by these articles. At the end of the interview of the following week, she discussed a mathematical model with me.

> "I compared these articles and found Nepal's quite effective. ...The mathematical model seems to be able to differentiate members with different levels of contribution. This would help quantify individual contributions to group work."

In the following weeks, I witnessed how Rosa proceeded to conduct a study among her students. It started with the peer review of individual contributions. After each group of students completed their group presentations, Rosa assigned each group a grade based upon their group performance. She then asked members of the group to anonymously fill out a peer evaluation sheet by assigning a contribution percentage to one another. Then she imported the data into spreadsheets and used Nepal's (2012) mathematical model to calculate an individual weighting factor for each student. With the individual weighting factors, Rosa generated the students' grades based upon the grades for groups that she had assigned earlier. All the students obtained an individualized score bearing their own contributions to the group work. She then had two sets of scores: general scores awarded to each group (i.e., every group member having the same score), and differentiated scores awarded to individuals. The results seemed very encouraging: The individual scores differed from the group scores, with greater standard deviations. Rosa shared with me her excitement:

> "You know, when I looked at the individual scores, I can see who did more work and who didn't. The scores matched what I expected of them. ...I am much more confident on this issue now. Before, I only had a vague idea. I knew I needed to make sure assessment is fair to everyone. I didn't know how. Now this small study tested my idea. I am much clearer now. I also realized, realized that my judgment in assessment is important to my students."

Rosa's research clearly reflects how her conceptions of assessment mediate her AL. Her conception that classroom assessment will facilitate learning prompted her to conduct this study exploring reliable grading methods, yet her earlier experience with exams seemed to limit her exploration within the accountability purpose of assessment. She did not extend her investigation further to explore how this assessment might facilitate student learning.

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MEDIATION OF CONCEPTIONS OF ASSESSMENT IN COGNITIVE AND EMOTIONAL DIMENSIONS

The findings highlight TCoA as an important mediating factor that exerts an impact on teacher AL, which supports prior studies that acknowledge the role that teacher conceptions play in shaping AL (Brown, 2008; Levy-Vered & Alhija, 2015). These findings further elaborate that the influences are exerted on teacher AL in both cognitive and emotional ways.

Cognitively, TCoA as a belief system help to filter assessment theories and strategies by taking in those that are consistent with current conceptions, while rejecting those that are not, which supports Kagan's (1992) view of conception as a "filter and foundation of new knowledge" (p. 75). If the teacher believes that a certain assessment principle or practice is true, then he/she is likely to retain the memory of this principle or adopt the practice. In other words, how teachers respond to information in the knowledge base depends in part on the degree to which new knowledge is consistent with, or dissonant from, their current conceptions. In this case, given that Rosa's assessment experience as a student was mainly related to exams and that she did not systematically learn about assessment, she mainly approached classroom assessment with the accountability purpose. For example, her investigations of classroom assessment focused on how to generate a reliable grade on each classroom assessment, rather than on how to provide effective feedback to move students forward. Another example is Rosa's de-emphasis of tests in her conceptions, which prompted her to embrace new knowledge of measuring individual contributions to group work through her research. Given that teachers' current belief systems may include some misconceptions that prevent them from absorbing useful assessment principles and strategies, the cognitive influence of TCoA presents challenges to teacher educators and middle managers.

Rosa's case suggests that, emotionally, conceptions of assessment subconsciously prompt teachers to stay with, or away from, certain assessment activities based upon their own positive or negative emotional experiences with assessment as learners or teachers. In this case, Rosa's negative emotional experience with *Gaokao* and her positive experience with a more liberal learning style in her college prompted her to try out as many classroom assessment tasks as possible in her practice. This point corroborates Crossman's (2007) finding that teachers have strong and weak, positive and negative emotions about assessment, arising from various assessment experiences in their careers. It means that, consistent with Green (1971), some aspects of TCoA are relatively stable and deeply held systems that are resistant to change, while other aspects, perhaps less deeply experienced, are easier to change.

