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EDITORIAL

The articles selected for publication reflect the aims and scope of the TESOLANZ Journal, that is to consider research, policy and practice directly relevant to the context of the teaching of English as an additional language in Aotearoa/New Zealand. The first two, Vine and Alve, and Feryok focus on language teacher education and offer suggestions for continued teacher development. The next two, Brown and Cooke's article on workplace English and Coxhead's on secondary teachers' decision making in regard to specialised vocabulary, although pertinent to specific groups of teachers, offer insights valuable for all English language teachers. This volume concludes with a tribute to Dorothy Brown, who has been a significant force in English language teaching in Aotearoa/New Zealand and beyond.

The aim of the opening article, a self-study, undertaken by a beginner teacher (Alve) and one of her teacher educators (Vine) was to explore relationships between the teacher's perceptions of her experiences in her initial pre-service CertTESOL programme at the time and during her first teaching positions. The co-authors analysed two sets of data: Alve's self-review journals and other written assignments from her CertTESOL programme, and a series of sixteen interview/discussion sessions when she was working in her first teaching positions. The co-authors argue that previous research has tended to focus on reflection in practice teaching experiences, but in this study they found that observation and reflection on observation had much longer-lasting consequences than the practice teaching experiences and reflection on them. Their findings provide evidence that observation and reflection can trigger continued development throughout teachers' careers.

In the second of our language teacher education articles, Feryok explores how narratives can also contribute to the professional development of language teachers. By examining narrative evaluation and re-evaluation in two previously published co-constructed language teacher narratives, she found that re-evaluation, which can be fostered by a co-narrator, appeared to raise teachers' consciousness. In particular, in re-evaluation teachers became aware of the criteria they were using to judge their own performance.

Brown and Cooke, in the third article, aim to develop a framework derived from pragmatics to interpret workplace language. Conversations in an Auckland factory are analysed in the light of knowledge of the events and the setting. The framework suggested for teachers and learners, by Brown and Cooke, involves relating information about the people and the context to the language used. Such a framework could be used in the classroom as a means of constructing meaning from authentic texts.

Coxhead, in the final article, investigates the ways in which secondary school teachers in New Zealand schools approach specialised vocabulary. An online survey with

Likert scale and open-ended questions was developed to investigate teachers' decisions about specialised vocabulary. The findings suggest that there are more differences in approaches to specialised vocabulary when teachers' different subject areas are considered. There are also some differences when years of teaching experiences, the year level of students, and the decile of the school are considered.

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.

With such a strong focus on language teacher education in this volume, it is fitting to conclude with a tribute to Dorothy Brown.

In conclusion, it is important to thank all the contributors, those who submitted manuscripts for consideration in this year's volume of the journal. 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 their perspicacity and generosity of spirit that characterize the 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 3 September 2012.

ARTICLES

OBSERVATION, PRACTICE AND REFLECTION: A COLLABORATIVE SELF-STUDY OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Elaine W. Vine & Sarah Alve
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Abstract

“Teacher development is a long, slow process...teachers often lack feedback and stimulus to reflect once they have stepped out of their practicum” (Mok, 1994, p. 109). In this self-study the joint authors are a beginner teacher and one of her teacher educators. We reflect collaboratively on how the beginner teacher experienced her initial teacher education programme, a graduate certificate in teaching English to speakers of other languages (CertTESOL) which the teacher educator designed with reflecting on experience in mind. We explore relationships between the teacher’s perceptions of her experiences in this programme at the time and during her first teaching positions through two sets of data: the beginner teacher’s self-review journals and other written assignments from her CertTESOL programme, and a series of sixteen interview/discussion sessions when she was working in her first teaching positions. Previous research on reflection in ESOL pre-service teacher education has tended to focus on reflection in practice teaching experiences. In this case study, observation and reflection on observation had much longer-lasting consequences than practice teaching experiences and reflection on them.

