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EDITORIAL

In this year's journal, as well as the articles selected for publication, we are fortunate to have invited articles based on the plenary presentations from the two New Zealand speakers at the recent CLESOL conference in Dunedin. Barkhuizen and Erlam have raised intriguing concepts and issues about the nature of our work as TESOLANZ members across a range of sectors. The articles by Wette and Lessels and Denny exemplify teachers' commitment to critique their own practice through systematic investigation and are exemplars for TESOLANZ readers when considering ways in which they could explore questions that concern or intrigue them in their own teaching contexts.

The stories in Barkhuizen's opening article present ideas that illustrate the enormous diversity of the various contexts in which community language practitioners work. They aim to remind practitioners of this ever-changing diversity and to urge them to be ready for new challenges which constantly emerge in their work. These ideas and challenges relate to the concept of plurilingualism, the experience of immigration, and to imagined identities. The article suggests ways in which community language practitioners can meet these challenges. The three stories Barkhuizen tells are particularly concerned with the relationship between language and identity, which is the focus of the article.

In the second article Wette and Lessels aimed to compare the writing demands of a pre-university EAP course with those of mainstream study, and to seek evaluative comment from graduates of the EAP course about how well it had prepared them for their degree courses. In the article task protocols from both types of course were compared, and the views of each participant elicited through a questionnaire and interview. Their findings confirm the value of general-purpose EAP courses; however, there is clearly a need for such courses to be aware of and to approximate a number of specific demands of writing in mainstream courses in order to narrow the gap between these two "academic worlds".

Erlam in the third article, based on her plenary CLESOL address, presents possible reasons for why, in New Zealand, there may be a gulf between the worlds of the practitioner and the researcher. For each reason Erlam suggests a possible 'way forward', providing evidence for why she concludes that it is possible to bridge this gulf. Lastly, Erlam presents a small synopsis of the type of research that is being conducted in New Zealand, highlighting at the same time possible gaps.

Denny's article reflects an example of a possible 'way forward' suggested by Erlam. Her article is based on an action research journey and reports on its final cycle in which the teaching of the pragmatics of casual conversation to two classes using semi-authentic elicited samples was investigated. Data included learner pre and post tests and self assessments, student surveys and a teacher reflective journal. The results

indicate that there was improvement in the ability of participants to use these norms and that they saw this improvement as having arisen from exposure not only to these semi-authentic recordings in the classroom but also to contact with native speakers outside the classroom together with explicit input from the teacher.

The book reviews that follow have been selected to cover a range of areas relevant to language teaching and research and to highlight current issues being explored in the literature.

In conclusion, it is important to thank all the contributors, those who submitted manuscripts for consideration in this year's volume of the journal and our invited articles based on CLESOL plenary presentations. It has been wonderful to receive manuscripts from teachers who are seeking to understand their teaching and the contexts in which their students learn through individual and collaborative research. Part of the process involved in preparing a manuscript for publication involves responding to questions and guidance from experienced peers. In this respect, we are indebted to members of the Editorial Board for the perspicacity and generosity of spirit that characterize their reviews.

I encourage the many readers of the TESOLANZ Journal who have not yet contributed to the publication to consider doing so in the following year – either individually, or, collaboratively. You will find Notes for Contributors at the end the journal, but always feel free to contact the corresponding Editor by email (s.gray@auckland.ac.nz) if you require any additional information. The closing date for receiving manuscripts will be Monday 5 September 2011.

ARTICLES

PLURILINGUALISM, SHEDDING SKINS AND FLOATING IDENTITIES: DIVERSITY IN COMMUNITY LANGUAGE NARRATIVES

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My CLESOL 2010 keynote presentation in Dunedin told three stories. In this article I re-tell those stories. Through storytelling people make sense of experience, both real and imagined. In other words, by telling, sharing and listening to stories we are able to reflect on our ideas and feelings about certain issues that are important to us. Stories give these ideas coherence and so we are better able to understand them and act on them. The aim of telling the three stories was firstly to present ideas to the audience that illustrate the enormous diversity of the various contexts in which community language practitioners work (of course, we all know this), and secondly to be aware of and also ready for new challenges that constantly emerge because of this ever-changing diversity. These ideas and challenges relate to (1) the concept of plurilingualism (Canangarajh, 2009), (2) the experience of immigration, and (3) imagined identities. The three stories I told at the conference raise questions about language and identity, which was the focus of the presentation.

At the start of the presentation I invited the audience to think about their own working contexts – their own contributions to Community Language Practice (CLP). Community language practitioners work as teachers (of community languages and ESOL), researchers, and teacher educators or are involved in language policy and planning, and advocacy. My three stories referred to particular people in particular times and places, but I hoped that the audience would be able to relate these more particular experiences to their own community language working contexts; whether they be schools, classrooms, neighbourhoods, families, religious institutions, or other organizations and workplaces. In other words, I wanted the audience to reflect on what I had to say in relation to their own worlds, their own communities of practice.

Story 1: Plurilingualism
The first story begins in 1760. (I joked that this was going to be a long story!) This story was my own, but I told it mainly as a lead-in to a discussion on the concept of plurilingualism, which is addressed below. My paternal ancestors arrived in South Africa from Germany in 1760, obviously speaking German. But over the years and generations there was a gradual shift to Afrikaans. (Interestingly, my maternal ancestors also came from Germany, and the shift in this case was to English.) My grandfather married an Irish woman, and things turned English rather quickly, because their children, including my father, were raised to speak English. My mother was also English-speaking, as I've said, and so I too grew up speaking English as my first language.

Very early on at school I started to learn Afrikaans – just like all South African school children at the time. It was a compulsory subject. In my experience it was taught very much using a grammar- and literature-based approach and so although I was rather good at passing Afrikaans tests and exams, I could barely string a few sentences together when speaking. This changed quite drastically the year after I finished school. That's when I went to the army (1976). National service was compulsory for all white males.

Communication in the army was supposed to take place equally in English and Afrikaans – the two official languages of the country at the time. It was called the 50:50 policy – one day English, one day Afrikaans. In reality, almost all business was conducted in Afrikaans. After the year of my service my Afrikaans skills had improved quite substantially, and I was a reasonably fluent speaker. For the next 15 years, however, I was immersed in environments where I was not required to speak Afrikaans at all – studying at an English-medium university in South Africa, followed by more study in the UK and the US. Then, twenty years ago, while I was teaching at high school, I attended a party at the family home of my new partner in the Coloured community in Johannesburg. All people at the party spoke Afrikaans.

Afrikaans is spoken as a home language in South Africa by 13.3% of the population (6 million out of about 45 million). About 60% of these are not white (Statistics South Africa, 2001 Census). There's a fairly wide geographical spread of Afrikaans speakers, with a concentration in the western and northern parts of the country.

Back to the party … The whole time I was there all I heard was Afrikaans. But it was a different sort of Afrikaans to what I was used to; in other words, a different variety. I actually struggled to understand some of what was being said, and when I spoke it certainly sounded different. Specifically, there was a lot of code-switching and mixing with English, there were some words I didn't recognize and the accent was also a bit different from what I was familiar with.

Later, a few gay people from the neighbourhood joined the party. Sometimes when they spoke, particularly to each other, I noticed that the variety of Afrikaans took on a slightly different form. This was not constant but every now and then certain words or expressions that I recognized were used in ways that I had never heard before. There were also some words that I did not recognise at all. These words, together with the regular mixing with English, meant quite a new linguistic experience for me!

I later discovered that the gay party-goers had been using a linguistic variety called Gayle. It could perhaps best be described as an argot; informal specialized vocabulary and expressions used by a group of people with similar interests (sometimes for secret purposes). Cage (2003, p. 23) defines Gayle as follows:

The words and expressions are "used as alternatives to synonymous English or Afrikaans [and African languages] words or expressions. Gayle does not have its own grammar, phonology, morphology or syntax, and relies on the linguistic conventions of English and Afrikaans [and African languages]. In other words, it is simply a particular register or variety of language that is used in social discourse by gay people [and others] in South Africa and is embedded in certain specific socio-cultural contexts".

I add 'and others' above, because in some communities Gayle is also used by non-gay people – such as at the party I attended, and it is also true that many gay people not only do not use it but also dislike it and don't want to be affiliated with it. The functions and history (particularly the cultural and political history) of Gayle are fascinating, but unfortunately space does not allow me to go into any of that here (see Cage, 2003; McCormick, 2009).

Instead I present some examples. These are merely illustrative, most of which I have simply made up. The first line of each example is Afrikaans, incorporating Gayle. The second line is English and Gayle, and the third line is an English translation. Gayle words are in bold.

Example 1
    Hy het nancy harriets nie.
    He's got nancy harriets.
    He's got no hair.

In this example, one gets a glimpse of how Gayle works: Afrikaans or English words are replaced by Gayle words, in many cases female names, with the Gayle word beginning with the same letter/sound as the word it replaces. So, *nancy* replaces *no* in this sentence (or *none*, *nothing* or other negative words in other sentences)

Example 2
    Nancy sheila gayle.
    (lit. Don't rubbish talk.)
    Don't talk rubbish.

In Example 2, we have three Gayle words making up a sentence. *Nancy* is used again to mark the negative, *gayle* means *talk*, and *sheila* means *rubbish* (actually, if you apply the rule that the female name has the same first letter/sound as the word it replaces you can figure out what *sheila* really means in this example!).

Example 3
    Ek is **trudie** 'cause ek het nie gisteraand **lala gegala** nie.
    I'm **trudie** because I didn't **gala lala** last night.
    I'm tired because I didn't sleep well last night.

In this example, we see in the first line, a case of English (the word *'cause*) being used together with Afrikaans and Gayle in the same sentence. There are also Gayle words which, as far as I know, are not female names (i.e. *gala* and *lala*).

Gayle words can also be used in different word classes. I'll illustrate this with the word *dora*.

Example 4
> Gee my 'n **dora**, asseblief?
> Give me a **dora**, please?
> Give me a drink, please?

Example 5
> **Dora** is nie goed vir my **maggie** nie.
> **Dora** is not good for my **maggie**.
> Drink is not good for my stomach.
> (maggie, magda, magdalena)

Example 6
> Gister het ek te veel **gedora**.
> Yesterday I **dora'd** too much.
> Yesterday I drank too much.

Example 7
> Ek is **dora**.
> I am **dora**.
> I am drunk.

Example 8
> Die **dora bag** her weggery in my **pram**.
> The **dora bag** drove away in my **pram**.
> The drunk guy drove away in my car. (The guy who drinks a lot drove away in my car.)

In Example 4, *dora* is used as a noun, to mean *a drink*. In Example 5, it is used to mean *drink* generally. Note in this example the word for *stomach*; *maggie* (from Afrikaans *maag*) and some variations I have heard. *Dora* is a verb in Example 6, and takes on past tense markers in both Afrikaans and English. In Example 7, *dora* functions as an adjective to mean *drunk*, as it does, attributively this time, in Example 8.

In the following two examples (9 and 10) Afrikaans, English and Gayle are mixed within the same sentences.

Example 9
> Jy sien, die **bag** het actually power.
> You see, the man actually has the power.

Example 10
> Ek kan nie die steps opklim nie, because ek is 'n **oula gertie**.
> I can't climb up the steps because I'm an old woman.

These examples seem quite close to what is referred to as plurilingualism, which has the following features (from Canagarajah, 2009, p. 6):

Languages are not conceptualized individually. Plurilingual competence is an integrated competence
Equal or advanced proficiency is not expected in all languages.
Competence is using different languages for distinct purposes (all languages are not all-purpose languages).
Language competence is not treated in isolation but is a form of social practice and intercultural competence.
Speakers develop plurilingual competence themselves rather than through formal (school) means.

I would say that some of the party-goers at that party over 20 years ago were displaying plurilingual competence. And I might add that since then I too have developed some proficiency in Gayle, and am able to participate in plurilingual practices to some extent. Coming to New Zealand then I brought this competence with me, and I occasionally use Gayle, though only with my partner. This is usually at home but sometimes we use it in the supermarket queue, for example. Often we've been overheard speaking Afrikaans by Afrikaans speakers, and so if necessary we use Gayle to conceal what we are saying.

I'm certainly not responsible for bringing plurilingualism to New Zealand, however. Some recent narrative research I did with a pre-service English teacher highlighted some interesting examples of what I suspect are plurilingual practices (Barkhuizen 2010). The teacher is a migrant from Tonga, and during our interviews she told of many examples of language practices in the Tongan community in Auckland that appear to be quite close to my understanding of what plurilingualism is. Here she is talking about young Tongans that she knows:
> Even though their Tongan is much better [than their English], it is still not good. So they tend to speak, almost like a, not just the South Auckland variety but they do a whole lot of code switching between English and Tongan but I realize it's not just very informal, it is very slangy, both English and Tongan. It just sounds, I don't understand it sometimes, my brother speaks it. … It's a mixture of English and Tongan but slang Tongan combined with slang English. Yeah [laughs].

This example tells of a blending of different styles and languages. In a written narrative Sela elaborates on the possible source of what she calls slang in the quotation above – African American rap and hip hop. This is another linguistic resource drawn on by the speakers in the passage:

> However, I've learnt that Tongan kids growing up in New Zealand are confused about the language[s] used. … Amongst friends, they speak English. They also learn from TV and through music, namely hip hop and rap. Their parents speak to them in Tongan and at times when they (kids) don't understand, the parents would try to explain it in English (badly). Through all these mediums the kids learn bad Tongan, bad English and mixed up, ungrammatical English from rap music and hip hop.

Sela finishes this observation by expressing her attitude towards these language practices – this plurilingualism: "The saddest part is, they were born and raised in New Zealand, yet they can't speak either Tongan or English properly. I find that this is a problem why many kids in South Auckland drop out of school". This is interesting, because Sela is going to be an English teacher and will encounter similar language practices in her classrooms. Below I suggest some challenges to teachers like Sela; these challenges come in the form of alternative pedagogical practices.

At CELSOL I ended each of the three stories by asking the audience to consider a question based on what the story was about. I must admit I struggled to find the appropriate wording for each question, and members of the audience noticed this limitation and suggested far better questions. However, I'll report here the actual questions I posed at CLESOL. Here is the question that ended the first story:

What do we, as community language practitioners, do about people like Sela's plurilingual friends and family?

Story 2: Gert
Gert was one of 28 participants in a study on the language and identity experiences of Afrikaans-speaking migrants living in New Zealand (Barkhuizen and Knoch, 2006; Barkhuizen, 2006). I made contact with Gert in 2002 after he had been in New Zealand for only seven months. At the time of our first interview Gert was married and had a 10-year old son and an 8-year old daughter. He works as a financial broker and lives on the North Shore in Auckland. I have had two further interviews with Gert since 2002, the most recent being in October 2008. I am planning more. In focussing on identity, I kept in mind Bonny Norton's definition of identity (1997, p. 410). I find it very useful for understanding migrants' experiences of identity and identity change, making reference as it does to affiliation, safety and security, and to the unfolding of experience through time and place.
I use the term identity to refer to how people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people

understand their possibilities for the future. … Identity relates to desire – the desire for recognition, the desire for affiliation, and the desire for security and safety.

At the conference I distributed a lengthy handout with a number of excerpts from Gert's interviews. I wanted Gert's stories to speak for themselves. The audience had the opportunity to read, listen to and discuss the excerpts. Because of space limitations, I won't reproduce the entire handout here, but will include a few short excerpts which tell Gert's immigration story. I asked the audience to consider the following questions while paying attention to the story:
Who are the characters in the story?
How do they relate to each another?
What is this story about?
How does it relate to broader contexts, to larger discourses?
What do we learn about Gert?