These emotional resources mediate teachers' decision-making in an implicit but powerful

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way. Negative emotional experiences with assessment, such as frustration and anxiety with high-stake tests, have led Rosa to avoid using tests as the main vehicle for student assessment and to actively look for alternatives. This finding echoes what Stiggins (1995) noted about the anxiety and stress that teachers often endured in their own school years, as evidenced by Rosa's frustration with *Gaokao*. In contrast, positive emotional experiences in a certain form of assessment, such as joy, success, and pride, may lead teachers to accept and use that assessment in their practice. The emotional dimension of conceptions may make conceptual change difficult, leading to less effective learning about assessment and reduced effectiveness in implementing new assessment policies. The accumulation of these negative emotions is an invisible part of teacher conceptions that may present a prominent barrier to teacher AL, because it may close teachers off from reviewing their own experience and competence in assessment. This finding about negative emotions as a barrier to AL echoes DeLuca and Bellara's (2013) call for more attention to, as well as interventions in, teacher emotions regarding their assessment practices.

IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY, PRACTICE, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The implications of this study are two-fold. At the policy level, TCoA need to be taken into consideration when standards for teacher AL, authoritative documents that define teacher competencies in assessment, are devised. These standards should acknowledge the value-laden and emotion-embedded aspects of teacher AL and guide teachers to reflect on the impact of their conceptions of assessment on their AL. At the level of practice, teachers need to constantly scrutinize their conceptions of assessment and to manage their emotional resources with assessment from a critical stance. When teachers are aware of their weaknesses in assessment and their negative emotional experiences with assessment, they will be in a better position to embrace new knowledge and to orient their conceptions of assessment towards professional expectations.

TCoA are an important mediating factor on AL and the relationship between the two may be more complex than what this study has found. Future research should acknowledge and further explore this complexity. Survey studies on the relationship between these factors are needed to reach a conclusion that can be generalized across contexts. Comparative studies are also needed to understand whether the mediation of conceptions of assessment on AL varies across different educational contexts.

Implications for professional development include inclusion of assessment courses in pre-service teacher education programs and incorporating conceptions of assessment into assessment courses. Doing so would help prospective teachers reflect on their conceptions and the possible effects of those conceptions on assessment literacy.

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Excerpted from *Global Perspectives on Language Assessment: Research, Theory, and Practice*

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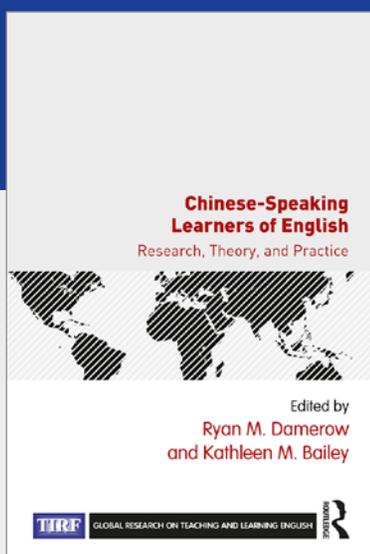
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Research, Theory, and Practice

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ISSUES THAT MOTIVATED THE RESEARCH

Given China's ever-growing involvement in international, economic, and cultural exchanges with other countries, there is an urgent need for talented individuals with global insights and a good command of international practices to engage in global affairs (Jiang, 2016). This situation has imposed new challenges on educators in China to develop higher levels of foreign language proficiency (Lin, 2016), particularly English, the *defacto lingua franca* in international communication.

In 2014, the Chinese government decreed that a new national foreign language assessment framework should be established, with the aim of bringing about comprehensive reform in the foreign language education system in China (Lin, 2016) and with a specific focus on English. As a direct response to this governmental initiative, *China's Standards of English Language Ability* (CSE) was officially released in 2018.

Upon its release, the CSE generated heated discussions concerning its applications and impact (e.g., Jie, 2019; Min, He, & Luo, 2018; Pan & Wu, 2019; Wu & Zhao, 2018). However, one issue that has attracted only limited focus in these discussions is whether the CSE, as a use-oriented framework, can be a self-assessment tool for school teachers, who are supposed to be experienced English as a foreign language (EFL) learners and are key to English language teaching (ELT) in China. The present study thus sets out to explore the applicability of the CSE as a self-assessment tool for school teachers.

CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH

THE CSE

The CSE is the first full-range English proficiency scale in China, which "defines the levels of English ability of Chinese learners and users of English" (NEEA, 2018, p.1). This scale is similar to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) but focuses on the Chinese context and on English as the target language. With nine proficiency levels grouped into three stages (elementary, intermediate, and advanced), the CSE distinguishes the English language proficiency of Chinese EFL learners and users in terms of eight types of abilities: organizational competence, listening comprehension, reading comprehension, oral expression, written expression, pragmatic ability, interpreting ability, and translation ability (Liu & Han, 2018). For these skills or competencies, 78 sub-scales (e.g., the grammatical competence scale) have been developed with nearly 3,000 can-do descriptors in total. More importantly, the framework also comes with a self-assessment section containing sub-scales of the eight above-mentioned abilities for EFL learners to diagnose their own English language proficiency.

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Previous research into the CSE has mainly focused on its construction, including the rationale for the framework and the development of its descriptors (He & Zhang, 2017; Jin, Wu, Alderson, & Song, 2017; Liu & Peng, 2017; Zhu, 2015). For instance, Liu and Peng (2017) discussed the theoretical basis of the CSE within the Chinese context in terms of development principles, the descriptive framework, descriptor expression, and validation.

Another line of research investigates the theoretical validity of the CSE based on contemporary notions of validity (Fang & Yang, 2017; Zhu, 2016). For example, Fang and Yang (2017) found that the construct and content validities of the framework were closely related, and that the way to examine the criterion-related and use-oriented framework is to relate the framework to a particular test and teaching project.

Research has also examined the relationship between the CSE and English learning, teaching, and assessment (Liu, 2017; Wang, 2018). Liu (2017) explored the functions of the CSE and concluded that it promotes use-oriented and learner-centered principles in English learning and teaching. In addition, English language learners could use the CSE as a self-assessment tool to set their learning goals.

Despite the abundance of research on the CSE, the self-assessment function of the CSE has hardly been explored. To the knowledge of the authors of this chapter, only a few studies (e.g., Min et al., 2018) have been carried out on this topic to date. Min et al. (2018) investigated the application of the CSE listening sub-scales in the self-assessment of non-English major undergraduates and demonstrated the applicability of the scales for students with intermediate and advanced English proficiency levels.

SELF-ASSESSMENT

The *self-assessment* of second or foreign language abilities refers to language learners' evaluation of their own language skills (Luoma, 2013). Oskarsson (1989) listed the benefits of self-assessment as promoting language learning, raising learners' self-awareness of their performance, improving goal-orientation, expanding the range of the assessment process, alleviating the assessment burden on teachers, and having a beneficial post-course effect of assessment on learners.

To date, a substantial body of studies have examined the validity and reliability of self-assessment by investigating the associations between learners' self-assessment and test scores. Shrauger and Osberg (1981) argued that self-assessment is as effective as other assessment methods. This finding was supported by LeBlanc and Painchaud (1985), who noted that self-assessment should be perceived as "a valuable tool as a placement

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instrument" (p. 673). In addition, several studies have documented correlations between the results of self-assessment and language proficiency tests (e.g., Bachman & Palmer, 1989; Blanche, 1990; Oskarsson, 1981; Ross, 1998). Furthermore, Brantmeier (2006) reviewed prior research and concluded that self-assessment can be used as an indicator of second language abilities.

Perhaps the main benefit of self-assessment is that it enables learners to understand how their own learning is progressing and helps to focus their attention on what can usefully be done to make further progress. In other words, self-assessment is essentially learning-oriented with a formative function. The same reasoning can be applied to teachers who have an interest in improving their teaching knowledge and skills, especially in the context of educational reforms where their roles are critical to the success of new programs. However, there are very few studies investigating teacher self-assessment of language ability (Britten & Dwyer, 1995). The language proficiency of teachers and how they can improve their English will also be central issues in the implementation of the CSE over the next few years. Thus, there is a need for more studies on teacher self-assessment of language ability, and this chapter addresses that need in the context of the CSE.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS ADDRESSED

This study addressed two research questions:

1. Can the CSE be used as a self-assessment tool for pre-service and in-service teachers?

2. What are the English language proficiency levels of pre-service and in-service teachers on the CSE, according to their self-assessments?

RESEARCH METHODS

Our study was conducted in two phases. First, a qualitative case study approach was adopted to investigate whether the CSE can be used as a self-assessment tool for pre-service and in-service teachers. In the second phase, a follow-up questionnaire survey was conducted to further explore the English language proficiency of the in-service school teachers. This small-scale study can be considered as a pilot to explore the methodology and to provide input on the design for further investigations.