Introduction

We present an opportunistic (Duff, 2008, p. 115) self-study (Loughran et al., 2004) of relationships between a beginner ESOL teacher's perceptions of her experience of her initial three-month ESOL teacher education course at the time and later, in her first teaching positions. Pressick-Kilborn and te Riele (2008) have argued that self-study need not be a solitary pursuit, and they reported on a collaborative self-study in which the collaboration was between two teacher educators. We agree with them that self-study can usefully be collaborative, and in our study the collaboration is between the first author, a teacher educator and teacher, and the second author, who was a teacher education student of the first author and later, for a period, her teaching colleague. Thus our relationship is a complex one which has changed over time.

Including “reflecting on reflection-in-action” (Schön, 1987) in pre-service teacher education has been seen as a way of making it possible for student teachers to begin to make sense of the things happening around and to them. Schön saw “reflection-in-action” as “the ‘thinking what they are doing while they are doing it’ ... that practitioners sometimes bring to situations of uncertainty, uniqueness, and conflict”, and he argued that professional education should take as its point of departure this professional competence “embedded in skilful practice” rather than the accepted “technical rationality” approach which he said “treats professional competence as the application of privileged [i.e. systematic, preferably scientific] knowledge to

instrumental problems of practice” (1987, p. xi). Crandall (2000), in an overview of language teacher education, has summarised the benefits of reflecting on experience as providing “...a means for prospective and experienced teachers to develop more informed practice, making tacit beliefs and practical knowledge explicit, articulating what teachers know and leading to new ways of knowing and teaching” (p. 40).

Influential research studies in the ESOL field were carried out some time ago, and tended to focus on reflection on the pre-service teachers’ direct experiences of teaching and with learners (Kagan, 1992; Farrell, 2008), videotaping pre-service teachers’ own practice (Johnson, 1992), written journals during practicum experiences (Johnson, 1994) and by inexperienced and experienced teachers (Mok, 1994). More recently, studies have used written scenarios or case studies as a basis for reflection (Reichelt, 2000; Edwards & Hammer, 2006).

Our collaborative self-study broadens that focus and has two purposes:

1. to examine how a beginner ESOL teacher experienced her initial teacher education programme, a graduate CertTESOL which was designed with reflecting on experience in mind, and
2. to explore relationships between the beginner ESOL teacher’s perceptions of her experiences during her initial teacher education programme and later, while she was in her first teaching positions.

The Study

Self-study participants

Elaine (the first author) was the CertTESOL programme coordinator and she taught PRACTICE, one of the two courses which made up the CertTESOL programme (see below). She was also a class teacher in the English for academic purposes (EAP) programme which ran concurrently with the CertTESOL (see below). Sarah (the second author) was a beginner ESOL teacher who completed the CertTESOL with Elaine as one of her teacher educators. Sarah was 20 years old at the beginning of the study when she decided to enrol in the CertTESOL. She had no prior experience of ESOL teaching or learning, and she had spent the previous three years completing a Bachelor of Arts degree, majoring in Education and English literature.

The CertTESOL programme

The CertTESOL aimed to provide both knowledge and experience for graduates who do not have teaching experience. Students undertook an eleven-week programme of full-time study at university. The programme was organised into two concurrent courses: “Introduction to language teaching” (INTRO) and “TESOL classroom practice” (PRACTICE). The INTRO and PRACTICE courses provided different balances between knowledge and experience: INTRO focused on building knowledge, and included links with experience, while PRACTICE focused on experience and included links with knowledge.

INTRO aimed “to introduce course members to the planning and implementation of appropriate classroom teaching activities” and addressed “issues in managing classrooms for effective second language learning” (INTRO course outline). PRACTICE aimed “to provide an introduction to classroom practice in TESOL through observation and analysis of classes in an ESOL course, and supervised practice in planning and implementing ESOL lessons” (PRACTICE course outline). PRACTICE had five core components: observations, practice tutoring sessions, practice teaching sessions, PRACTICE class meetings, and self-review journals.