Excerpt 1(seven months in NZ)
> With my work [financial adviser], I'm not sure, I am just working amongst South Africans now, I am finding enough clients now, but I feel a bit uneasy, 'cause I think eventually I will have to take the step and cross over, you know I will sometimes have to cross the bridge and maybe just arrive at the other side of the river for a while. Especially, it may dry up on this side, so I'm not really confident enough at this stage yet to, you know, to try and conduct business with Kiwis and I think mainly because my language, because the accent, you know, you stick out like a sore finger I think when you open your mouth.

In this excerpt Gert introduces a conflict he experienced in his life during his early days in New Zealand; i.e. he is only working for South Africans and knows he will soon have to work with English-speaking Kiwis too if his business is to survive. However, when this happens he imagines he will struggle with English and that because of his accent he will "stick out like a sore finger [thumb]". In the same interview he told me that he wanted to learn how to sound like a Kiwi.

However, when I interviewed him two years later, he told me that he had resolved this conflict. He had decided not to try to speak like a Kiwi after a 'revelation' at McDonalds:

Excerpt 2 (2004)
> We went to the McDonald's and I ordered ice cream at the drive-through and the kids were sitting at the back, Francois [his son] and his friend Marius, who is also an Afrikaans guy, and I ordered, and I was trying to talk like a Kiwi. And the son said to me, his friend said to me, 'oh, that sounds gross. What are you trying to talk like that?' He said just talk normally. *Oom, praat net gewoonlik* [Uncle, just speak normally], just talk normally like a South African. He says because they respect you for being a South African. I think that is quite a comforting, that was

quite comforting coming from a child. When he said they respect you for being a South Africa, because I think we have a good reputation.

In the same story he said that his business was doing well enough, though there was still room to grow, and because of this he would no longer be looking to do business with Kiwis (it was not necessary). In our 2008 interview he confirmed that he was still doing business only with South Africans:

Excerpt 3 (October 2008)
> *Gert*: So I've decided I'll just deal exclusively with South Africans. Although a number of them are English-speaking like yourself.
> Gary: So you were saying earlier that your clients are 99.9% South African.
> *Gert*: Yeah. And of them, Afrikaans, probably 70%, I guess. Maybe 70%. So I've got more Afrikaans, I've got the same, roughly the same ratio of Afrikaans to English-speaking clients here than what I had in Pretoria after 18 years with [name of company]. I'm serious. So that's quite amazing.

The next excerpt we looked at during the CLESOL presentation was a rather lengthy one, but I will show only a few lines here. The story is about Gert's 50th birthday party which he held in Auckland, and the point of the story is that in many ways it was rather similar to his 40th birthday party he hosted in Pretoria, South Africa, a decade before:

Excerpt 4 (2008)
> We had a sheep on the spit. And when I had my 40th birthday I had about 40, 45 people and I was also doing the spit *braai* [barbecue] in Pretoria. And some of them were my, obviously there were quite a number of family members, so not that many were friends. They were like I say, 20 family and 20 friends. I had the same thing 10 years later in a different country. Altogether there were no family, only friends. Also about 45, and all of them but one couple was Afrikaans.

What is particularly interesting about this excerpt is that it is about how things appear to remain the same (i.e. guests at the party were Afrikaans speakers), which is not the typical immigration narrative. A close reading of this story (which goes on for a quite a few more lines, as I have said) shows that things are not as they appear to be. The two parties are *not* the same: at the 50th party in New Zealand there is no family, the friends are all new, and there is a Kiwi couple (see last line of the excerpt). It is very much a *we-them* story, with Gert being the Afrikaans speaker, the South African. A final excerpt illustrates this further. In Excerpt 5, Gert explains how he is perceived by his Kiwi friends (he does have a few), and that these perceptions he has resolved to live with.

Excerpt 5 (2008)
> We've met many other Kiwis that we mingle with socially on those events [work-related conferences]. When they invite me on a fishing trip that's happened or I get invited by the insurance company to go to Eden Park, to their corporate box,

and there's many Kiwis. So I know, you know, we're on first name terms now with many people that we've met over the years. And I think we get along with them particularly well. But I accept that they, to them I'm still the South African. And I will be in 20 years' time. They will say, 'You know Gert, he's the, you know, that South African guy'. So that is the perception and it's fine with me.

In sum, we could say the following about Gert. In his life in New Zealand, over time, he negotiated multiple identities (migrant, South African, Afrikaans speaker in New Zealand, Afrikaans speaker in South Africa, financial broker, party host, friend, father, co-worker, for example). His identities are fluid and changeable; for example, at the start of his time in New Zealand he was a South African migrant wanting to be (or at least sound like) a Kiwi, but now he is a Kiwi citizen happy to be seen as a South African. His English proficiency is high, and he has experienced no loss of or shift from Afrikaans. He is financially secure and he lives in a community with a high Afrikaans ethnolinguistic vitality. I am sure we are all familiar with other migrants who are in a similar boat to Gert. However, Gert is not the typical migrant that Comminity Language Practitioners are concerned about. But, should we be? This lead to my second question.

What do we, as community language practitioners, do about people like Gert?

Story 3: Imagined communities
In recent years, the concept of imagination has been explored to better understand identity and the processes of identification. The work of Wenger (1998) has been particularly useful. He says (1998, p. 176): "The concept of imagination refers to a process of expanding our self by transcending our time and space and creating new images of the world and ourselves. Imagination in this sense is looking at an apple seed and seeing a tree". In doing so we see outselves as members of imagined communities, which Kanno and Norton (2003, p. 241) describe as "groups of people, not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of imagination". The connection is between ourselves (our identities) and our social worlds: How do we see ourselves in these imagined worlds? How do we see ourselves living and using language in imagined future communities? These are questions that are very important for migrants and refugees, especially before they depart for their new countries.

When I was doing the research on the Afrikaans community here in New Zealand, I always asked the participants during our interviews what they were thinking just before they left South Africa; for example, what language-related problems they expected, and whether or not they thought they, their identities, would change in any way. They always struggled to answer saying they couldn't remember, or they had other things to worry about, such as finding work, finding a place to stay or schools for their children, and so on. So I decided I would go to South African and ask pre-immigrants what they were thinking before they departed South Africa (see Barkhuizen and de Klerk, 2006).

There were 15 participants in this study; 9 males and 6 females, from 17 to 82 years old. I travelled to various parts of South Africa (Eastern Cape, Northwest Province and Gauteng) to conduct narratrive interviews with all the participants during which they were invited to tell stories of their language and identity experiences – real and imagined. After a detailed analysis of all the interviews, I arrived at five major themes or categories represented in the data. Participants told stories of:

their linguistic, cultural and national roots

the linguistic and identity changes they imagined they would experience

the process of these change

the linguistic and identity losses they imagined, and

the anticipated emotional responses to the imagined changes.

As a further step in the analysis I looked across all these categories and tried to make sense on a conceptual level of how the participants perceived their imagined language practices and their imagined identities in their future lives in New Zealand. I came up with five axes (see Figure 1):

Figure 1: Axes of language and identity change (from Barkhuizen and de Klerk, 2006)

substantial	‹--------------›	minimal
	⇕	
floating	‹--------------›	grounded
	⇕	
active	‹--------------›	passive
	⇕	
additive	‹--------------›	subtractive
	⇕	
open	‹--------------›	closed
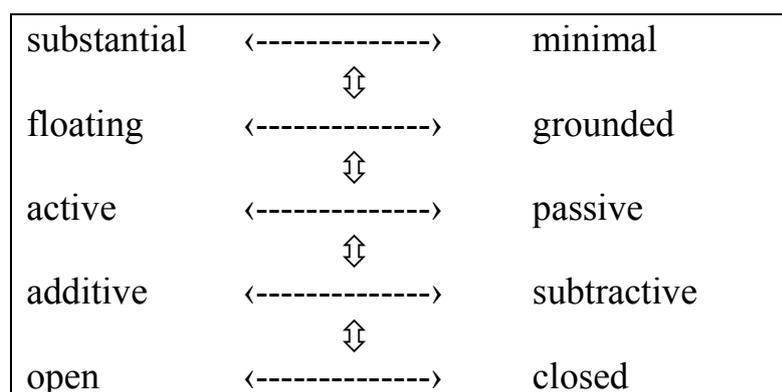
The first axis indicates the quantity of change (the extent of change expected). The second axis refers to how the participants express the nature of their imagined changed identities: i.e. Are they fairly grounded and certain about their imagined selves or are they uncertain and see themselves as somehow 'floating'? The third axis indicates how active they imagine themselves to be during the process of change: i.e. Will they look for opportunities to meet and interact with Kiwis (and learn English) or will they just 'see what happens'? The fourth axis reflects comments the participants made about whether they see their ethnolinguistic identities being 'added' to in some way or being stripped of some attributes. And the final axis represents how open or closed the participants will be to change. Each axis represents a continuum along which the participants could be located, and these of course are all interconnected. It is probably the case that the same or a similar set of axes applies to most migrants, not only to the Afrikaans speakers in this study, and not only in their imagined communities, but in their actual lives in their new countries.

Just to give you an idea of what is meant by these axes, I present below a few snippets from the narrative interviews. By doing this, I hope to show that experiences of migration, language learning and identification are not always the same for everyone, and sometimes may be quite different from what we expect. Again, bear in mind communities that you are familiar with in order to contextualise these examples for yourselves.

The first example, Excerpt 6, comes from Uwe. He is 28years old, married with two children and a successful businessman. As you will notice, Uwe is fairly *grounded* and *closed*, and he appears to anticipate *minimal* change in his imagined identity.

Excerpt 6

> I will always stay a born Afrikaans, *'n gebore Afrikaner*. And I'm proud of it, I have no regrets to it, I will always say, I'm Afrikaans and I'm from South Africa, you know. I don't think I will ever lose that. … I don't try to be somebody else that I'm not. I will adapt, I will change certain things in my life but I will always stay a born *Afrikaner, boere as jy dit dan so kan sê* [as Afrikaner as you can get]. A lot of people are not proud to say it, but I mean that is what I am.

In contrast, Excerpt 7 is from Matt's interview. He is in his 30s, and is an IT specialist. He is the father of two young children. He's very keen to come to NZ. He would be located towards the *open*, *substantial* and *subtractive* ends of the respective axes.

Excerpt 7

> Ag, it is just easier for them [his children] and we are not attached to Afrikaans, for me it is not about the language, it is about, it is easier to learn English if you are English. … I was never I was never adapted to the Afrikaans culture. … I didn't follow it like strictly and that's because my family was a mixed culture as well. I just find, I would've actually preferred to be brought up English as well. I would rather go English than stay Afrikaans.

In the following excerpt we get a clear case of someone *open* to change as well as being rather *passive* in terms of how she will change. Netta is a nurse, and is married with four young children.

Excerpt 8

> … more open to whatever, wherever the stream pushes me I will go.

Madeleine, who is 41 and in the publishing field, hints at the possibility of existing in third spaces for a while; living in a state of inbetweenness.

Excerpt 9

> In the beginning because you are floating, you are almost floating in the beginning years. You're trying to find yourself.

Izak is Netta's husband. Netta is the participant who is prepared to go where the stream takes her. Izak is also *open* to change, but seems quite definite about how much he expects to change, which is somewhat *substantial*. The percentages he quotes indicate both *additive* and *subtractive* identity change processes.

Excerpt 10
> I think I will be so glad to leave South Africa that maybe I will become Kiwi 80% and South African 20%.

Kallie is a good example of *subtractive* change. He expects to shake off South Africa like a snake sheds its skin. Kallie is actually 82 years old, and has three daughters already living in NZ.

Excerpt 11
> Ja, I think that I'll be a New Zealander because I have to shake off South Africa.

Franz was the youngest participant, and the son of Netta and Izak. At 17 years old he is remarkably wise, realising that he is going to change quite a bit (i.e. *substantial*) but also acknowledging that his cultural and linguistic roots will remain with him (i.e. *grounded*).

Excerpt 12
> If I like it or not, I am Afrikaans. So I can't totally throw it away and say 'I hate you I'm going English'. I'm going to go English mostly, but Afrikaans will still, will always be a part of me.

Finally, we return to Matt, the IT specialist with minimal affiliations to Afrikaans. This quote shows the power of the internet in influencing our imagination and projecting us into other distant worlds. It shows Matt taking on an *active*, *open* and *additive* stance.

Excerpt 13
> I actually like to become more English and more Kiwi. To learn their culture more cause that's an interesting culture from what I've read on the internet. So I'd rather like to become that.

The question to end this third story is as follows:

What do we, as community language practitioners, do about the vast diversity in the real and imagined communities in which we work?

Discussion

In this article so far I have asked three questions: one relating to plurilingualism, one relating to Gert's circumstances (and other migrants like Gert), and the third relating to imagined identities in imagined communities. In response to these questions, I consider now some challenges facing us as community language practitioners. The

first set of challenges (based on Canagarajah, 2009) relates to plurilingual practices. We should accept that in multilingual contexts people shift back and forth between languages and develop plurilingual competence.

More specifically:

- Pedagogy should accommodate modes of communication and acquisition seen outside the classroom; i.e. our teaching practice should take into account the way people learn and use plurilingual practices outside the classroom.
- Plurilingual practices in and between classrooms are permitted. This means permitting multilingual learners to have access to and utilize all their languages in the classroom.
- Parity of competence in all languages is not the goal. This would certainly challenge our thinking about curriculum design and assessment.
- Teaching awareness and appropriate use of standard varieties in plurilingual learning contexts is accepted. In other words, plurilingualism does not mean abandoning teaching mainstream (standard) varieties.

The second set of challenges stems from the diversity we engage with in our practices. As I have illustrated in this article, individuals and communities have diverse real and imagined experiences of language and identity.

Community language speakers and ESOL learners have multiple levels of linguistic *expertise*.

Community language speakers and ESOL learners have multiple, fluid and changeable ethnolinguistic *affiliations*.

The first challenge here refers to *expertise*. Instead of talking about someone being a native speaker of a particular language, and a learner of that language being a non-native speaker, we could talk instead of their relative levels of expertise in the various languages they speak (Rampton, 1990). Rampton argues that this does away with using deficit terminology to categorise our learners. Using *expertise* acknowledges the linguistic ability our learners already have. Also, what do teachers really know about their learners' ability in the various languages they speak? The answers may not always be what we expect.

In terms of *affiliation* (Rampton, 1990) or language loyalty, we may also be surprised. Affiliation is not something that can be imposed on people. Speakers discursively negotiate affiliations as they come into contact with other people and these are sometimes new affiliations – look at the IT specialist Matt, for example, who is very keen to become English and Kiwi. Young people in urban environments like Sela's family and friends also show multiple and changing affiliations with English, Tongan and the language of rap and hip-hop. What do teachers know about their learners' sense of affiliation to the language varieties in their repertoire? It is useful to find out. Many of our pedagogical and policy decisions are made based on answers to this question. And it is also useful for learners to reflect on their own linguistic and cultural

affiliations; it gives them the opportunity to become aware of who they are as language learners, how they relate to others, and how they fit into their new social worlds.

One way of doing this is to "tackle challenging topics", as Norton and Pavlenko (2004) suggest. This is not always easy to do. Issues to do with gender, race and sexual orientation, for example, need to be handled sensitively. But this does not mean we should ignore them. Norton and Pavlenko also suggest our learners "imagine possible futures (or alternative worlds): What communities do they think they will be members of? What will these communities look like? What communities do they desire to live in? How do they want to live their lives in these communities?

To conclude, there are many challenges that relate to the diversity of experiences, both real and imagined, of migrants and refugees. Of course, we are already aware of this diversity in our practice. But, as I said to the audience at CLESOL 2010, I hope this summary of my talk has reminded us just how complex and challenging and exciting it all can be.