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DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

At the first phase of the study, the subjects' English proficiency was determined externally by the Tests for English Majors Band 4 and Band 8 (TEM 4 and TEM 8; bands are similar to levels). These examinations are national English proficiency tests for university students majoring in English language and literature in China. The TEM 4 is normally taken by sophomore students and the TEM 8 by graduate students. As comprehensive English tests that cover listening, reading, writing, speaking, and translation, the TEM 4 and the TEM 8 are important indicators of English majors' English language proficiency.

At this phase, four participants took part in the study. Alice (a pseudonym, like all names in this chapter), aged 21, is a female pre-service teacher. She graduated from a Tier 2 teachers' college and has recently enrolled at a Tier 1 comprehensive university for her master's degree. Tier 1 universities include the top-116 universities in China and have more national funding, better teaching facilities and resources, and higher levels of faculty and better student sources compared to Tier 2 universities. Alice scored a 64 out of 100 points on TEM 4 and a 70 out of 100 points on TEM 8. Peter, aged 35, is a male secondary school EFL teacher. He received his bachelor's degree in ELT from a Tier 1 teachers' college. He scored a 67 on TEM 4 and a 71 on TEM 8. James, aged 35, is a male high school EFL teacher. He received his bachelor's degree in ELT from a Tier 2 university and then a master's degree in corpus linguistics from a Tier 1 university of international studies. He scored a 72 on TEM 4 and a 75 on TEM 8. Lily, aged 39, is a female university teacher. She is teaching English literature at a Tier 2 teachers' college. She received her bachelor's degree in Second Language Acquisition from a Tier 1 teachers' college, and her master's degree from a Tier 1 comprehensive university. She scored a 70 on TEM 4 and a 79 on TEM 8.

The tools of self-assessment used in this study are the CSE self-assessment scales, including scales for organizational competence, listening comprehension, reading comprehension, oral expression, written expression, pragmatic ability, interpreting ability, and translation ability. The Chinese version of the scales was utilized in this study because the English version had not been issued when our research began.

All four participants were given three months to self-assess their English language proficiency on the aforementioned scales, following three steps. First, participants read each of the CSE descriptors carefully. Second, participants evaluated their own English language proficiency on individual descriptors using a 3-point scale, where 1 to 3 represented "cannot do," "can half-do," "can do," respectively. Third, participants reported in written form their cognitive processes while doing their self-assessment in terms of the reasons for their ratings and their comments on the descriptors.

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The second phase involved 27 participants from a national teacher development program in an inland province in southwest China. (The four teachers in Phase 1 were not part of this group.). All the participants were from an underdeveloped region. The cohort, among whom 19% were male and 81% were female, included approximately 62% primary school teachers and 38% secondary school teachers. Bachelor's degree holders accounted for 85% of the participating teachers, while the remaining 15% held non-degree certificates for teaching. Seventy-four percent had graduated from teachers' colleges while 26% were from non-teachers' colleges. The size of their classes ranged from fewer than 30 students and up to 70, with approximately 7% having fewer than 30 students, 56% between 30 and 50 students, and 37% between 50 and 70 students.

All the participants completed the questionnaire in Mandarin Chinese. The first section asked for background information, such as participants' gender, educational background, class size, school type, and the biggest challenge in their teaching. The second section involved 105 descriptors extracted from the CSE self-assessment sub-scales from Level 5 to Level 7, adopting a 5-point scale, where 1 to 5 represented "cannot do," "can do a small part," "can half-do," "can largely do," "can do," respectively. The reason for choosing Levels 5 to 7 was that the former is the expected level for non-English major sophomores while the latter is the expected level for English major graduates in China.

The survey was reviewed by the researchers with some changes in wording to make the questionnaire more reader-friendly. The questionnaires were distributed to the 27 participants at the end of the teacher development program mentioned above. The whole self-assessment process was administered by the first researcher. Prior to the survey, necessary training on the procedures was provided to the participants. Upon completion, all 27 questionnaires were returned and were used in the data analysis. Cronbach's alpha showed strong internal reliability among the 105 items of the questionnaire (α = .991).

DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

The four participants' self-assessment results and their written reports of their self-assessing processes during the first phase were collected and checked to ensure all the descriptors had been rated.