Data

The first set of data for this self-study included Sarah’s self-review journals (SRJ1, SRJ2, SRJ3) from the PRACTICE course, her course notes, assignments and test answers from both courses in the CertTESOL programme. This data set gave us insights into Sarah’s perceptions of teaching and the CertTESOL experience as she was going through it. The material became data for the study after the course had ended. We decided to undertake the study only at the point nine months after the CertTESOL ended when Sarah had completed a graduate DipTESOL and she was about to begin her first teaching job. The opportunity presented itself for us to collect a second set of data, a series of sixteen interview/discussion sessions between Elaine and Sarah which were carried out over a 16-month period when Sarah was working in her first teaching positions and undertaking post-Certificate ESOL teacher education studies (see Table 1 below). These sessions each lasted about an hour and were held in Elaine’s office at the university at times which were convenient for both of us. They were interviews in that their purpose was for Sarah to talk about her teacher education and beginning teaching experiences, and the relationships (if any) between them. Thus the focus was on Sarah. They were discussions in that they were unstructured, and in that Elaine and Sarah had shared some of those experiences from their different positions.

Table 1: Interview/discussion sessions between Elaine and Sarah

Month	Sessions	Context
1	1 and 2	before beginning as a part-time assistant teacher
2	3, 4, 5 and 6	part-time assistant teacher
3	7, 8 and 9	part-time assistant teacher
4	10	after first course as part-time assistant teacher
5-8		MA studies + part-time teacher
9	11	between courses
10-12		MA studies + part-time teacher
13	12	between courses
14	13,14 and 15	full-time class teacher
15		full-time class teacher
16	16	after first course as full-time class teacher

In the analysis presented below, we have focused on Sarah's perceptions at the time of her initial teacher education experience (the CertTESOL), and her perceptions of that experience at later times, during her beginning teaching experiences.

Data analysis

We analysed the data from Sarah's participation in the CertTESOL programme separately from the interview/discussion data, because these two sets of data were collected at different times. For both sets of data, a qualitative iterative analysis process was used, along the lines described in Ely et al. (1991). We used NVivo (QSR International Pty Ltd) software to support the data analysis process. Sarah carried out an initial analysis of the CertTESOL data set, then iterations of the analysis process involved extensive discussion between Sarah and Elaine of the themes and categories which emerged from the data, and consequent modifications to and development of the analysis. We followed a similar analysis process with the interview/discussion data, but with Elaine carrying out an initial analysis and then both Sarah and Elaine participating actively in subsequent iterations.

In writing this paper, we have chosen to use the formulations "Sarah... she..." and "Elaine... she..." to refer to ourselves because it offers ease and clarity of reference. It is important to note, though, that we both participated actively in the writing process also: drafting, revising and editing, and that writing is a continuation of the data analysis process in a qualitative study like this one. We have shared multiple roles in this study, as teacher and student, as research participants, as co-researchers, and as joint authors. We were not impartial observers at any stage of the research process, but we believe that our insider status strengthens our analysis of Sarah's experience rather than weakening it.

Themes in the CertTESOL data

Through the data analysis process, we identified three major themes in the CertTESOL data of Sarah's perceptions of that experience at the time: coming to know oneself in a new role as 'teacher'; perceiving qualities of an effective teacher; and reflecting on one's learning.

Coming to know oneself in a new role as 'teacher'

In the first part of Sarah's self-review journal, she began to make sense of the new environments she found herself participating in. Sarah was struggling to come to terms with her new role as 'teacher' and many of her entries discuss the assortment of feelings she was having. Her initial interactions with students in the EAP programme led her to reflect that:

...I feel quite frightened of the students...mainly because I have not had a lot to do with people from different cultures and because I also feel quite young and inexperienced (SRJ1, Para 192).