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COMPLETELY DIFFERENT WORLDS? WRITING IN AN EAP COURSE AND
THE TRANSITION TO MAINSTREAM STUDY

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Abstract

International students frequently report initial difficulties adjusting to mainstream tertiary study in New Zealand. In order to explore how pre-university EAP courses can facilitate this transition, the study reported in this article compared task protocols and writing demands in the two types of course. It also asked students with experience of both to compare them, and to comment on how well they thought they had been prepared for mainstream study. Study findings brought to light key similarities and differences, and the EAP course components that students considered most useful. Implications for curriculum and methodology in EAP writing programmes are discussed.

Background

Large numbers of international students continue to choose New Zealand as the destination for both their compulsory and tertiary education years. In 2008, 21,000 were enrolled in local universities, with a further 10,000 attending polytechnics and institutes of technology (New Zealand Ministry of Education, 2009). Currently, 4200 of those students are studying at the University of Auckland (University of Auckland, 2009), which sets a level of English language proficiency of IELTS Band 6.0, TOEFL 550 or a foundation-level certificate from an accredited provider as the minimum requirement for admission to Arts, Science and Business degree programmes. The English Language Academy is accredited by the University of Auckland to award a foundation-level certificate in English for Academic Purposes (FCertEAP), which can be used by international students who have already met the academic requirements for admission in place of IELTS to demonstrate that they have met this minimum requirement. The entry level for the FCert EAP is IELTS 5.0 (minimum), and it is awarded to students who successfully complete two full-time, ten-week, integrated skills modules in general-academic English (EGAP).

Patricia Duff (2001) emphasizes the need for EAP teachers to understand the discourse practices of the mainstream courses in which their students will be studying, and also the effects of participating in ESL or EAP courses on students' ability to achieve academically once the shift to mainstream study has been made. In response to this advice, and as a contribution to an area of current research interest in the teaching of EAP, the small-scale study reported in this article investigated the degree of

correspondence between writing tasks required of students at the English Language Academy during their FCertEAP studies, and those required in their degree-level courses in Business and Economics in the following semester. We focus on the skill of writing in this transition process, since it is largely through written texts (course assignments and examination answers) that knowledge is demonstrated in formal education, and because writing creates a visible product in which differences between first- and second- language writers of English can be very marked. In recognition of the fact that the shift from ESL to mainstream studies requires students to make a number of critical adjustments (Harklau, 2000; Leki & Carson, 1997), we asked a small group of first-year students to evaluate the value of the FCertEAP in the light of their university experiences.

The writing demands of university Business and Economics courses
Due to space constraints, this review excludes the many excellent cross-disciplinary surveys of academic writing tasks (e.g. Carson, 2001; Horowitz, 1986; Moore & Morton, 2005) in order to focus on literature relevant to the writing demands of courses in Business and Economics, which are a popular choice for FCertEAP students, as well as many other students from non-English speaking backgrounds. Studies to date have examined writing task protocols from courses in Hong Kong (Jackson, 2005), Lebanon (Bacha & Bahous, 2008), the United States (Canesco & Byrd, 1989; Currie, 1993; Zhu, 2004a), and New Zealand (Gravatt, Richards & Lewis, 1997). Allowing for variation across countries and between undergraduate and postgraduate levels, these studies have confirmed the importance of written outputs in Business and Economics courses, which routinely included examination answers, case analyses, response papers, library reflection papers, academic essays (both expository and argumentative) and various types of short responses. Advanced level courses were more likely to include professionally-oriented writing such as letters, memos and reports in response to specific case scenarios (Devitt, 1991); however, first-year undergraduate courses usually involved academic essays using sources of some kind. Undergraduate courses in EFL environments (e.g. Lebanon, Hong Kong) tended to place fairly minimal writing demands on students in their first two years of study, requiring only short reports and multiple-choice or short-answer question responses. Business and Economics courses can therefore be described as "writing-rich" in that students are likely to be required to write texts of various types and lengths for assignments and timed assessments at some stage in their degree studies.

Faculty perspectives
The views of teachers of Business and Economics courses on the English language difficulties of second language writers have also been surveyed. Teachers in two EFL environments (Bacha & Bahous, 2008; Jackson, 2005), considered their students' standard of writing to be poor, and believed that many regarded English as a relatively unimportant part of their undergraduate studies. Faculty in English-medium universities in the United States (e.g. Eblen, 1983; Lewis, McGrew & Adams, 2002; Seshadri & Theye, 2000; Zhu, 2004b) and New Zealand (e.g. Gravatt et al, 1997;

Smith, 2003; Starks & Lewis, 2001) were in agreement over these key issues: they considered accurate, fluent writing to be essential to success in Business and Economics courses as well as in the professional world of business; however, their priorities when assessing work for academic credit was quality of content and ability to address task demands, with organisation and coherence an important but secondary consideration. Presentation and mechanical aspects of the students' writing did not strongly influence the mark they awarded unless there were a considerable number of language errors which made the text difficult to comprehend. With regard to the texts produced by students, faculty expressed concern about sentence-level structural errors and the narrow range of academic vocabulary used by many students, but appeared to regard errors in spelling and punctuation as being of less importance (Eblen, 1983; Gravatt et al, 1997). They maintained that they did not mark international students' work more leniently than that of domestic students, and particularly not in respect of the value of its content (Gravatt et al, 1997; Lewis et al, 2002). While findings from these studies are somewhat conflicting in respect of the relative importance of content and expression of ideas in the assessment of students' texts in Business and Economics courses, it appears likely that if language errors compromise the comprehensibility of a text, marks will be deducted.

Student perspectives
Although there has been relatively little research into L2 students' perspectives on EAP writing courses, this review was fortunate in being able to draw on five useful local studies, all involving undergraduate L2 students in Business and Economics. Most of the 124 Commerce students included in Gravatt et al (1997) - 40% of whom were first-year students - considered writing to be the most challenging skill, particularly with regard to developing and expressing their ideas and complying with task instructions. Studies by Holmes (2004) and Li, Baker & Marshall (2002) explored difficulties arising from differences between cultures of learning in students' home countries and New Zealand with regard to length and text types of assignments, use of external sources, and the value placed on attributes such as argument development, conciseness, and critical thinking. Other local studies by Johnston (2001), Bright (2002) and Johnson (2008) revealed that many students felt unprepared for the language-intensive nature of first year Business and Economics courses, and as a result suffered loss of confidence and motivation when they were able to achieve only limited success. However, no local studies to date have examined actual differences between the academic literacy demands of ESOL/EAP courses and mainstream courses, and the extent to which abilities developed in one are transferable to the other.

General and specific-purpose EAP courses
A fundamental principle of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses is that their goals are transcendent, in that they relate to students' future success in their mainstream studies (Leki & Carson, 1997 p. 39). Courses at the English Language Academy are all of the general academic purpose type (EGAP), and therefore aim to

develop students' abilities across a range of general academic literacy skills that include planning, writing and editing various text types (e.g. comparison, process, problem-solution) and academic essays using sources. In contrast, specific purpose courses (ESAP) focus on the text types and genres of a particular academic discipline. Debate over the respective merits of these two course types was initiated by Faigley and Hansen (1985) and Spack (1988), who argued that most EAP teachers have insufficient knowledge of the discourses of academic disciplines and sub-disciplines to teach ESAP. Spack (1988) and others (e.g. Currie, 1993; Johns, 1997; Reid, 2002) went on to claim that in fact EGAP pre-university courses are better able to help students gain a degree of mastery in respect of basic, transferable academic literacies such as the three-part essay structure, library and internet research strategies, transition relationships, persuasive techniques, summarizing, analysis and synthesis techniques. Contextual constraints also come into play in this debate since small, discipline-specific classes are much more expensive to staff than large, heterogeneous classes, and can be more difficult to timetable (Etherington, 2008).

Two studies by Leki and Carson (1994, 1997) evaluated pre-university EGAP courses. In the first, participants identified task management strategies for composing, writing using sources, research skills and text organisation skills as particularly useful course components, but expressed a desire to improve their academic vocabulary and knowledge of writing mechanics, even though they were aware that course grades were largely determined by the quality of text content: Leki and Carson (1994) suggested that this may be because students were aiming for increased speed, fluency and precision in their writing. However, students in their 1997 study were less supportive of EGAP, describing classes as intellectually undemanding and, with regard to personal-expression essays, largely irrelevant to the "completely different world" of writing using sources at university. The students requested more emphasis on discipline-specific vocabulary, writing particular academic text types, and pre-fabricated academic phrases.

A key argument made by those who favour ESAP courses (e.g. Baik & Greig, 2009; Huckin, 2003; Hyland, 2002; Zhu, 2004a) is that students' writing at university needs to conform to the expectations of a particular "community of practice" (Lave &Wenger, 1991) with regard to what constitutes a high-quality essay or report, and that EGAP courses can mislead students into believing that academic literacy skills can be generalized across disciplines. They consider the face validity of ESAP courses to be stronger and, as a result, that these are more effective in promoting positive motivation and interest (Huckin, 2003). Collaborative teaching with subject specialists has been trialled as a way of compensating for EAP teachers' lack of disciplinary knowledge (e.g. Creese, 2000; Dudley-Evans, 2001; Perry & Stewart, 2005); however, reports of these trials note the potential for tensions in shared courses with regard to the authoritativeness and position of language v. disciplinary content, and of the language teacher v. the subject teacher.

Methodology

In order to provide evidence from the local context on a number of important issues that have been raised with regard to the value and focus of pre-university EAP courses, this study gathered data from two sources: task protocols from the FCertEAP course and Business and Economics courses, and interviews with a number of students who had studied in both types of course. It addressed these research questions:

1. What degree of equivalence exists between the writing tasks required in a pre-university EGAP course and those of mainstream university Business and Economics courses?

2. How do students who have completed the FCertEAP and Business and Economics courses perceive the writing demands and the way their writing is assessed in each type of course?

3. How do students who have completed the FCertEAP evaluate their level of preparedness for mainstream study?

Writing task protocols from both courses supplied data that was stable and low-inference. Interviews with students provided a complementary, emic perspective on issues of congruence and transferability that were fundamental to the aims of the study.

Document collection and analysis

Participants were asked to supply copies of assignment tasks from their Business and Economics courses. Examination questions for these courses were obtained from the University of Auckland library website. Documents from the FCertEAP (syllabus, assignment and examination task protocols) were gathered for analysis. Writing tasks from both types of course were examined with regard to number of tasks, specificity of content, task verbs, text types, word length and assessment criteria.

Participants

As producers of texts and receivers of feedback in both types of educational environment, students' perspectives were of inherent importance in this study. Participants were international students who had successfully graduated from the FCertEAP programme [1] and recently completed their first semester in undergraduate Business and Economics courses at the University of Auckland. Of the 15 students who met these criteria and were able to be contacted by email, four volunteered to participate. Table 1 provides relevant biographical information on the group, all of whom are referred to using pseudonyms. Data were gathered from participants through a questionnaire followed by an interview.

Table 1: Information on participants' backgrounds

	Kota	**Kate**	**Alexi**	**Ben**
Gender	M	F	M	M
Age	20	20	19	24
Nationality	Japanese	Taiwanese	Russian	Hong Kong
Time at English Language Academy	5 months	5 months	5 months	5 months
Programme	Bachelor of Commerce	Bachelor of Commerce	Bachelor of Commerce	Grad. Dip. Commerce
Courses taken in Semester 1, 2009	MGMT 101 ECON 101 ACCTG 101	MGMT 101 ECON 101 ACCTG 101	MGMT 101 ECON 101 ACCTG 101 STATS 101	MGMT 231 IntBus 302 IntBus 303 MGMT 319

Questionnaire and interview data collection and analysis

Initially, participants were requested to complete a three-part questionnaire. The first section of nine questions recorded information about each participant's educational background. The second section elicited an evaluation of participants' learning experiences at the English Language Academy by asking them to respond to statements about their English Language Academy course and university experiences on a 5-point Likert scale. The final section consisted of a table requesting an assessment of the usefulness of 12 tasks in the writing component of the FCertEAP course (e.g. editing and revising a text, summarising, using academic vocabulary, writing using sources) in the light of the Business and Economics courses they had just completed.

Students' reflective comments in the questionnaire were further investigated in semi-structured interviews lasting approximately forty-five minutes. These aimed to explore individual insights, while at the same time gathering data that could be compared across participants (Perry, 2005). Sixteen interview questions elicited views on writing in the FCertEAP and at university, comments on the usefulness and value of the course and information about university studies, including academic grades and feedback on writing from lecturers. Three interviews were held face-to-face and one by telephone in June, 2009: two interviews were audio-recorded, while comprehensive notes were taken of the content of the other two.

Questionnaire responses were tallied and interview notes and transcriptions coded thematically. Each author coded the interview data separately and compared their results. Differences in interpretation were resolved and omissions corrected.

Findings

Study findings are reported as they relate to the main aims of the study: an investigation of the degree of congruence between writing in the FCertEAP and in Business and Economics courses, students' perspectives on the writing component of these two courses and their reflections on the extent to which the FCertEAP course prepared them for mainstream study.

Writing content of FCertEAP and Business and Economics courses

One aim of the study was to compare the writing demands of both types of course; however, in this regard it needs to be noted that writing requirements differed across the eight Business and Economics courses: Management and International Business courses were much more writing-rich than courses in Accounting, Economics and Statistics, and while some courses (ACCTG 101, MGMT 101, 231, 319) had a reasonably substantial weighting for coursework, in others students earned most of their marks in the end-of-course examination (STATS 101, IntBus 302, 303).

The specific task requirements of the FCertEAP, and of the Business and Economics courses taken by study participants are presented in summary form in Appendices 1 and 2. Comparison of the two reveals that task verbs for expository and argumentative writing are similar (e.g. *discuss, examine, explain, describe*), and both ask students to write cause-effect, problem-solution and comparison texts. However, while FCertEAP writing topics are non-discipline specific, task instructions in Business and Economics courses supply detailed and specific contextual information that require transformation and application of theoretical knowledge from course content to specific, real-life examples (e.g. ECON 101 coursework, MGMT exam) or to data presented in the task instructions (ECON 101 examination). Most of the sample tasks in Appendix 2 ask students to draw on their learning to account for current, real-life situations and practices, or to supply empirical evidence to support a particular perspective (IntBus 302 exam), or to make an evaluative response (Econ 101 coursework, IntBus 303 exam, MGMT 319 coursework).

As a main aim of the FCertEAP is to develop academic writing skills, students write significantly more (1-2 per week) but shorter (250 words approximately) course work texts than the one or two 1000-2000 word essays required for the university courses. The M4 research essay of the FCertEAP corresponds more closely than any other assignment to Business and Economics courses in terms of word length and assignment type, and the need to answer research questions by arguing a point of view, supported by research evidence.

With regard to assessment criteria, marking schedules supplied by students for ECON 101 and MGMT courses confirm the finding of previous studies (e.g. Gravatt et al, 1997; Starks & Lewis, 2001; Zhu, 2004b) that the main focus of assessment criteria is students' ability to construct an appropriately sourced academic explanation or argument (50%), followed by the clarity and coherence of the essay structure. Referencing and "writing style" (including mechanics; grammatical and lexical

accuracy) count for a relatively small percentage of the final mark. In contrast, FCertEAP criteria place exactly equal emphasis on four criteria: task achievement, coherence and cohesion, lexical range and accuracy, and grammatical range and accuracy, and are therefore more strongly language-oriented.