The results were first analyzed to identify the self-rated language proficiency of each participant in each of the eight skill categories named above. The participant's level was determined if s/he reported being able to do 70-80% of the self-assessment descriptors at

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that level. The criteria followed were those suggested by North (2014), who regarded 80% as the borderline, and by Hasselgreen (2003), who used 70-80% as the benchmark. The self-rating levels were compared with the participants' TEM 4 and 8 scores to check the correlation between self-assessment and test scores.

In-depth analysis of the self-rating results was then conducted by comparing the four teachers' written reports of their cognitive processes and their background information to identify the reasons for their ratings. Sub-themes emerged, such as "absence of training in basic language skills." By grouping these sub-themes together, several superordinate themes, for example, "issues of ELT," were identified. Then, two of the authors of this chapter compared their interpretations of the data in terms of superordinate themes, supporting sub-themes and evidence. If the two researchers' labels differed, agreement was reached through discussion. The main themes were finally determined to be "issues of ELT" and "issues of CSE descriptors." Supporting sub-themes for the first main theme were "absence of training in basic language skills" and "absence of training in non-linguistic aspects of the core competence." The sub-themes for the second main theme were "descriptors were too general" and "descriptors were assigned to inappropriate levels."

For the second phase, the 27 respondents' questionnaire data were analyzed using SPSS version 21. The average self-rating of each skill category (e.g., organizational competence) for all respondents was calculated for respondents found to be at Levels 5 to 7 of the CSE to identify the average level that the respondents had reached. Additionally, the average self-ratings of all eight skill categories at Levels 5, 6, and 7 were compared to identify the participants' strongest and weakest English language skills.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section of the chapter presents and discusses in greater detail the findings of the research. The two research questions will be discussed in turn.

RESEARCH QUESTION ONE

The first research question asked whether the CSE can be used as a self-assessment tool for pre-service and in-service teachers. To investigate the self-assessment function of the CSE, the self-ratings of the four participants in the first phase were compared with their TEM 4/8 English proficiency test scores. Their overall self-assessment levels range from Levels 4-5 for Alice to Level 7 for Lily (see **Table 7.1**). This pattern is, in general, consistent with that of the four participants' TEM 4/8 test scores. Provided that the TEM scores are valid, such consistency suggests that self-assessment with the CSE can, to a certain

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extent, identify intermediate to advanced English learners' overall English language proficiency.

Table 7.1 · Participants' Overall Self-rating Levels on the CSE and Their TEM 4/8 Scores

	Alice	Peter	James	Lily
Self-assessment	Level 4-5*	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7
TEM 4	64	67	72	70
TEM 8	70	71	75	79

*Note.** The self-assessment level is between Levels 4 and 5 on the system as marked by Alice. The four participants took the TEM 4/8 when they were sophomore students and graduate students.

The results of the four participants' self-assessments on all the CSE self-assessment scales are summarized in **Table 7.2**. Individual differences in the participants' English language proficiency can be observed among them. For example, regarding organizational competence, the self-ratings given by the four participants range from Levels 5 to 8. Such self-ratings appeared to match the four participants' education background, their proficiency test scores, and our assessment of their proficiency levels. This result is a partial indication that the CSE might be able to distinguish individuals at different proficiency levels.

Table 7.2 also reveals the imbalance across individuals' self-rated English language proficiency levels in different skill categories. As a whole, reading seems to be the strongest skill while writing is reported as being the weakest. A relatively high self-rating on reading ability among the four participants can be seen, with two individuals at Level 7. In contrast, two self-rated their writing abilities at Level 4, which is considered to be the level for senior high school students. There are several potential explanations for this finding.

In China, reading ability has long been strongly emphasized in ELT, while writing has not been sufficiently addressed (Wang, 2002). In addition, reading has been given much heavier weighting in high-stakes EFL examinations than writing. For example, in the National College Matriculation English Examination, the weighting of items involving reading is around 46%, while that of writing items is merely 17%. Likewise, there are many more chances for learners to apply and practice their English reading skills than their English writing skills in their daily lives.