Quite often during her early one-to-one tutoring sessions, Sarah wrote of feeling “out of her comfort zone” in relation to not knowing how to respond to the student she was working with, a feeling heightened by having only a limited repertoire of skills to deal with lapses in communication. Sarah did not feel that she was experienced enough to adapt her material, should it need changing. This was a great source of anxiety for her as she was teaching these sessions. However, this led Sarah to begin to grasp early the importance of teachers needing to be flexible:

...I was going to have to be flexible and able to adapt the material and my thoughts to how she handled it (SRJ1, Para 412).

In feedback to Sarah on the first part of her self-review journal, Elaine wrote that many of Sarah’s entries were “clear and detailed descriptions of observations and experience”, but that they seemed to lack “interpretation and analysis”. Elaine encouraged Sarah to begin to place an emphasis on “...reflecting on why teachers and learners do the things they do” and to “reflect on what [she] would do in their place” (SRJ1, Paras 499-501). It is, we believe, this interpretation and analysis of experience that leads to the kind of reflection that enabled Sarah to grow and develop as a beginner ESOL teacher.

Perceiving qualities of an effective teacher

Initial observations in the EAP classroom led to Sarah challenging her own prior assumptions, based on her “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975) during her own formal schooling, of what it meant to be a teacher and what “should” happen in the classroom. She began to identify qualities she thought were important attributes of a teacher:

I think I discovered it’s important to love and enjoy what you’re doing so that the students will be able to respond to you (SRJ1, Para 192).

An epiphany that she had early on whilst observing teachers and students in the EAP was that:

...it is possible within the ESOL classroom for students to engage in learning and fun at the same time (SRJ1, Para 391).

She also commented on the variety of teaching styles she was encountering. Part of Sarah’s growth as a beginner teacher was identifying from her experiences qualities that she believed were important in an effective teacher: flexibility, adaptability and planning in teaching; “being yourself” in the classroom; focusing on and challenging students; and establishing a good classroom atmosphere:

Flexibility, adaptability and planning in teaching

Being able to be both flexible and adaptable was a recurring theme not only in Sarah’s observations of teachers on the EAP, but also in her own experiences with teaching. From her initial understanding of flexibility – as the ability to adapt materials on the spot – by the end of the CertTESOL, Sarah commented in her final report that:

Aims, objectives, needs, anticipated problems, resources and materials all have to be thought about in order for a lesson to run smoothly and even at the best of times when all these are in place you have to be flexible enough to cope with the unexpected (PRACTICE – Final Report, Para 18).

‘Being yourself’ in the classroom

Sarah described the teachers that she most enjoyed observing as those who were not afraid of taking their personalities into the classroom with them:

I realised that one of the most important things to concentrate on when teaching is that of being yourself, so that the students can respond to you not only as a teacher but as a person (SRJ2, Para 130).

Focusing on and challenging students

Sarah observed teachers who were prepared to challenge students in their classroom. Although at times work seemed quite difficult for the students, Sarah came to understand the reasons for it:

I realise that in every lesson there has to be a degree of challenge, otherwise the students may not be pushed to extend their learning boundaries (SRJ3, Para 105).

Her growth through the process of observing and reflecting led to developing understanding not just of what the teachers were doing, but also of why they were doing it. She also recognised the need for effective teachers to establish a balance between fun activities, stimulating activities and challenging activities. From her observations she saw the extra dimensions that could be added to activities by adjusting them slightly.

Establishing a good classroom atmosphere

The ‘feel’ of the classroom was something that Sarah frequently wrote about in her self-review journal – the way the teacher and students interacted with one another and the relationships that were established and how they were maintained. Very early on in PRACTICE class discussions, Elaine talked about the importance of establishing and maintaining a good class atmosphere. Sarah found it very easy to distinguish classrooms where she deemed there to be an atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning. Words that Sarah used to describe good class atmospheres that she observed included “safe”, “controlled”, “relaxed” and “comfortable” (SRJ2).