Student perspectives on writing in the FCert and Business and Economics courses
In the questionnaire, students were asked to respond to statements about writing at the English Language Academy and the University of Auckland on a 1-5 scale (1=strongly agree; 5=strongly disagree), and to complete a table with their evaluation of FCertEAP components. With regard to the first section, agreement or strong agreement (1 or 2) was recorded against these statements by three or by all four participants: the importance of writing at university, usefulness of instruction in academic writing, proportion of time spent on writing, and progress made in writing ability as a result of taking the course. Less emphatic agreement was recorded against statements asking about their success in writing at university (two agreed, one was neutral and one disagreed), whether they found writing at university difficult (two agreed and two disagreed), and the strength of correlation between FCertEAP writing and university writing (two were neutral, while two disagreed). There was general agreement by all four students that language-focussed FCertEAP studies had been very valuable, but also general agreement (confirmed by the analysis of assessment protocols) that, in general, FCertEAP writing did not closely resemble writing tasks they were expected to write in Business and Economics courses.

The questionnaire asked students to reflect on the usefulness of specific skills developed in FCertEAP studies. All four found paraphrasing and summarizing, referencing skills, appropriate use of cohesive devices, text editing and work on grammar and sentence structure useful. Three of the four students rated work on writing processes, analysis of task demands and vocabulary development as useful. None of the eleven writing skills or task types listed on the questionnaire was considered unhelpful. Differences in students' questionnaire responses may be accounted for by the degree of emphasis on extended writing in the courses they had been studying, and their own degree of writing ability and/or academic success.

Participants were interviewed about their first semester of university study, and comments are noteworthy for the degree of self-awareness and insight, as well as the success-oriented approach to improving their writing and meeting university study demands, that they display. Students' responses describe similarities, differences, course value and suggestions for improvement. All four believed that two components of the FCertEAP approximated the writing demands of university courses: the research-based essay and writing using sources (paraphrasing, summarizing, integrating sources and referencing using APA). Alexi noted that "the research project taught me about weaving the references and ideas from the articles into my writing assignment, as well as planning the structure of a long essay." Kate and Alexi pointed out that basic composing processes had been useful, and that the structure of an

academic essay as taught at the English Language Academy was very similar to what was required in university courses.

All four students also commented on differences between feedback from teachers in the FCertEAP and those in mainstream courses, in that ELA teachers strongly emphasized the development of language and writing skills, while university faculty feedback focussed almost exclusively on quality of content. In Kate's words, "the content of the essay is really important, but the FCertEAP focussed more on how to write an essay." She also commented that university lecturers simply noted language errors, which was not as helpful for improving her writing as the constructive feedback she had received from FCertEAP staff. Ben also considered that feedback from lecturers was different: "in the English Language Academy teachers work on your English [but] the feedback from the lecturers is more about your understanding of the topic or area. The English level becomes a minor detail to them." Alexi (average grade A- at university), described lecturer feedback as "constructive critique…mostly about ideas", Kota (average grade B/B-) reported that on one Business and Economics assignment he had received 45 negative (but no positive) comments about the language and content of his work.

A third difference mentioned by all four students was that their university grades were lower by a half or whole grade band than grades in the FCertEAP. Although they claimed not to have been surprised by this, their comments suggest that their expectations for success based on FCertEAP grades had not been met. For example, Kota stated that "the evaluation system [of the FCertEAP] should be the same as the uni and the teachers here could be more strict…[otherwise] the students will have difficulty in the uni." Three students pointed out that particular text types in the FCertEAP courses had not been used at university (process, data commentary and critique). However, Alexi remarked that "it was good practice as far as it develops writing skills" and Kota noted that perhaps "these will be useful in the second or third stage – I'm not sure". Ben believed that composing processes were to a large extent idiosyncratic, therefore FCertEAP instruction in brainstorming and outlining had not been particularly useful for him.

With regard to the most useful components of the FCertEAP, participants' interview statements confirmed their questionnaire responses. The value of learning how to write using sources, construct academic arguments, revise texts, and to achieve precision and elegance in their use of grammar and vocabulary were all mentioned by more than one student. These same FCertEAP components were also mentioned by students as the areas where they felt improvement was still needed. While all four were appreciative of the amount of different types of writing practice and constructive feedback they had been given in their EGAP classes, three stated a preference for an ESAP focus. Ben considered that this would "add some more depth to it as, comparing to the university essay, the 150 word essay in the English Language Academy is just like a kindergarten level. It's just too general and leads to underpreparation for uni. courses."

Discussion

Analysis of documents and students' statements confirm the findings of overseas studies with regard to the importance of writing in university disciplines such as Business and Economics, and many of their particular requirements. Study findings therefore support the claim that, far from being remedial in nature, EAP courses play an important role in helping students to gain some mastery over a number of fairly sophisticated, learned literacies.

When asked to compare writing content in the FCertEAP with degree courses, all four participants identified instruction in the complex skill of writing using sources and the long, researched essay on a topic related to their field of study as particularly valuable course components. They also named text types (e.g. cause and effect, problem solution, comparison) and the academic essay genre as common to both types of course. Like participants in the Leki and Carson (1997) study, these students were grateful for the opportunity to focus on improving language-oriented and organisational aspects of their writing before beginning university study, but realized that these skills would require ongoing attention. In view of participants' reports about lecturer feedback and the findings of previous local studies (e.g. Gravatt et al, 1997; Smith, 2003) regarding the importance of accurate and precise writing in building academic arguments and explanations, it seems that the portion of EAP courses that is currently allocated to text organisation, coherence, syntax, vocabulary and mechanics is time well spent.

Although participants appeared to be more confident and better prepared for university than those in other local studies (Bright, 2001; Holmes, 2004; Johnson, 2008), they conceded that their first semester of university study had delivered quite a jolt in terms of its academic demands. They identified four ways in which their pre-university writing experiences had proved different and less challenging than what they faced at university: more general and less conceptually demanding content; shorter assignments, more lenient marking, and more supportive feedback that emphasized language elements rather than quality of ideas and argumentation. It needs to be noted, however, that these difference are entirely congruent with the dissimilar aims of EAP and mainstream courses.

Components of the FCertEAP that participants found particularly valuable were instruction in research skills, writing using sources, how to construct a coherent academic argument, language development (including general and discipline-specific academic vocabulary), and the 1500 word researched essay. Cross-disciplinary language patterns such as prefabricated chunks for signposting and marking transitions, hedging options, academic style, tone, register, precision and conciseness that are currently included in the FCertEAP curriculum also received favourable comment. Overall, study findings suggest that these FCertEAP graduates might well have fared better, and have been more positive in their outlook, than those who enter mainstream study without completing an EAP course (e.g. Bright, 2002; Johnson, 2008; Johnston, 2001), or those who enter through the IELTS pathway.

This small-scale study concedes limitations of a very small sample size and reliance on data from one provider; however a number of implications for practice can be suggested. Although three of the four participants supported the views of those in favour of ESAP for all academic literacies courses (e.g. Hyland, 2002; Zhu, 2004), the contextual constraints of many EAP contexts often mean that neither ESAP nor collaborative teaching are practicable options. Nevertheless, a number of possibilities exist for easing students' transition to mainstream studies.

Firstly, while keeping in mind their main role of developing a set of transferable academic literacies, EGAP courses preparing students for mainstream study also need to be grounded in current, detailed knowledge of the literacy demands of the specific types of mainstream courses in which students intend to study, rather than operating from a position of detachment and lack of knowledge. Their curricula need to draw on this awareness to include instructional tasks that approximate as closely as possible the task demands, conceptual complexity and types of real-world data and evidence that characterize writing in subject disciplines. Pre-mainstream courses need to provide students with academic credit for, and feedback on the quality of their ideas, use of data, clarity of explanation and ability to argue a reasoned point of view as well as on language components, so as to promote engagement with general academic and discipline-oriented issues. An item bank of extracts from basic academic textbooks and journals in relevant subject areas as well as current social, environmental, technological and economic issues (rather than just journalistic and web-sourced texts) could provide sources for researched essays and summary-writing, as well as for vocabulary development.

With regard to content themes through which these skills are developed, choices need to be offered, since usually students about to enter mainstream study are (and need to be) focussed on mastering specific disciplinary content in particular subject areas. An alternative would be to negotiate the selection of texts related to one a theme of general academic relevance and interest to all; however with groups of international students from diverse backgrounds with diverse interests (which might well not include any topic local to New Zealand or the Asia-Pacific region) this may not be feasible. The inclusion of linguistically and conceptually demanding (but still comprehensible and achievable) texts and tasks would provide an important means by which students come to notice similarities and differences between ESL/EAP and mainstream courses, and what they should expect from the latter. It is hoped that curriculum content and instructional strategies along these lines will help to reduce the sense of dislocation that many students experience on making the critical transition to mainstream study, and enhance their chances of achieving academic success.

Note
1. Although the second author was a teacher at the English Language Academy at the time of the study, she had not taught any of the participants during their FCertEAP studies.

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Appendix 1: Writing in the FCertEAP

FCert EAP: Module 3 & Module 4	
Course work: tests & assignments **(word length)**	Summary and critique(M3, M4) Short (250 words) weekly writing tasks on these text types: process (M3); advantages / disadvantages (M3, M4); compare / contrast (M3, M4); problem / solution (M3); cause / effect (M3, M4); discussion (M4); argument (M4). Source material supplied. *Example: Choose one of these topics and write about causes and effects: Water or Air Pollution, Unemployment, War, An important historical event in your country.* *Example: "There are too many cars on the roads today". Discuss this problem, providing some possible solutions."* Annotated bibliography: summarize and critique 5 academic articles (supplied) on a general academic topic: Education, Environment, Health, Business (450 each); *20%* (M3) Research essay: same topic areas as for M3: essay using sources based on four research questions. Draft and final version assessed; (1500); *25%* (M4)
Writing skills (M3 & M4)	Paraphrasing and summarizing In-text and end-of-text referencing (APA) Integrating sources Brainstorming, outlining and structuring an essay Analysing essay questions Cohesion; sentence and paragraph structure Syntax, vocabulary; mechanics
Criteria (M3 & M4, equal weighting)	<u>Task achievement</u>: fulfils task requirements, acceptability to reader <u>Coherence and cohesion</u>: organisation, complexity of meaning achieved, ease with which reader can comprehend the text <u>Lexical accuracy and range</u>: precision and range <u>Grammatical accuracy and range</u>: sentence structure, agreement, verb tenses
Examinations (word length)	*Example (M3): The diagram below shows the environmental issues raised by a product over its life cycle. Summarize the information by selecting and reporting the main features, and make comparisons where relevant (250).* *Example (M3): In the current world, employees have a lot of flexibility in working locations. Many work from home, others from coffee shops or other locations Discuss the benefits and problems associated with teleworking or working away from the office (250).* *Example (M4): Students listen to and read texts on biofuels, and use their notes to write an essay on the extent to which biofuels are the answer to the current fuel crisis (250).* *Example (M4): Many companies now believe that it is important to give jobs to older people as well as young. Others feel that they should only look for people who are starting out in the job market. Write an essay discussing both these positions (250).*

Appendix 2. Writing in eight Business and Economics courses.

Business & Economics	Coursework: text types & task requirements, (word length); % final mark	Examination: text types; % final mark; Sem. 2, 2008 and Sem. 1, 2009
ACCT 101 (*Kota, Kate, Alexi*)	Explanatory and interpretive short answers, (80-180); *30%*; short report, (300); *10%*	Short answers requiring students to: *explain…, calculate…, identify…, describe…, suggest…;* multiple-choice questions; *60%*
ECON 101 (*Kota, Kate, Alexi*)	Two explanatory/argumentative essays: Essay 1: *explain the rationale for increasing tax on alcopops…the likely incidence of this tax increase…the argued relationship between alcopops and straight spirits…conclude by expressing your own views about whether this policy is likely to …;*(1000); *10% each essay*	Short answers requiring students to: *calculate…, plot…, discuss…, demonstrate…; explain…, state…draw…, define…, 80%* *e.g. In New Zealand, police officers are paid more than the market rate for jobs with a similar training level (e.g. kindergarten teachers) whereas university lecturers in economics are paid less than the market rate for jobs in the private and government sectors requiring PhD level qualifications.* *(a) Can Efficiency Wage theory explain either of these apparent anomalies?* *(b) Can Adverse Selection explain either of these apparent anomalies?*
MGMT 101 (*Kota, Kate, Alexi*)	Discussion essay: *the contribution of one historical theory from course content to contemporary organisational practice* (1500); *15%;* Problem-solution essay: *response to CSR by one global organisation and what tools would help them improve their social performance;* (2000); *25%*	Two essays: *e.g. (1) Discuss at least four causes of team conflict. Recommend practical steps managers can take to overcome these conflicts; (2) Compare and contrast the relevance of Porter's Five Forces and the SWOT analysis for developing effective organisational strategy; (3) Discuss – "Good leadership comes from being flexible and responding to followers' needs"; 60%*
STATS 101 (*Alexi*)	Short answers: *Briefly describe…., Justify..; 16%*	Multiple-choice questions; *84%*

MGMT 231 *(Bee)*	Problem-solution essay: *(a) Calculate own ecological footprint, explain its implications; (b) examine the current average individual footprint; (c) make suggestions for achieving reductions in the ecological footprint*; (2000); *40%*	Two explanatory and discussion essays: *e.g. (1) "Fiscal and monetary policy are economic public policies" – explain how a government uses such policies and why; (2) The WTO, IMF and World bank set the rules for globalisation – discuss with examples how they do this.*
IntBus 302 *(Bee)*	Discussion essay: *advantages and disadvantages of foreign direct investment (FDI), reasons for multinationals taking FDI as an entry mode, impact of FDI on home country;* (2000); *15%*	Three essays: e.g. *(1) Discuss the theoretical benefits and costs of FDI to host nations with reference to the exogenous and endogenous growth models. Use empirical studies to support your arguments; (2) Institutions at the national and sub-national levels contribute to locational advantages, part of the OLI paradigm…discuss ways in which sub-national institutions can impact on the attractiveness of a location to foreign investors and preferred entry mode; 85%.*
IntBus 303 *(Bee)*	Group report; *0%*	Two essays: *e.g. (1) "Cultures are becoming more and more similar" – critically evaluate the validity of this statement using two specific examples; (2) In your opinion, what are the two most important cross-cultural issues facing today's managers? Justify your choice of issues and recommend how managers might overcome them; 100%.*
MGMT 319 *(Bee)*	Two discussion/argument essays: *(1) "Creating a fun culture is an important management activity that will result in more motivated employees"; (2)"A zero tolerance policy is the best way to manage cyberloafing and personal use of the Internet during working hours" – respond to this statement;* 2500; *25% each*	Ten paragraph-length answers: *e.g. (1) Outline the impact of "household strategy" on employment choices; (2) Briefly discuss three issues caused by the growth in non-standard work; (3) What aspects of an organisation's culture can be understood or inferred from viewing their workplace displays and artefacts?; 50%.*

UNDERSTANDING CONTEXT AND IMPROVING COMMUNICATION: MEDIATING THE WORLDS OF THE PRACTITIONER AND RESEARCHER

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Many of us, especially those of us working in tertiary, academic contexts, find ourselves under increasing pressure to research, publish and thus contribute to the growth of New Zealand's 'knowledge economy'. It is pertinent, though, to ask questions about whether this research and the knowledge that is generated by it is 'consumer friendly', that is, whether it is accessible to the practitioner or language teacher. The idea that there is a gulf between the worlds of the practitioner and the researcher has been widely acknowledged (Stewart, 2006). I believe that there is evidence to suggest that this gap also exists in New Zealand. This evidence comes, firstly, from my own personal experience of confronting the assumption that as an academic I would have no understanding of language teaching (Erlam, 2008). It has also been evidenced in the attitude of some students returning to tertiary study from employment as language teachers. These students have been motivated to gain a qualification, but have been initially dismissive of the fact that they might learn anything useful from their academic study. This rather anecdotal evidence has led me to conclude that in New Zealand, as elsewhere, the world of research/ academia may be perceived as having nothing to contribute to the world of practice/ teaching.