Through analyzing and relating the self-assessment results of Alice, Peter, James, and Lily and comparing them to the written reports of their self-assessment processes, some prominent English language teaching issues have emerged. One issue that needs to be resolved is that some non-linguistic aspects of the core competences have not been

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Table 7.2 · Self-rating Results by Level of Four Participants on all the CSE Self-assessment Scales

Scales				
Abilities	Alice	Peter	James	Lily
Organizational competence	L5*	L5	L6	L8
Listening comprehension	L3	L5	L6	L6
Reading comprehension	L4-5**	L7	L6	L7
Oral expression	L5	L6	L5	L6
Written expression	L4	L4	L6	L6
Pragmatic ability	L6	L5	L6	L6-7
Interpretation ability	NA***	L5	L6	L6
Translation ability	L6	L5	L6	L6-7
Overall	L4-5	L5	L6	L7

Notes. *L=level on the CSE scale. There are nine levels in total.
**The participant could accomplish half of the descriptors at both levels.
*** The data are not available as the participant could not do what the descriptors said on the "Interpretation" ability scale.

sufficiently addressed in ELT. Our findings show that intercultural awareness and higher-order skills are two aspects of language use in which most participants had little confidence. For example, one descriptor stated, "I can understand verbal conflicts caused by cultural differences and give explanations in an effective way" (Level 7, CSE Pragmatic Ability Scale). Three out of the four participants rated this item negatively and one rated it "can half-do." Peter explained that his low response was due to his "limited knowledge of cultural differences" (Peter, Written Report, 28 May 2018), whereas Lily remarked that she "found it difficult to explain cultural differences" (Lily, Written Report, 5 May 2018). Similarly, for the descriptors concerning higher-order skills, such as the ability to summarize and infer, two of the four participants gave themselves low ratings on the items for each of the descriptors.

These findings may provide evidence that language knowledge training outweighs the training in the ability to use the language (Xin, Jiang, & Wang, 2014) in ELT in China. English is conventionally regarded as a tool for work and study, rather than a subject to develop learners' all-round abilities (Cheng & Zhao, 2016). Consequently, in language classes at primary, secondary, and even tertiary levels, teachers tend to focus more on teaching language knowledge, such as grammar and vocabulary, than on developing learners' language abilities, such as the ability to think and communicate across cultures.

Apart from the ELT issues raised, the self-assessment of the four participants and their written reports also revealed issues related to the descriptors in the self-assessment

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scales. One such issue is that some descriptors seemed to be too general. For example, for the descriptor "I can choose appropriate language on different occasions to serve my purpose of communication" (Level 6, CSE Pragmatic Ability Scale), Alice and Peter both selected the response "cannot do," while Lily selected "can half-do." Both Peter and Lily commented that they were not sure what the term "different occasions" meant. Similar terms used in the survey, such as "various occasions" and "a wide range of topics," were also described as too vague.

Another issue is that some descriptors may not be applied at the appropriate levels. According to the participants' self-assessments, some descriptors might be too easy to achieve for the level concerned. For example, for the descriptor "I can use modern information technology to collect relevant academic materials" (Level 8, CSE Written Expression Scale), three out of the four participants responded "can do." But what does the term "modern information technology" mean? If the ability to use a search engine is what it takes to meet this descriptor, would this criterion be too basic to be at Level 8 for writing skills?

In contrast, some descriptors that sound very advanced were used at lower levels. For example, a descriptor states, "I can clearly interpret and analyze the current state of, reasons for, and solutions to a hot social issue, expressing my opinions and articulating my stance" (Level 4, CSE Organizational Competence Scale). None of the four participants were confident enough to respond that they could do what the descriptor stated, with two participants selecting "cannot do" and the others "can half-do." Lily remarked that, "it is not easy to accomplish the descriptor, for it takes not only language ability but also the background knowledge of the social issue to meet the requirement of the descriptor" (Lily, Written Report, 5 May 2018). These findings suggest that some of the descriptors should be redesigned so as to match more closely the requirements of the level to which they are assigned.

In summary, our findings at this first phase suggest that the CSE can be used as a self-assessment tool for school teachers. Consistency can be observed across the four participants' overall self-assessment levels and their TEM 4 and 8 test scores, and individual differences are evident at different language proficiency levels.

RESEARCH QUESTION TWO

The second research question asked, "What are the proficiency levels of the in-service school teachers on the CSE according to their self-assessment?" As a follow-up to the initial case study in the first phase, we extended our research in the second phase to further investigate 27 school teachers' language proficiency levels based on their self-assessments.