Reflecting on one’s learning

Consistent reflection enabled Sarah to develop a ‘critical eye’ - the ability to interpret and analyse what was happening and why it was happening. Sarah discussed the benefits that journal writing had for her:

As I wrote in my journal I could feel myself interpreting and analysing situations in new capacities as my knowledge of what was occurring around me and why it was occurring increased (PRACTICE – Final report, Para 28).

Reflection was evident in many entries in the later parts of her self-review journal where she considered what she would have done in the place of teachers she was observing. This sort of reflecting was signalled by expressions such as: “If I was in his position...”, “Upon reflection ... there are many things I would change...”, “One thing I would have done differently if I were in her shoes...” (SRJ2, SRJ3).

Sarah’s reflections indicated her increasing confidence in herself as a teacher, as she felt able to make suggestions that she believed might be more successful or suitable in a given situation. Sarah acknowledged this:

What I learnt through my observations and own experience though is that confidence also comes with time and practice (PRACTICE – Final report, Para 19).

Reflecting on her own participation in one-to-one tutoring and practice teaching sessions, Sarah dissected how lessons went, what was successful and unsuccessful, and how she could/would improve on them if teaching them again. In these sections of her self-review journal, she frequently used words and phrases such as: “in hindsight”, “on reflection”, “ideally”, “perhaps next time” (SRJ2, SRJ3). She was frank in her contemplations – acknowledging her errors and describing what she had learnt from them. For Sarah the practice teaching sessions and one-to-one tutoring classes were crucial as it was through these that she was able to merge her knowledge of theory and practice:

Being able to implement what I saw occurring in lessons within our practice teaching lessons was a very valuable experience. It is one thing to observe a teacher in a class and talk about their way of teaching and it is another to be the teacher in front of a class and realize that you know nothing about putting teaching into practice (PRACTICE - Final report, Para 28).

Themes in the interview/discussion data

Our iterative data analysis process revealed four major themes in the interview/discussion data of Sarah’s perceptions of her CertTESOL experience at later times, during her beginning teaching experiences: importance of observation; importance of reflection; importance of one-to-one tutoring experience, and changing from student to teacher.

Importance of observation

In the first interview/discussion session, Sarah commented that when she enrolled in the CertTESOL programme, she wasn’t seeing herself as going on to be an ESOL teacher. She was doing the programme out of interest, and because it might be useful sometime in the future. She explained why she changed her mind and decided to continue in these terms:

I’d really enjoyed the [EAP] programme ... had the more practical and observation component not been there perhaps I wouldn’t have thought that it was a viable option ... but ... enjoying watching the teachers and the ... students

and the way the course worked and thinking “oh man that’s something that I might like to do” (Session 1, para 470).

A theme which comes through very strongly in the interview/discussion data is that, both in her DipTESOL studies following on from the CertTESOL and in her teaching experiences in her first teaching positions, Sarah drew on the practical experiences from her CertTESOL programme. She commented on how she drew on her practical experiences from the CertTESOL during DipTESOL classes where the other students were all experienced teachers:

I was amazed at ... how much people listened to what I had to say, I thought it wouldn’t really be of any value, but it was mainly from our observations on the [EAP programme] and our own little teaching, which is funny cos we didn’t do a lot of it, but we did lots of observations, ... having covered issues that were problems in the CertTESOL and then having seen them played out in the classroom, even though they were quite generalised problems, they were still specific enough for me to draw on them, even if it was kind of second hand experience (Session 1, Paras 69 to 78).

She hardly ever mentioned her CertTESOL practice teaching experience (“our own little teaching”) in other sessions, but in eight sessions she commented, often more than once, on having drawn on the observation experiences. For example, during her first week of part-time assistant teaching in the EAP programme, she reported on having been asked to prepare and teach a morning session at one day’s notice to replace a class teacher who would be absent:

I remembered vividly being in [name of a teacher Sarah had observed during the CertTESOL]’s class ... she spent the whole hour and so I thought, it must be all right to spend an hour, and remembered that they needed the background knowledge, ... so I spent the evening making up a sheet with a picture and background vocab that they would need to know, and it went really well. ... I kind of felt like I was just mimicking what I had seen before, but it worked, so it was fine (Session 3, Paras 264 to 286).