I have three ideas for why this gap may exist. I will discuss each of these in turn and, for each, suggest a possible way forward, providing some evidence for why I think it is possible to bridge the gap.

Research is not accessible

The first problem is one of accessibility. There are two possible reasons why research is not accessible to the practitioner. There is, firstly, a 'language gap'. This gap is partly attributable to the fact that the researcher and the practitioner are each working with different types of knowledge (Ellis, 1997). Technical knowledge is typically the type of knowledge that is the domain of the researcher. It is explicit, acquired deliberately and can be examined analytically. The practitioner, on the other hand, is more likely to work with practical knowledge. Practical knowledge is acquired implicitly through experience and can be drawn on rapidly in a given context. These two types of knowledge are each characterised by a very different type of language or what Ellis refers to as different 'discourse domains'. The language of the discourse domain of technical knowledge can be inaccessible and even alienating for the practitioner.

The second 'accessibility' problem concerns the availability of research. Levin (2009) claims that there is a need for 'knowledge mobilization'. We will return to this point later.

There is, encouragingly, evidence to suggest that second language acquisition research may be made accessible to teachers/practitioners in such a way that they will want to engage with it. A successful example of this, outlined more fully in Erlam (2008), was motivated by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2005. Rod Ellis was asked to provide a summary of the literature on effective language teaching with the aim of presenting 'a set of general, research-based principles that [could] serve teachers as a guide to effective language teaching and as a basis for evaluating their own teaching' (Erlam, Sakui & Ellis, 2006 p. 2). This literature review (Ellis, 2005) was widely disseminated in New Zealand (published on the MOE website and a hard copy was sent to every school). At the crux of the review were ten principles of effective instructed language learning which became widely known within the state school system as the 'Ellis principles'. At the same time, as part of the same project, Keiko Sakui and myself went into French and Japanese classrooms to find evidence of these principles in practice. We wrote up a series of four case studies which were published and, again posted on the MOE website and sent to all NZ schools (Erlam, Sakui & Ellis, 2006). However, it would be very wrong to conclude that the work of making technical knowledge (in the form of the literature review and the case studies) available to teachers finished here, with these written publications, and that teachers embraced this endeavour on the part of the researchers involved with open arms! The reality is, rather, that a lot of work went into making these principles, and the evidence of the principles in practice in New Zealand classrooms, accessible to teachers. For a year, I was very busy 'workshopping' the principles and the case studies all around New Zealand, working with groups of language advisors and groups of teachers at local seminars. The language advisors, in turn, then took the principles and once again 'unpacked' them and gave teachers the chance to engage with them in their professional development sessions. How much these endeavours contrast with the usual approach to disseminating research, the assumption that a publication is enough!

Evidence for the success of this MOE initiated project is presented in Erlam (2008); one indication is the level of familiarity that foreign language teachers have with the Ellis principles. However there is also evidence to suggest that teachers have engaged more particularly with certain of the ten principles to the exclusion of others. This was made apparent to me at the 2010 New Zealand Association of Language Teachers (NZALT) conference, where I sat next to a tertiary language teacher educator and one of the executive members of NZALT, who told me that it was Principles 1, 6, 7, and 8 that had had the greatest impact. Table 1 displays these principles, with the key concept underlined in each.

Table 1: The 'high impact' Ellis principles

No	Principle
1	Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of **formulaic expressions** and a rule-based competence
6	Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 **input**
7	Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for **output**
8	The opportunity to **interact** in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency

It is interesting to speculate to what extent these principles may have been more successful in terms of uptake because the language used is accessible. Or they may have been more successful because they are conceptually less abstract and theoretical and because it is easier to find evidence of them in the classroom. These comparisons are made with reference to the other principles, which are built around more theoretical language and concepts such as **inbuilt syllabus**, **implicit/explicit knowledge** and **focus on form.** Whatever the reason, it is important to note that the teachers determined for themselves what was relevant and in Erlam (2008) I identify this as another possible reason for the success of the project.

I have focused on the Ellis principles but it is important to remember that case studies showing evidence of these principles in practice in NZ schools were also part of this project. These case studies told 'stories'. They were what Freeman and Johnson (1998) call 'situated accounts' because they showed the teachers what was possible in their own context. Crandall (2000, p. 40) talks about the effectiveness of using 'case studies and stories . . . to provide a means of bridging theory and practice and demonstrating the complexity of teaching as a profession'.

The language gap of the different discourse domains is one part of the problem of research accessibility. The second problem is that research is often, simply, not available to those to whom it would be relevant. Levin (2009) is an educationalist who argues that the lack of impact of research in education is a consistent theme. In research investigating 15 universities around the world he found that very few gave any priority to creating research impact. He issues a challenge to researchers: we have, he says, to prioritise 'Knowledge mobilization', that is, we have got to do something with the research we are doing. He identifies three important steps in this process. Firstly, we need to ask who would want to know about our work and how they could reasonably learn about it. Secondly, we need to commit a proportion of our effort to sharing what is learned and lastly, we have to recognise the importance of the personal connection in this process (Levin, 2009).

The concerns of the researcher are not relevant to the practitioner

I now come to the second main reason for the gap that seems to exist between the worlds of the researcher and practitioner in NZ. This is that the concerns of the researcher are not perceived as being relevant to those of the classroom/practitioner. This problem is not new and was rather famously explained in the words of Lightbown (1985, p. 182): 'Second Language Acquisition research does not tell teachers what to teach and what is says about how to teach they have already figured out'. The reason is, claims Ellis (1998), that much research has been informed by a knowledge-driven model concerned with testing and advancing the knowledge base of the discipline by constructing and testing explicit theories. Some of these theories, such as Universal grammar, are not even relevant, Ellis points out, to language teachers.

I suggest that there are possible solutions. In the first of these teachers can be encouraged to do their own research. They can test out the results of others' research and establish its applicability to their particular teaching contexts. They can also engage in action research. There are some encouraging examples of this in a New Zealand context. In one, Jeurissen & Kitchen (2007) asked the following question: 'Teacher research: Are the outcomes worth the struggle?' Their overall conclusion was positive, they found that teachers who engaged in research believed that their research led to more effective teaching and learning and that they were more aware and questioning of their teaching practices. These teachers had commented that often the professional development that they had been involved in was too far removed from their specific teaching contexts. The barriers that had prevented these teachers from previously engaging in research were a lack of time and a lack of experience in research skills. In another study Denny (2005) asked a similar question, again from a rather negative perspective: 'Can busy classroom teachers really do classroom research?' Denny again found that issues of time and expertise were problems, but she reported similar benefits for teachers engaging in research. They too became more reflective and got reliable instead of anecdotal feedback on their practice.

A second solution to the problem that research may not be perceived as relevant to teachers is for researchers and teachers to engage in collaborative research, in this case drawing on what Ellis (1998) calls an interactive model. A final possibility is for researchers to investigate issues that are of relevance to teachers/practitioners. This approach, inspired by a decision-driven model (Ellis, 1998), would base research on a concern that teachers had.

Teachers/teachers are confident in their own practice

We now come to my third and last point for why I think that there is a gap between the worlds of the researcher and practitioner in New Zealand. This is that teachers are confident in their own practice. Perhaps this understanding brings with it a challenge to the way that we view teacher knowledge and learning. We have to start from a position of acknowledging the huge amount of knowledge and expertise that teachers already have, we have, as Burns and Richards (2009, p. 4) say, to 'make visible the

nature of practitioner knowledge'. In her research with teacher educators Hacker (2008) provided evidence of how teachers were being deskilled because what they knew would work in their own classrooms was not taken into account. In in-service work, says Hacker (2008, p. 146), we've got to get the teachers to develop themselves, or more precisely, develop each other'. As Burns and Richards (2009) claim, teacher learning does not come about through 'translating knowledge and theories into practice', that is, we can't package up findings from research and send them 'over the fence', so to speak, to the practitioner. Rather, teachers learn when they are able to construct 'new knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts'. This is, perhaps, another reason why the Ellis principles and case studies have been effective. The approach with which they were presented was client -centred (Erlam, 2008). In other words, in workshopping the principles with the teachers, it was important to acknowledge what the teachers and practitioners knew and to also acknowledge that they alone could determine what would be appropriate for their teaching context.

I began this paper by acknowledging that there is increasing pressure on educators and academics to engage in research. It is perhaps useful here to ask questions about the sort of research we are doing and then, perhaps, the sort of research we should be doing. Ortega (2005) argues that value-free research is impossible and she identifies the types of populations that are privileged in research in the US, thereby giving a perspective on the values that are reflected in this research. She claims that second language acquisition research in North American research tends to target adult, literate, college-educated language students. Of greater interest, perhaps, are the groups of populations that are marginalized by this research. 'For SLA to advance', argues Ortega (2005, p. 434), 'it is imperative to forge theories on the basis of evidence from the many different contexts of L2 learning that are almost entirely absent from our research'.

This had me ask a number of questions. What are the values that are reflected in our research in NZ? Or more importantly, what are the populations that are absent from our research? In other words, what are the gaps in research in NZ?

To answer these questions I decided to look at research published in the last 5 years (2005 to 2009 inclusive) in New Zealand. I chose some of the publications that New Zealand researchers might target for NZ based research, in particular. The journals included were as follows: TESOLANZ, New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics, The New Zealand Language Teacher and SET. (I had also intended to include the Journal of Educational Studies but had to exclude it because of difficulty getting access to the 2009 issues). I included those papers in SET which described research relevant to language teaching only. I found a total of 120 articles over the 5 year period. My next step was to classify the articles/research according to type. I classified as 'experimental/exploratory' any research that was essentially modifying or manipulating learning/teaching and measuring outcomes. Research that was

'naturalistic', that is, observing in an authentic teaching context and not intervening in any way was classified as 'classroom observation'. 'Survey-based research' was that research which focused primarily on the use of questionnaires or interviews to probe beliefs, opinions or feelings or to obtain some other data. The category 'other' included papers that did not involve human participants in any way. These were typically position papers or linguistic or textual analyses.

The first question asked was what type of research we are doing, anticipating that this question would also enable us to ascertain whether any particular type of research may be underrepresented. Figure 1 suggests that 'classroom observation' is proportionally underrepresented as a research approach.

Figure 1: Articles classified according to type of research
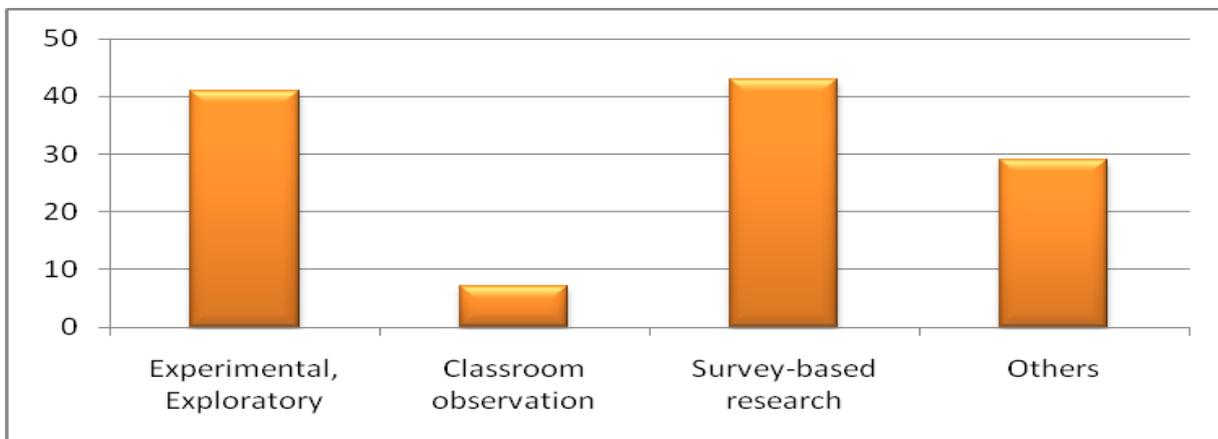
The 120 articles were then classified according to who had motivated the research. This enabled the question of who is conducting the research to be asked. Figure 2 demonstrates that most research is being conducted by researchers, including Masters and PhD students, working in a tertiary context and that very little research is being initiated or conducted by teachers or teacher educators.

Figure 2: Articles classified according to who conducted the research reported
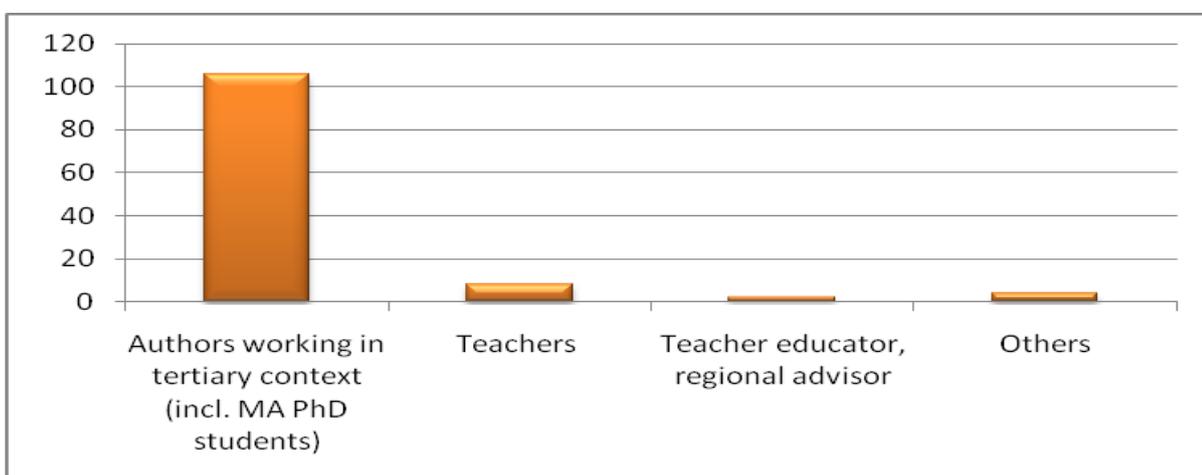
Those articles that included research involving research participants were classified according to type of participant so that the question of what populations are included in our research could be asked. This question would also enable us to ascertain what populations, if any, may be underrepresented in the research that is being carried out. Figure 3 shows that there was little research conducted on Māori and Pasifika populations in the articles that were included in this survey.