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According to the criteria referred to above, if the participant reported being able to achieve 70-80% of the CSE self-assessment descriptors at one level, s/he was deemed to be at that level. The score for achieving that particular level on a 5-point scale is 3.5. The mean scores of the 27 school teachers' self-assessments are presented in Table 7.3. One surprising finding was that among all the skills listed, only Organizational Competence reached Level 5, which is the level expected to be reached by non-English major sophomore students (Wang, 2018). In other words, all the other skills were, according to the teachers' self-assessment, below Level 5. This result is a partial indication that the English proficiency of primary and secondary school teachers needs to be further developed.

Table 7.3 · Means of the 27 Teachers' Self-assessments on the CSE Self-assessment Sub-scales

Sub-scales			
Abilities	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7
Organizational competence	3.63	3.48	3.21
Listening comprehension	2.81	3.18	2.14
Reading comprehension	2.62	2.48	2.55
Oral expression	2.62	2.33	2.01
Written expression	1.99	2.07	1.93
Pragmatic ability	2.71	2.6	2.9
Interpreting ability	2.14	1.74	1.78
Translation ability	2.45	1.99	1.62

From an in-depth analysis of the participants' answers to the open-ended question about the teaching challenges they face and their background information, several potential causes for their low self-assessment scores were identified. One possible reason was a lack of both pre-service and in-service professional training. Some teachers said that they had poor English-speaking skills, and others mentioned the lack of professional guidance at work.

Another possible reason was the teachers' heavy workloads. The participants mentioned several times that their workloads were too heavy for them to concentrate on their teaching and improve themselves. One source of heavy pressure can be attributed to the size of classes they teach, normally between 30 and 50 students, with some class sizes reaching 70 students. What makes matters more complicated is that one teacher is usually responsible for two or more classes, most of which are not in the same grade.

Among all the skills, generally speaking, there is a low self-rating for productive skills (speaking, writing, interpretation, and translation), with writing rated by the respondents as

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the weakest ability. This pattern might be related to the existing national curriculum requirement for primary and secondary schools. At a basic educational level, great emphasis is placed on improving the students' receptive skills (listening and reading), rather than their productive skills. Consequently, teachers tend to focus more on improving their own receptive skills than their productive skills.

IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY, PRACTICE, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The present study contributes some early-stage, empirical evidence on the applicability of the CSE as a self-assessment tool. It serves as an initial investigation exploring the use of the CSE descriptors in a self-assessment function with pre-service and in-service teachers, in hopes of indicating some preliminary directions for policymakers, CSE developers, school administrators, and educators. The findings should also be relevant for language assessment and teaching researchers.

Our findings may indicate that the CSE can be used as a self-assessment tool for school teachers. However, due to the small-scale nature of the present study, large-scale empirical research is needed to investigate the effectiveness of the CSE's self-assessment function for EFL teachers, for example, involving teachers from different parts of China. Further research is also needed to investigate how the CSE self-assessment tool can be utilized by EFL learners at various levels of English proficiency.

This study has identified some issues concerning the descriptors that might influence the effectiveness of the self-assessment scales, including the wording of some descriptors being too general and inappropriately assigned. Hence, for its developers, further revisions to the CSE self-assessment scales are needed to make the descriptors more specific in terms of their definitions and scope and to make sure that the requirements of the descriptors correspond to those of the CSE levels for which they were assigned.

The findings of the present study also reveal that the English language proficiency of the school teachers, in particular, teachers at primary and secondary levels, is a matter of concern. The implications for ELT in China are that professional development should be a lifelong goal for teachers, and that teacher education should focus not only on the language knowledge development of the pre-service teachers, but also on their all-around English ability. In addition, it is important for school administrators to provide support for teachers to engage in professional development, for example, alleviating their burdensome workloads. As for individual teachers, they need to seek continuous improvement in their language proficiency, pedagogical skills, and all-round abilities, so as to face the growing challenges in ELT.

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This study has provided an exploratory perspective on some key ELT issues in China. These issues include the lack of training in some non-linguistic aspects of the key competences in using English, such as cultural awareness and higher-order skills. Hence, it is important for policymakers to consider how to prioritize the training of the core English language abilities at different stages of education.

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