At the end of Sarah’s experience as a part-time assistant teacher on a three-month EAP course, she reported that she continued to draw on her accounts of her observations in her CertTESOL self-review journal:

I found myself going back ... to observations and rereading them and thinking, oh and pulling snippets out and re-connecting things ... I would reread about classes, and how the teacher’s management and things were, so what they would do in response to certain situations (Session 10, Paras 120 to 124).

It is also interesting to note that Sarah not only drew on her observations in her beginning teaching experiences, but she also learned from her CertTESOL observation experiences that observing is an effective tool for professional development for teachers. She commented during her second week of part-time teaching in the EAP

programme that she would like to observe her co-teachers (Session 4, Paras 450 to 459). In the following session, she commented on the process she was planning for observations of her co-teachers that she was arranging:

[when I observe my co-teachers] I just want to be a fly on the wall like in CertTESOL ... at the time I thought 'why couldn't we get involved in the activities just a little' but now I see that it's so much more valuable just watching, just purely watching, ... you can see so many things (Session 5, Paras 321 to 331).

At the end of that three-month experience as a part-time teacher on an EAP course, it was evident that Sarah was still convinced of the value of observing colleagues. She explained that:

I did observations of my co-teachers during this course, because I was curious to know how my teaching and their teaching would line up. ... It wasn't so much the activity there, it was more about how they presented themselves as a teacher to the class, and how they responded to difficult questions or to students' needs, and how they managed time within the classroom, and yeah, just mainly their relationship with the students (Session 10, Paras 42 to 46).

A year later, after Sarah had completed her MA, during which time she also taught part-time in the EAP programme, she commented again on the importance of observing and of reflecting on experience in her development as a teacher:

I'd like to think that of the people that I saw and observed and the teaching that I did, I took all the best bits of that, and tried to make that the teacher that I wanted to be, and tried to become that. ... taking what I liked from everyone. ... and changed so that it was me as well. ... it meant that you were ... semi-established before you began and then you fine-tuned as you went along. It was great. (Session 12, Paras 402 to 416).

Importance of reflection

In her third week of part-time assistant teaching in the EAP programme, Sarah commented on why she was impressed with the teachers she had observed during the CertTESOL:

the humour and ease with the class, the way they just cared about the classes just amazed me, and so that's something I would like to take away, I think I have, but need to still work on trying to maintain ... well, continue reflecting how do they still manage to be teacher-like in what they do, and maintain that little bit of distance, but then exude other qualities (Session 5, Para 297).

Reflection appeared explicitly in that comment, which was unusual in the interview/discussion sessions during her first experiences as a part-time assistant teacher. However, she did make the importance of reflection more explicit later, for example, during her MA studies and concurrent part-time teaching, she commented on

the importance of the CertTESOL self-review journal, and the role of in-class discussions in her learning:

I think the impression is ... realistic in the CertTESOL, because we got to do the observations and the self-review journal ... because you're dealing with real situations and it's ... hands on, and there's the opportunity to ... discuss with one another, that cements in your mind and you constantly can go back and connect (Session 11, Paras 80 to 82).

Later again, when she was a full-time class teacher in the EAP programme, she commented that reflection was a luxury of the CertTESOL programme which she felt was missing in the busy activity of full-time teaching (Session 15, Paras 476 to 478). In the final session, she explained how the CertTESOL self-review journal writing was part of a process of change, which she saw as learning:

I think you change ... in what you're writing ... from when you start to when you finish because you're looking at different things because you're learning and ... you're changing ... its kind of naturalistic change (Session 16, Para 1-99).