Figure 3: Articles classified according to research participants
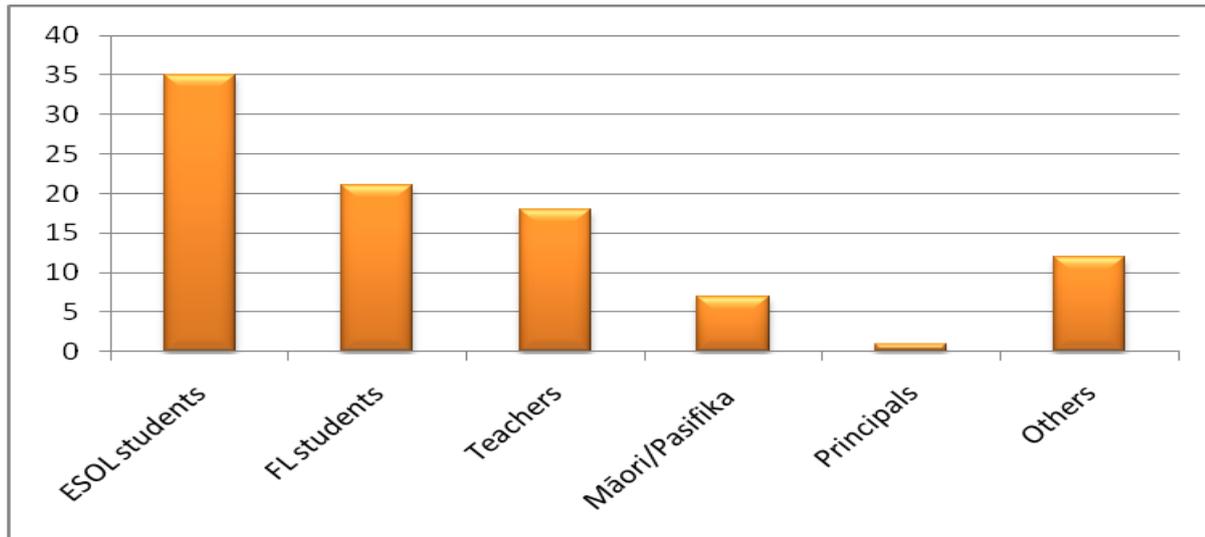
N.B: FL students refers to students of foreign languages

The articles were next classified according to the context in which the research was being carried out. This enabled the following questions to be asked: Which contexts is research being conducted in? Are there any research contexts which are not represented in the research that is being done? Figure 4 suggests that there are potentially a number of contexts which are underrepresented, most notably perhaps, research in migrant learner contexts.

Figure 4: Articles classified according to research context
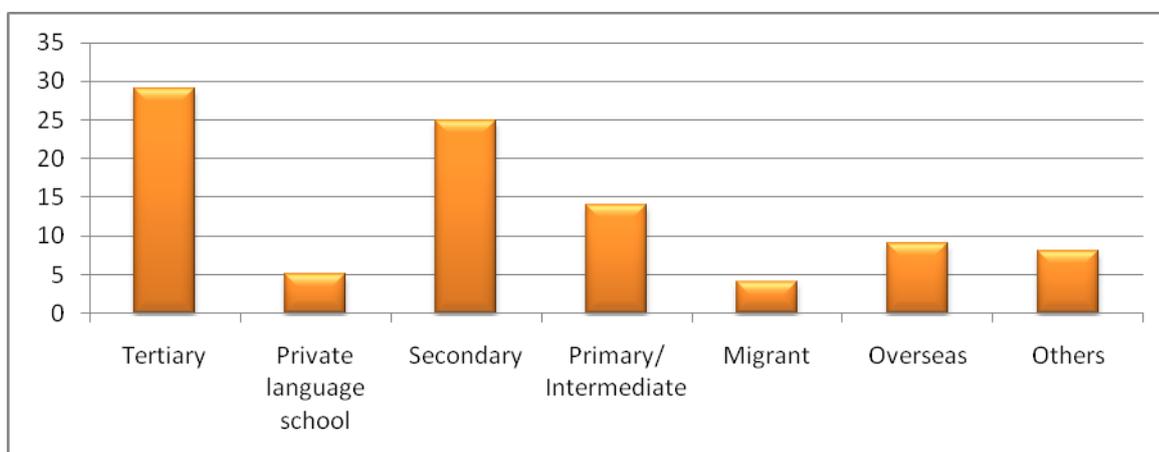
We have, perhaps not surprisingly, a big focus on ESOL in the research that we are conducting. So a last question that is worth asking is what contexts of ESOL teaching and learning are represented, and underrepresented, in our research. Figure 5 suggests that there is an overemphasis on research conducted in tertiary contexts and shows what other contexts are overlooked.

Figure 5: Articles classified according to ESOL context
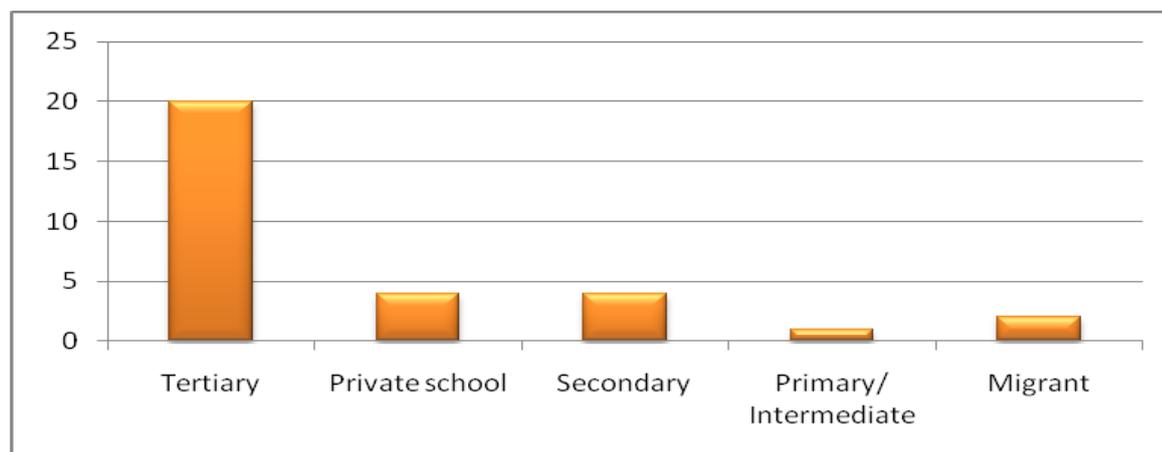
This small scale look at the research that we have been doing suggests that there are some indications of possible ways in which we should be shaping future research directions. It shows that we need research that goes into classrooms to observe and tell us what is really happening in these specific learning contexts, we need research that is motivated and initiated by teachers, that includes Māori and Pasifika populations as well as migrant learners and research that investigates ESOL learning and teaching in contexts other than tertiary.

The literature also identifies some future directions for second language acquisition research in general. It indicates a need for replication studies in order to settle disputes and uncertainties around the facts of second language acquisition (Ellis, 2008). We could add here that we need replication studies that are conducted in New Zealand contexts. There is also a need in research for longitudinal studies, in particular for multi-wave data collection that focuses on and collects data at 'transition points' in a learner's life (Ortega & Byrnes, 2008).

Conclusion

This paper has presented some evidence to suggest that there is a gap between the worlds of the researcher and practitioner in New Zealand. It has postulated some possible reasons for this gap but has also claimed that there are ways of mediating this gap, giving an example of a project that did successfully have teachers engage with second language acquisition research. It has underlined that those working in academic and research contexts need to make a commitment to making their research available and accessible to practitioners. It has also identified a need for teachers to have greater input into research and has suggested some ways in which this may happen. It has also

provided a brief look at the type of research that is being conducted in New Zealand, demonstrating that there are some gaps and recommending how future research could be orientated to address these. It is hoped that these conclusions and recommendations would lead to greater communication between researcher and practitioners and greater understanding of the diverse contexts in which all find themselves.

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IMPROVING THE TEACHING OF THE PRAGMATIC NORMS OF CONVERSATION: A JOURNEY OF REFLECTIVE TEACHER ACTION RESEARCH.

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Abstract

Following the recent renewal of interest in the teaching of pragmatics (Kasper & Roever, 2004), the author has conducted a series of action research investigations into the teaching of pragmatic norms using elicited recorded samples of native speaker role-play (Denny, 2008). This article reflects on the journey and reports in detail on the final cycle of this action research journey in which the teaching of the pragmatics of casual conversation to two classes using such samples was investigated. The results indicate that there are noticeable levels of improvement in the ability of participants to use these norms and they see this improvement as having arisen from exposure not only to these semi-authentic recordings in the classroom but also to contact with native speakers outside the classroom together with explicit input from the teacher.

There has recently been renewed interest in the teaching of the socio-cultural norms of second languages. The importance of these norms has been widely accepted (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Wigglesworth & Yates, 2007; Yates, 2008) and there is some evidence that they are not learned by immersion (Kasper & Roever, 2004). There is also evidence that the more advanced a person's command of the target language, the less socio-cultural or pragmatic mistakes are likely to be tolerated by native speakers (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). Pragmatics is defined by Lo Castro (2003) as 'the study of speaker and hearer meaning created in their joint actions that include both linguistic and non-linguistic signals in the context of socioculturally organised activities' (p. 15) and includes sociopragmatics, or the cultural understanding implicit in the exchange, and pragmalinguistics, or the way these understandings are realised in language. It has been shown that pragmatic norms are teachable and probably best learned by explicit instruction (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper & Roever, 2004), although there is still some debate around whether this applies for all features and conditions (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Takahashi, 2005; Takimoto, 2006, 2007).

Descriptions of some of some of the norms of casual conversation relevant to this article in recent literature include those of small talk (Holmes, 1999, 2005), topic changes in conversation (West & Garcia, 1988) and conversation endings (Grant & Starks, 2001; Schlegloff & Sacks, 1973). A more detailed analysis of the discourse of casual conversation is found in Eggins & Slade (1997).

In the teaching of the linguistic and socio-cultural norms of oral interaction to EAL (English as an Additional Language) learners, the use of authentic or semi-authentic models has been widely advocated (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Butterworth, 2000; Carter, Hughes, & McCarthy, 1998; Yates, 2004, 2008). The limitations of many traditional textbook sample dialogues for teaching natural language have also been noted (Gilmore, 2004; Hughes, 2002). A number of studies and articles and books have outlined, discussed and evaluated methodologies for teaching these norms to language learners, including the use of naturalistic models (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Basturkmen, 2002, 2007; Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006; Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Yates, 2008). These include having students listen to the model texts and do guided consciousness-raising tasks, scaffolded practice of the 'noticed' language, and role-played practice of complete conversations inside the classroom. Other activities include trying the newly-learned language outside the classroom, cross-cultural discussion, and comparison of the norms of the first and target culture.

There has also been research and discussion on using fully authentic sample texts to teach the socio-cultural norms of the workplace (Malthus, Holmes, and Major, 2005; Riddiford, 2007) and the norms of academic contexts (Basturkmen, 2001, 2002, 2007) to more proficient learners. However there is less ready availability of suitable fully authentic texts for learners with other needs and foci. To search corpora or collect fully authentic texts and adapt them for classroom use involves time and expertise that classroom teachers may not have. Instead, elicited data from native speakers rather than fully authentic data can be used. These have some features similar to naturally-occurring data (Golato, 2003) and more responsive to the needs and focus of classroom teaching (Yates, 2008). Another solution, more suitable for classes with a community focus, has been the creation of naturalistic texts using actors and scripts based on an authentic role-played native speaker interaction (Brawn, 2002; Butterworth, 2000; Delaruelle, 2001). Yates, (2008) and Skyrme (1990-1991) have also used this approach in the preparation of classroom materials, using non-professional actors to get more natural delivery.

A challenge in teaching pragmatics is to avoid giving learners the impression that they have to adopt the norms of the target culture, rather than simply becoming aware of them and being empowered to make choices. Making comparisons between the first and target cultures and ensuring that learners are aware that they have a choice is therefore important (Yates, 2004).

An action research journey
In the teaching of adult migrants and refugees I have used action research to improve my practice in the teaching of spoken language. In response to the literature I used authentic and semi-authentic texts first to teach the language features, then the pragmatics of casual conversation between friends and colleagues and finally negotiation (for example between a landlord and tenant over return of the bond) in

New Zealand English. With little time to collect fully authentic samples, I created my own elicited samples, recording native speakers role-playing unrehearsed in a situation familiar to them. I drew partly from the approach of Butterworth (2001) but used non-professional actors as in Yates (2008). An informal analysis of the language of the resulting samples has showed that they contain many of the features of native-speaker oral interaction often omitted in traditional textbook dialogues. These include overlap, backchannelling and evaluative comments while listening (*Mm, that's great*) incomplete sentences, informal language, formulaic language, extended closing sequences and small talk - warm-up talk used at the beginning of many exchanges (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Thornbury & Slade, 2006). I first used these samples to teach spoken language features, and later to teach pragmatic norms.

In order to evaluate this approach, I then carried out a series of action research projects, the most recent in 2007 and 2008. In 2007 I found that there was considerable improvement, measured by pre- and post-tests, in intermediate learners' ability to use socio-pragmatic and pragmalinguistic norms in four areas of negotiation - getting attention, introducing the topic, using appropriate language to negotiate, and finishing the conversation (Denny, 2008). The instruction involved having learners listen to semi-authentic samples, analyse the transcripts, do various awareness-raising activities based on the texts, then scaffolded, and finally independent production. I then taught the pragmatics of casual conversation using a similar approach and carried out two cycles of action research with two classes at a similar level in semester 1 and semester 2, 2008.

This article focuses on some of the findings of the latter investigation, in particular the effects of using elicited spoken texts to teach the socio-pragmatics and pragmalinguistics of three aspects of casual conversation between friends which were problematic for learners: small talk, changing the subject and finishing the conversation.

Investigation into the teaching the pragmatics of casual conversation between equals in NZ English
Participants in the study
There were eight out of 20 consenting students in semester 1, and 15 out of 24 in semester 2. The following table gives a participant profile:

Table 1: Participant profile: consenting students semester 1 (N=8) and semester 2 2008 (N=15)

Number of students	23 students
Countries of origin	▪ China - 11 ▪ Iran - 2 ▪ Korea - 2 ▪ Taiwan - 2 ▪ Japan, Thailand, Sri Lanka, Ethiopia & Somalia - 1 each
Educational background	▪ Tertiary level degrees - 6 ▪ Tertiary qualifications below degree level - 7 ▪ High school qualifications - 9 ▪ No high school qualifications - 1
Goals	▪ Study or goal where tertiary study required - 17 ▪ Paid or community work - 6
Length of time in New Zealand	▪ Less than 2 years - 5 ▪ More than two years - 18

Time in NZ ranged from just one year to 17. Students were admitted to the class mainly on their writing proficiency levels (approximately equivalent to 4 General IELTS). Oral/aural proficiency levels were not formally tested on entry but the range was approximately equivalent to 3.5 to 6 on the General IELTS scale, with most students round 4. The aspirations of the majority (to work in professional or semi-professional contexts) appeared to be to join the educated middle-class in New Zealand. Consequently the samples chosen for instruction involved middle class participants and the norms were those of middle-class Pakeha New Zealand English. Maori norms, where they differed, were discussed. Studies have shown that a knowledge of the norms of conversation are important for success in professional and semi-professional employment (Holmes, 1999) and in the context of undergraduate study (Couper, 2002).

Both cohorts did the same 15 week community focused course in English for speakers of other languages. A comparison of data from the reflective journals in semester 1 and semester 2 indicates the same basic methodology and activities were used in both semesters.

Teaching strategy
The topic was taught over seven weeks with two to three hours of tuition a week. I used as models one semi-scripted text from an Australian text-book (Delaruelle, 2001) and four semi-authentic samples I made from elicited unrehearsed and unedited native-speaker role-play.
The teaching activities I used to exploit the semi-authentic texts included:
   a. Group and whole class (teacher-led) discussion of the cultural context of conversations they were about to hear.

b. Listening to tapes of role-played conversations between native speakers on a variety of topics (see Appendix 1).

c. Answering written comprehension and consciousness-raising linguistic and pragmatic questions about the conversations they had heard, individually and in groups, with teacher guidance (see Appendix 1).

d. Student-to-student role-played practice with some feedback from the teacher.

e. Group and whole-class (teacher-led) discussion involving cross-cultural comparisons between pragmatic features noticed in the target language and those of the first language. During these discussions and later practice sessions the learners were reminded that they did not have to adopt the norms of the target culture in their everyday life, but were merely to show awareness of them in the assessment.

f. Teacher input about the pragmatics of the target language, based on an analysis of the samples.

g. More controlled teacher-led oral activities and written worksheets designed to raise student consciousness and practise the target language pragmatic features.