Also in that session, at the end of the three-month course as a full-time class teacher, when she was preparing to travel to teach in an African country for three months, she commented that she was planning to keep a self-review journal again. In the now-familiar EAP situation, she did her thinking about issues and problems through discussion with fellow teachers. In the new African situation, she anticipated using a self-review journal for that purpose (Session 16, Paras 2-45 to 49).

Importance of one-to-one tutoring experience

While observation and reflection contributed most strongly to her development as a teacher, as evidenced by her comments in the interview/discussion sessions, the one-to-one tutoring experience during the CertTESOL also contributed during her first experiences as a part-time assistant teacher:

remembering back to when we were doing our tutoring, at first I think we were scared by them, by their proficiency but then with scaffolding it's amazing what they can do, but then that's one on one, so you've got to ask questions like 'well I don't have one on one time with students in the period like this so how can I scaffold collectively for everyone?' ... You do get a feel for it when you have to and you do adapt (Session 2, Paras 92 to 100).

Changing from student to teacher

When she had just finished her CertTESOL and DipTESOL studies, Sarah commented on the abrupt change, as she saw it, from being a student to being a teacher (Session 2, Paras 226 to 231). Then, after her first few classes as a part-time assistant teacher, she commented on how she was seeing herself, moving into the new role:

I'm not sure if I think of myself as a teacher, I just kind of think of myself a person who's trying to help other people, though I guess that's what a teacher essentially is (Session 3, Para 155).

A year later, when she had begun working as a full-time class teacher in the EAP programme, she again commented on the difference between being a student and being a teacher:

this is all just about me learning, now that I'm working full time, what I can and can't fit in ... it's just very different from studying, and the transition is hard. ... there's that whole 'ooh now I'm outputting all the time and I'm not inputting', so where am I getting my ideas from, I want to keep on learning, a little bit of selfishness ... 'oh I don't want to get stale and I want input' but I don't know where my input is coming from, there's so much output, and you can't ... work to your own schedule as much (Session 13, Paras 476 to 490).

Discussion

The “coming to know oneself in a new role as ‘teacher’” theme which was evident in the CertTESOL data links into the “changing from student to teacher” theme in the interview/discussion data. During the CertTESOL, Sarah was struggling to come to grips with seeing herself as a teacher. She was then faced with an abrupt transition from still seeing herself as ‘student’ to realising that others now saw her as ‘teacher’ when she began to work in a teaching position. She found that the heavy day-to-day demands of teaching made it difficult for her to continue the processes she had been using as ‘student’.

As we have seen, Sarah did manage to find ways of continuing the reflective practices she had developed through the CertTESOL into her beginning teaching experiences by arranging to observe colleagues, and by discussing issues with them. The importance of observation that came through in this case study is something that has not been evident in previous studies. As we noted in our Introduction, previous work has tended to focus on pre-service teachers’ practice teaching experiences. However, Sarah made little mention of her CertTESOL group practice teaching experiences, and her comments about her CertTESOL one-to-one tutoring experiences all came in interview/discussion sessions during her first three weeks as a part-time beginning teacher. After that, it seemed that her ongoing experiences as a beginning teacher took over from her CertTESOL tutoring experiences as the focus of her reflections about her development as a teacher. This contrasts with her observation experiences during the CertTESOL, which, as we have seen above, continued to be a focus of reflection even after two years of teaching experience and further professional studies. We surmise that this may be not only because the observations were actual personal experiences, but also because observing well-qualified and highly experienced ESOL teachers had the advantage of providing opportunities to notice and reflect on a much wider range of practices and issues than were evident in the students’ own practice teaching/tutoring experiences.

Lortie (1975) coined the term “apprenticeship of observation” to account for the thousands of hours people have spent observing teachers by the time they finish their

formal schooling. His work gave rise to the notion that one of the roles of teacher education must be to counteract the influence of the “apprenticeship of observation” (see, for example, Farrell, 2007). From the evidence of this case study, for Sarah, reflective observation of experienced ESOL teachers served in part at least to counteract that influence.