Research questions

There were four research questions in all. Due to space constraints I will focus on two of these:

1. Was there any change after tuition in the level of student use of New Zealand English socio-cultural norms in a role-played task?

2. Which activities did the participants think 'helped' and 'most helped' them towards any positive changes in their pragmatic skills?

Research procedures

In the investigation the following data was used:

1. Teacher administered pre- and post- tests consisting of a role-played conversation with a classmate. The pre-test was administered before any specific teaching had taken place on conversation. The post-test was administered at the end of the teaching unit on conversation as part of the course assessment. Both were recorded and assessed later on formal criteria (see Appendix 2). The pre- and post-tests consisted of role-play with a partner in which the students were required to start a conversation with a classmate well known to them, keep the conversation going for six minutes (exchanging information and/or opinions on two of a list of five topics: travel/sightseeing, smoking, drugs, or food and restaurants), then finish the conversation.

2. Student pre- and post-tuition written self-assessments of the same skills using similar criteria. These consisted of questions asking students to rate their ability in each of the skills on a three point scale (Yes, Sometimes, No). They were administered after completion of the tuition and after the post-test, but before students had had results or feedback from the post-tests (see Appendix 3).

3. A survey in which they identified all activities which they believed had contributed to improvement in their pragmatic skills, and selected two which had 'most helped' them (see Appendix 4).

4. A journal in which the teacher (who was also the researcher) recorded daily teaching activities and reflections on the progress of the teaching and learning.

The investigation focused on the three skills which the pre-tests showed were most problematic. These were making small talk, changing the subject and finishing the conversation.

The pre- and post-tests and self-assessments were collated and the results compared to ascertain the number of students achieving in each skill at the exit standard for the certificate level of the course pre- and post-tuition. The standard was assessed by reference to a descriptor written for the programme based on ASLPR - the Australian Second Language Proficiency Ratings, (Wylie & Ingram, 1995) - and lies between Basic Social Proficiency and Basic Vocational Proficiency.

The post-tuition survey was collated to see which activities had been most effective from the student perspective.

The reflective journal was analysed by theme and used to provide context and thick analysis and as a record of the classroom activities.

Results
Achievement Post-tuition
The data for the number of students achieving at the exit standard in each of the skills causing initial difficulty is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: the Culture of Convesrsation –Pre/Post Student Demonstrated Achievement in Teacher and Student Data. S1+ S2 08   N=19-23*
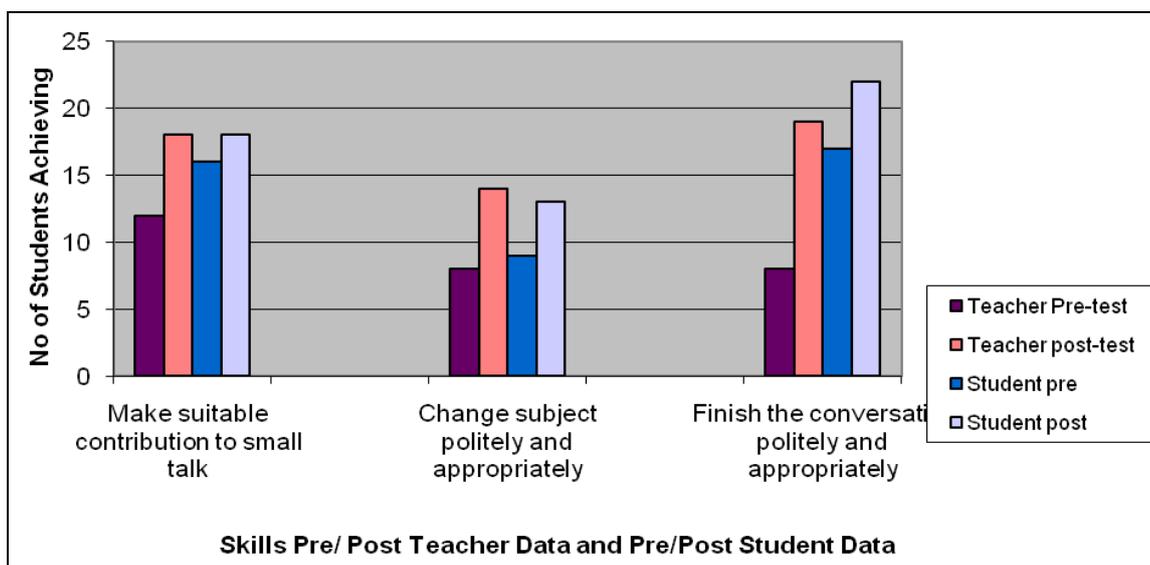
* Note that in 'change subject' four students did not get an opportunity in the interaction to demonstrate these skills, so were removed from the data in this area. So for 'change subject' N=19.

In all three skills in the teacher assessments, 77% or more of participants achieved at the exit level post-tuition (up from between 33% and 53% in the pre-test) and the highest proportion (83%) was in finishing appropriately (up from 33%). Finishing is, of the three areas, the most formulaic and therefore easiest to achieve once the staging norms, ie preclose and close (Grant & Starks, 2001; Schlegloff & Sacks, 1973), are known. It is also most salient because of its position in conversation, and therefore possibly easier to 'notice', a precondition for acquisition (Swain, 2004). Small talk involves knowing which topics are appropriate according to native speaker norms (Holmes, 2005) and knowing the way questions are usually framed by native speakers. Changing the subject involved taking a turn appropriately, appropriately rounding off the last topic by giving short and suitable feedback, using an appropriately discourse marker if there is a substantial change and asking a suitable opening question (West & Garcia, 1988). These kinds of more subtle and complex rules are possibly less salient to learners, and this could be the reason for the lower numbers achieving in 'changing the subject'. Also more online processing (ie listening and composing at the same time) is needed to achieve an appropriate transition (House, 1996).

Post-tuition, the data for student and teacher assessments are similar, with students slightly more confident of their ability to finish the conversation appropriately. The teacher may have been applying stricter criteria than the students, but this is a matter of speculation, and follow-up interviews would have been helpful but were not possible because the self assessments were anonymous.

The teacher data was complicated by the interactive strategy of the more dominant partners of four participants. These learners did not have an opportunity to demonstrate their skills in 'changing the subject' in the assessment. It is difficult to find a way to overcome this difficulty within the role-play format without sacrificing its advantages. Using discourse completion tasks (tasks in which participants are given a scenario and asked to write what they would say in this situation) in addition to the role-play could be a possible strategy which has been adopted by Riddiford & Joe (2010). With higher level learners a reflective journal (which measures awareness but not performance) may more clearly show changes in awareness.

Student perceptions of the role of learning activities in improvement
To gauge which activities might have had an effect on the improvement in competence, the data from the student survey was examined (see Figure 2). In this survey participants were asked to identify all activities they believed had helped in improvement. They were also asked to identify only two they believed had 'most helped' them (see Appendix 4).

Figure 2: Student Survey – activities that helped and most helped in improvement – conversation S1 + S2 2008 N = 23
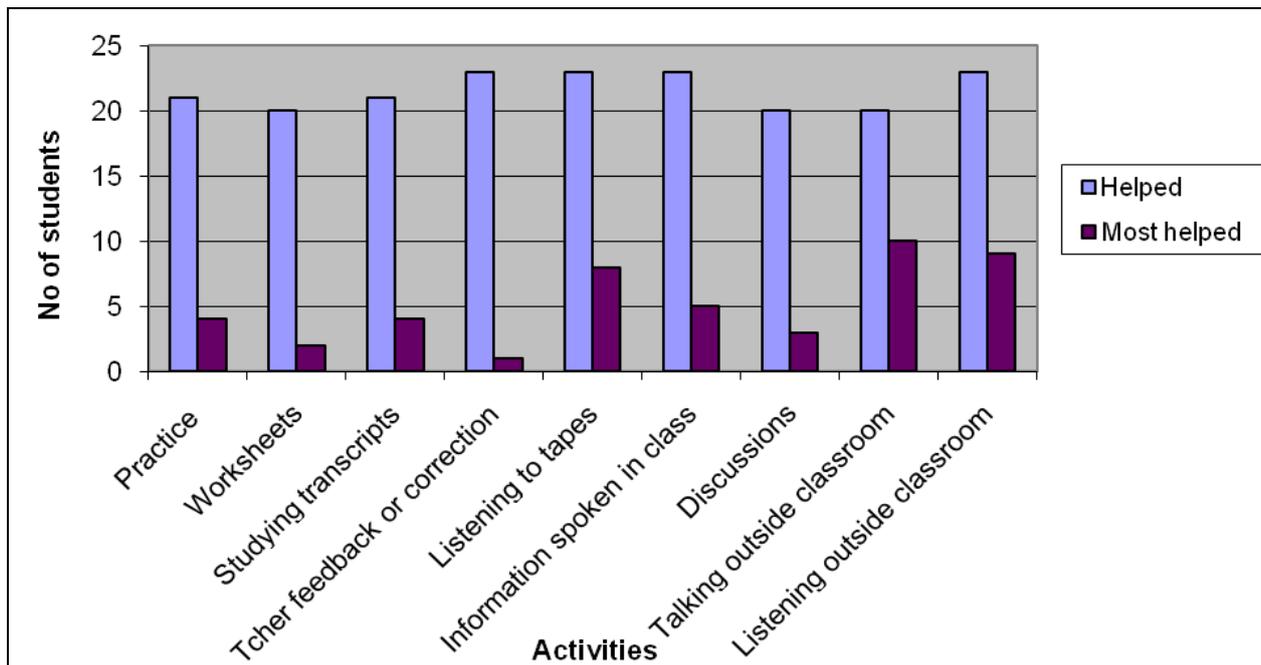
All students indicated that they believed that they had improved overall and that classroom information, feedback or correction from the teacher, and listening to conversation tapes in class as well as out of class listening had helped. The response also indicated that the other five activities helped at least 87% of students.

When asked which two had 'most helped', listening in and out of the classroom and speaking outside the classroom, together with 'information spoken by the teacher' were selected by a greater number of students than other activities. Exposure to native speakers outside the classroom was, then, for a number of these students, an advantage in the learning of pragmatic norms and the experience was a valuable supplement to the classroom. However participants still believed they needed the classroom for close listening and information from the teacher.

Discussion
Overall there was a moderate improvement in students' ability to use the appropriate pragmatic norms in making a suitable contribution to small talk and changing the subject, and a more substantial improvement in finishing the conversation. Making a suitable contribution to small talk and changing the subject proved more problematical for students to master than finishing, possibly because the norms and language for these activities are less salient in the input data, and are also complex and hard to access while coping with the linguistic demands of face-to-face online production (House, 1996). It is interesting that more students indicated that they found the listening input both inside and outside the classroom and explicit instruction, rather than other activities such as practice, 'most helped' in promoting acquisition. Their experience endorses McCarthy's emphasis on richness of authentic input and his claim that output activity does not have

as much value initially (McCarthy, 1998). In addition the data suggests that explicit instruction was beneficial in promoting the learning of pragmatic norms, consistent with the literature reported in Kasper and Roever (2004).

It would be helpful to know the quantity and quality of the outside input that these students had, and the relationship between their ability to 'notice' outside the classroom and the classroom input. The data collected does not shed any light on this. I attempted to gather further data from those who had chosen 'listening outside the class' as 'most helped' by issuing a follow-up short written questionnaire, but the responses were not sufficiently explicit and the questions were not uniform enough between the semester 1 cohort and the semester 2 cohort to yield useful and reliable answers to this question. It would be beneficial in a future study to do more carefully designed follow-up interviews with these students, probing for specific information.

These results apply only to this small sample and are not generalisable. Also the number of participants was insufficient to conduct a statistical analysis. There is possible researcher bias as the researcher was also the teacher, mitigated in part by anonymising student surveys and self-assessments and having a selection of teacher pre- and post-tests moderated by colleagues. My confidence in the outcome, however, is reinforced by the fact that a similarly designed action research project with students at the same proficiency level involving the teaching of the pragmatics of negotiation for agreement with a gate-keeper carried out in semester 1, 2007 (Denny, 2008) also yielded positive results.

Data from research conducted at different levels with students with a variety of goals and foci – employment and academic as well as community – would yield further useful information. The use of follow-up interviews, and/or more qualitative data-gathering tools to document changes in learners' awareness might also yield more interesting and valid data.

Overall this action research has made me much more aware of the importance of the richness of input, especially in listening activities, as a key factor in promoting acquisition of conversational pragmatic norms.

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Appendix 1: Extracts form transcript and consciousness-raising questions

     Ken: <u>Gidday</u>, Jeff. How are you?
     Jeff: Oh, gidday Ken. I'm good. How are you?
     Ken: Oh exhausted.
     Jeff: Aha… been busy?
     Ken: Really busy all these weekends …
5   **Jeff:** Ah – what have you been <u>up to</u>?
     Ken: Looking for a house.
     Jeff: What? To rent?
     Ken: Ah I'm planning [to rent…
     Jeff: [Oh make some money ... huh?
10   **Ken:** Well, <u>pay off</u> the <u>mortgage</u> really.

Sample activities based on the text

<u>Questions</u>
1. How does the conversation start? Write the words of the first two speakers:
2. Is the small talk short or long? Is it long enough? What topics are part of the small talk?
3. What is the answer to Jeff's first small talk question? Is it positive or negative? Is this normal in NZ English? Is it polite in this conversation? Why?

<u>Discussion</u>
     Did you notice any other differences in the language of conversation of the men compared to the women? Is this the same in your language and culture? (Look at feedback, length of sentences, greetings, questions.)
     Do the men use humour or teasing? Where? Why? Do the women do this? Why? Why not? Is this the same in your language or culture?

<u>Scaffolded practice (use of discourse markers)</u>
     Student A   Ask an opening question about an interesting TV programme or movie your partner has seen lately.
     Student B   Answer
     Student A   Ask a follow-up question about the subject of the movie/TV programme. Use 'So' or 'And'.

<u>Independent practice</u>
Start a conversation with your partner. Make small talk, then change the subject and talk about something in the news. When the teacher signals, finish the conversation politely.

Appendix 2: Pre- and Post- test criteria and scale

The learner can, according to core NZ English socio-cultural and pragmatic norms covered in the course:

Skill	To some extent	No
1. Start a conversation politely and appropriately	Address or greeting or response to greeting inappropriate	Both inappropriate OR one /both missing OR no response
2. Make culturally and pragmatically appropriate contribution to small talk	Too little small talk OR Inappropriate form OR Inappropriate topics	No small talk AND/OR Topic and form inappropriate
3. Use appropriate, polite questions to elicit information in body of conversation	Unnatural/inappropriate forms OR Little contribution	Very unnatural AND/OR Several unnatural/inappropriate questions OR No contribution
4. Avoid inappropriate topics	Topic of one question not appropriate	Topic of more than one question not appropriate.
5. Take the turn appropriately (i.e. initiate a turn when not given one)	Too quick or abrupt or little attempt where appropriate	Very abrupt or no attempt where appropriate
6. Give the turn appropriately	Quite inappropriately dominant	Very inappropriately dominant
7. Give feedback politely and appropriately	Less or more feedback than appropriate OR Inappropriate feedback	No feedback or excessive amounts
8. Change the subject politely and appropriately (ie rounding off previous turn and/or using discourse markers)	Quite abrupt – timing right but rounding or discourse marker missing or inappropriate discourse marker	Very abrupt – timing inappropriate and no transition or rounding off of previous exchange
9. Finish the conversation politely and appropriately	Some pre-closure but not all, or some not appropriate	No pre-closure

Key to Categories: Yes – Does this without any pragmatic errors (i.e. there may be minor grammatical errors but the form and content is fully appropriate)

To some extent – Does this with one pragmatic error (see above)

NO/NA – No opportunity or not appropriate in the context of this conversation

Appendix 3: Sample questions from the Self Assessment

Can you do these things according to the NZ culture in a conversation in New Zealand English? Tick the boxes:

	No	Yes	Sometimes
1. Change the subject politely and appropriately	☐	☐	☐
2. Finish the conversation politely and appropriately	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 4: Survey on perceived usefulness of activities (extract)

Did your knowledge of the culture of conversation in NZ English improve this term?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If you ticked yes, please tick <u>all the activities</u> below that <u>helped you to understand the culture and cultural language of conversation in NZ English</u>. You can <u>tick as many as you need to:</u>

- ☐ listening to people outside the classroom
- ☐ talking to people outside the classroom
- ☐ information spoken in the classroom
- ☐ information written in worksheets
- ☐ group or class discussions
- ☐ practice in the classroom with a partner
- ☐ feedback or correction from the teacher during classroom practice with a partner
- ☐ listening to conversation tapes
- ☐ studying transcripts of conversations using worksheets
- ☐ other ---

Write here the two activities from the list above that most helped your improvement

1 --

2 --

REVIEWS

Kondo-Brown, K. and Brown, J.D. (Eds.). (2008). *Teaching Chinese, Japanese, and Korean heritage language students: Curriculum needs, materials, and assessment.* **New York: Lawrence Erlbaum. ISBN 0-8058-5878-4 (pbk.) 346 pp. $81.95.**

Reviewed by Erina Brown, University of Otago Language Centre and Foundation Year

East Asian heritage students are a large and growing population, particularly in Canada, the United States and Australia. As part of the ESL and Applied Linguistics Professional Series, this book is a trailblazer in that it provides a collection of essays from 16 authors on issues of heritage language learning (HL): a current 'hot topic' due to the large number of children born to foreign-born parents. Requirements for special instruction for such students who have acquired proficiency in a non-dominant language through family interaction is also on the rise. This collection includes hitherto unpublished scholarship into the theoretical perspectives and the practical application of dealing with East Asian heritage learners. It is divided into four sections, each with three chapters: an overview addressing the issues and future agendas for teaching Chinese, Japanese, and Korean heritage students; language needs analysis; attitude, motivation, identity and instructional preference; and curriculum design, learner needs, materials development and assessment procedures.

Since it is the first curriculum development book aimed specifically at child and adult HL students, its primary purpose is to raise questions about how to seek better solutions for learning heritage languages. Before the publication of this book, curriculum developers wishing to focus on HL learners relied largely on adaptations of general L2 material. *Teaching Chinese, Japanese, and Korean Heritage Language Students: Curriculum Needs, Materials, and Assessment* includes models, learning theories and evidence from recent empirical studies about HL students. The book is quite dense in parts, as it deals in the main with research and data analysis. However, there is content that will appeal to researchers, graduate students, educators and community workers who have difficulty in dealing with the specific needs of these heterogeneous language learners. It could also be of interest to learners themselves, or to those who have an interest in curriculum development and assessment studies, HL development and instruction, and East Asian language learning and teaching in general. Case studies are represented and analysed, and comparisons between heritage and non-heritage language learners of Korean, Japanese and Chinese are discussed alongside language status and how to best accommodate the desire for bilingualism and biculturalism that many heritage students have. This concept of dual identity is discussed in relation to specific instructional approaches.

Two interesting aspects of the book are the section relating to the integration of technology and online chat, and the importance it attaches to authenticity with regard

to the learning context and development of literacy for Chinese students. There is a comprehensive reference section at the end of each chapter and both an author and subject index. Graphs, tables and research data are included in each chapter. This book makes a vital contribution to scholarship in this field, and is recommended as a teacher library resource.

Friedrich, Patricia (Ed.), (2008). *Teaching academic writing.* **London: Continuum. ISBN: 978 0 8264 9533 4 (pbk.). i-xiv plus 246 pp. £UK19.99**

Reviewed by Lucy Campbell, Department of General & Applied Linguistics, The University of Waikato.

Teaching Academic Writing is one in a series of excellent resources in applied linguistics from Continuum. This text is a compilation of ten chapters that focus on issues connected to the discipline of teaching academic writing, particularly at a tertiary level. The intention behind it is to 'offer solutions' and 'give practical advice' for new and inexperienced instructors of academic writing at this level, and to 'establish a dialogue' so that they can consult with the text to help alleviate any difficulties they may face in their situations. The authors of each chapter clearly have a wealth of experience in teaching academic writing - not only to speakers for whom English is a second or additional language, but also to native speakers of English. Seven chapters are written by academics based in The United States (chapters 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9), two by academics based in Britain (chapters 2 and 6) and one from an author based in Sweden (chapter 10). While this may initially appear as though the information offered is more skewed to a North American situation, in my opinion, this is not the case. If time is taken to digest the offerings from each chapter, there is a wealth of background and historical information, as well as clever ideas that can be applied to teaching situations in New Zealand.

Each chapter of the book focuses on one specific aspect concerned with academic writing and these include: in chapter 1, an historical overview of composition writing in The United States, in chapter 2, a look at writing across the disciplines, pedagogy (chapter 3) followed by tasks (chapter 4) and feedback (chapter 5) and issues of writing support in British universities (chapter 6). The last four chapters cover the position of technology in writing, bilingualism, community based writing and, to finish, a perspective on academic integrity from an American academic working in Sweden. While each chapter contains information that can stand alone, there is of course a natural connectivity between issues, in particular the areas highlighted in chapters 3, 4, 5 and 10. With this in mind, I question the organization of material if this book is primarily aimed at new and inexperienced teachers of writing. These particular chapters contain material that should be the most useful, applicable and

adaptable to their situations, whereas the other chapters I feel are more relevant to instructors with experience who want to review and refresh their knowledge, and who are able to disseminate the information presented and apply it in relevant ways to their teaching and their situations. I therefore feel that chapter 2 should have occurred later in the book, perhaps before the information on university support, and that the chapter on academic integrity should have occurred closer to the beginning, as it is an important issue and one that has to be taken into account when considering teaching approaches, task development and feedback for writing.

Turning to the chapters that I think are more suited to inexperienced teachers, Anokye (chapter 3) in my opinion was the least useful. She offered little in the way of theoretical background on pedagogy, and related her own approach to training, and whilst interesting, this would not generate ideas for the inexperienced. In contrast, Tardy & Courtney's chapter on tasks was well organized, clear and gave some great ideas for activities. While it could be argued that some of these were quite complex and meant for quite high level students, there was enough description and guidance in the chapter to enable these to be adapted for lower level students and by inexperienced teachers. Ferris on feedback also provides an excellent refresher for the more experienced teacher, and presents a concise, interesting theoretical overview coupled with functional and practical pointers to the different types of feedback that can be given. Pecorari (academic integrity) demystifies plagiarism with a comprehensive outline of the issues surrounding it, and clear direction as to what is considered intentional and unintentional plagiarism. By far the most important part of this chapter are her directions on how to solve the problems surrounding unintentional plagiarism by focusing on the stages of writing that need more tutor input and explanation.

As for the rest of the chapters, I personally gained some very good insights that have led to improvements for my academic writing papers. In particular, creating writing tasks to raise awareness of the different expectations of writing for certain disciplines (from chapter 2), clearer ideas and instructions to give when students are working collaboratively producing written scripts in an on-line environment (chapter 7), fresh approaches to private journaling (chapter 8) and ideas for having students use more of a portfolio approach for writing and speaking similar to those mentioned in the community based approach (chapter 9).

I would recommend this book as a useful resource, if used judiciously, for all those involved in teaching academic writing - and not just for inexperienced teachers.

Field, J. (2008). *Listening in the language classroom***. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978-0-521-68570-2 (pbk.) 366 pp. 59.95.**

Reviewed by Lizzy Roe, University of Auckland.

This book is a valuable addition to the Cambridge Language Teaching Library series, authored by subject-specific experts. As a frequently-cited author of publications related to the listening language skill, John Field is well-placed to contribute to this series. The theme of the book is how teachers can give the neglected skill of listening a primary focus in the EFL/ESL classroom. Field is critical of what he terms the 'comprehension approach', i.e. the orthodox, teacher-driven, listening lesson methodology of: (1) teacher pre-teaches vocabulary/elicits predictions, (2) learners listen to answer comprehension questions, (3) teacher checks answers and reviews linguistic content. This focus on 'product' (correct answers) and the belief that mere practice leads to improvement is, in his opinion, flawed. Field proposes an alternative 'process' approach whereby teachers anticipate and diagnose learners' problems with second language (L2) input processing, and provide tasks to meet their developmental needs in order to prepare them better for listening outside of the classroom.

The book is divided into six parts, each two or three chapters in length (except for part four, which is six chapters). Part One covers the historical development of listening lesson methodology and provides an analysis of current classroom practice. Part Two explores criticisms of the 'Comprehension Approach' and Field's preferred focus on a wider range of listening input and tasks more aligned to real-world listening demands. Field proposes a model where learners practise competent listener behaviour. They vary their depth of attention and level of detail depending on the type of listening text, the goal of listening, and real-time decisions related to meaning and importance.

Part Three explains how Field's alternative diagnostic approach enhances the listening and post-listening phases of the conventional lesson. For sub-skills training, listening is divided into component parts for intensive individual practice using small-scale tasks (the aim being automaticity) and, once practised, the separate skills are recombined. To inform the design of the practice activities, Field divides the behaviour of the expert listener into two distinct processes: 'decoding' (analyzing the input of the stream of speech, which is all new processing in the L2 for the learner), and 'building meaning' (making sense of the input, which involves applying well-established L1 processes).

Part Four elaborates on decoding and meaning-building and their relationship to larger components (grammar/syntax, intonation). Each chapter contrasts the performance of the expert and novice listener and includes implications for the teacher, including practice exercises. Part Five covers compensatory and metacognitive strategy training

to help learners fill gaps in understanding – these are L2 (not L1) learner strategies, and are therefore distinct from the aforementioned processes. The conclusion in Part Six summarises the key themes and offers a multi-strand programme for developing L2 learners' listening skills.

Each chapter has a reference list for further reading. The appendices contain useful checklists of the decoding and meaning-building processes, and a phonetics/phonology guide for readers unfamiliar with key terminology. There is a glossary of listening-related terms. The book is very readable, and each chapter has a clear introduction and concluding summary, providing a useful overview of main points. However, the table of contents is minimal, and could be improved by including the main sub-section headings from each chapter.

The book has a coherent structure, with each part building on previously raised issues. The progression mirrors the reader's thoughts; for example, if decoding and meaning-building are both important, which process should the teacher spend more time on? Having said that, some key points are revisited rather often in subsequent chapters, which suggests that the book could be 'dipped into' after an initial read. While Field extensively critiques the assumptions and principles of common listening practices, he gives equal treatment to the validity of his own 'process approach', which he rationalises with reference to a range of research findings. He discusses contentious theoretical aspects in an accessible way and provides examples of practical teaching solutions or alternatives.

Although the target reader is not explicitly stated, this book would be of most value to teachers with some experience of the traditional approach to the teaching of listening. It reminds us that listening is a multi-layered complex skill that makes huge demands on learners who rank it as the skill in which they most lack confidence and ongoing evidence of their progress. This book will prompt teachers to question their beliefs and practices, which is the author's explicit intention. However, it is not a textbook of ready-made lessons, and there remains plenty of materials design work for any teacher who wishes to take up Field's challenge of keeping the learners' needs and developmental progress to the forefront of their teaching aims. This book gives an excellent grounding in theory and knowing where, how, and why to start on the 'process' of developing oneself as a more effective listening teacher. I highly recommended it.

Conrad, Susan and Douglas Biber (2009). *Real Grammar: A Corpus-Based Approach to English.* White Plains, NY: Pearson Education. x + 150 pp. ISBN: 0-13-515587-8.

Reviewed by Elaine W. Vine, School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies, Victoria University of Wellington.

This is a supplementary grammar book, not a self-contained grammar course. Conrad and Biber have chosen aspects of grammar for inclusion in the book on the basis of corpus frequency data. They have selected common language choices people make that may not follow our intuitions about usage.

The book begins with brief, clear and helpful introductory explanations for students and teachers about how it is organised. The book then contains 50 units of work, each of which focuses on an aspect of grammar. The units are organised into 11 Parts: verb tenses (1-3), special uses of verbs (4-10), modals (11-12), multi-word verbs (13-15), the passive (16-18), nouns, articles, and pronouns (19-23), adjectives and adverbs (24-30), gerunds, infinitives, and clauses with *that* (31-36), reported speech (37-38), noun modification (39-47), and special features of conversation (48-50). Of the 50 units, 12 focus on spoken grammar, 14 focus on written grammar, and 24 deal with the relevant aspect of grammar in both speaking and writing.

Each unit begins with a very brief statement of what grammar textbooks typically say about the focus aspect of grammar. Following that, the authors present corpus findings about how people actually use that aspect of grammar in speaking or writing, as appropriate. In most cases, there are differences between how textbooks present the grammar point and what corpus findings show about use. Next, there are sequenced activities relating to the aspect of grammar. In each unit the first activity deals with noticing the grammar point in context. Then there are analysis activities, which support learners towards understanding the aspect of grammar better. Finally there are practice activities which give learners opportunities to use the aspect of grammar in speaking or writing, as appropriate. Answer keys for all the activities in the units are available on the Pearson/Longman website.

The book is formatted clearly and presented in black, white and blue. There are no other colours, and no pictures. It is functional, rather than eye-catching. The units are concise and well focused.

There is no specific statement in the book about who the intended audience is. It is up to teachers, then, to decide whether they can see an application for the material in their own particular situations. I have used units from this book successfully both with intermediate level English for Academic Purposes learners and with ESOL teachers in a teacher education context. The teachers could see applications for this sort of

material in their own teaching contexts (which were varied), and the English learners found the material interesting, relevant, and accessible. For example, after working through a unit on "though" in speaking ("it looks pretty awful though") in class, a Chinese learner commented that he now understood something his nephew said quite frequently!

A particular strength of *Real Grammar* is that it uses authentic language examples throughout, which means that it not only explains how English is actually used, it shows that use through the supporting examples and the activities. The authors have made some minor modifications to some of the corpus texts they have used, and they explain those on page ix.

The corpus data which the units are based on come from the epic *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber et al., 1999), which is available in a shorter, more accessible version, the *Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber et al., 2002). Either would be a useful resource for teachers to accompany the *Real Grammar* book. The *Longman Grammar* is based on a corpus which includes both American and British English. In *Real Grammar*, however, the language examples tend to be American-oriented in content, and to a lesser extent in usage. I do not see this as a problem for using the material in New Zealand, not least because English use in New Zealand draws on both British and American traditions.

References

Biber, D., Conrad, S., and Leech, G. (2002). *Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English.* Harlow, England: Pearson Education.

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., and Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Harlow, England: Pearson Education.

NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

1. Contributions to *The TESOLANZ Journal* are welcomed from language educators and applied linguists within and outside Aotearoa/New Zealand, especially those working in Australia and countries in the South Pacific.

2. Contributions should in general be no longer than 5000 words.

3. Referencing conventions should follow that specified in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (5th Edition). This publication is available in most university libraries. In the text, references should be cited using the author's last name and date of publication. If quotations are cited, the reference should include page numbers (Brindley, 1989, pp. 45-46). The reference list at the end of the article should be arranged in alphabetical order. The reference list should only include items specifically cited in the text.

4. As far as possible, comments and references should be incorporated into the text but, where necessary, endnotes may be placed after the main body of the article, before the list of references, under the heading Notes.

5. All graphics should be suitable for publication and need no change.

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