Reflection doesn’t just happen. Smith (2001) argues for the importance of modelling through teacher education coursework the approach to teaching that is being proposed. The CertTESOL programme gave Sarah opportunities to observe and to tutor/teach. The PRACTICE class discussions, the self-review journal and the course assignments provided dialogic vehicles which encouraged and supported reflection. This study provides evidence that the processes of observation, practical experience, dialogue and reflection are interrelated and interdependent.

There has been considerable debate in the TESOL field about the respective merits of taking a “reflective practice” approach and a “knowledge base” (e.g., Fradd & Lee, 1998) approach to teacher education (see, for example, Yates & Muchisky (2003) and the responses by Freeman & Johnson (2004), Bartels (2004) and Muchisky & Yates (2004)). The CertTESOL programme which we have focused on in this study took a “reflective practice” approach, so perhaps it is not surprising that it has come through very strongly in our study that Sarah was primarily concerned with the process of becoming and being a teacher during her initial CertTESOL teacher education programme. What is worth noting, though is that that concern continued through the interview/discussion part of the study, which took place while she was doing further TESOL education which took a primarily “knowledge based” approach, and while she was in her first positions as an ESOL teacher. Still she focused on the practice aspects of her experiences. This is not to say that she ignored issues of teacher knowledge or of theory, but that she positioned them clearly in the service of practice, not as driving it.

For us, what has come through from our study is that, not only in teacher education but also for all of us as teachers, we need to make time, space and ways in our very busy professional lives to reflect on our own practice and the practice of others. Mok commented that: “Teacher development is a long, slow process...teachers often lack feedback and stimulus to reflect once they have stepped out of their practicum” (1994, p. 109). There are book-length discussions on how ESOL teachers can reflect (e.g., Richards & Farrell, 2011; Farrell, 2006), but here are our brief suggestions based on our study: Keeping a self-review journal is one way of providing such a stimulus (if we struggle to make time to write one, we can talk it onto a voice recorder instead). But keeping an individual journal may not be the most effective way of proceeding. In the CertTESOL, students had opportunities to reflect through discussions in and out of class, i.e. any written reflections grew out of interactive, dialogic reflections. In teaching contexts, conversations with colleagues can be another way of engaging in reflection on our own practices. But to reflect effectively on the practice of others, we need to make time to observe colleagues teaching, and then reflect on what we have

observed. Again, this is likely to be more effective if we reflect collaboratively and dialogically. In the CertTESOL, there were always two students observing at the same time in a class, so they had at least two views of what they had seen to discuss. As teachers, we could consider trying to find ways to observe in pairs. Reflecting collaboratively and dialogically (between observers or between observer(s) and observed teacher) can be done through face-to-face discussion after observations, but it can also be done through dialogue journals – on paper, by email, or orally by responding to each others’ voice-recorded reflections. Thus we continue our development throughout our professional lives. Ensuring that we continue our development through observation and reflection is not easy, but it is doable, and we believe our collaborative self-study provides evidence that it is worthwhile.

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NARRATIVE RE-EVALUATION AND SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

The use of narrative in second language teacher development has increased in recent years, largely based on the claim that teachers organize their teaching knowledge and experience through narrative. Most of these studies have not looked at narratives as texts. Recently, however, several studies have used done so by drawing on sociolinguistic approaches. Two previously published second language teacher development narratives that have used sociolinguistics approaches to narrative are examined to illustrate how one element of narrative in particular, evaluation and re-evaluation, contributes to the professional development of second language teachers.

Narrative inquiry and professional development

How do TESOL professionals acquire their knowledge? There is no monolithic view of this, but it is clear that, in the past twenty-some years, the influence of the reflective approach has steadily grown (Freeman, 2002) with a range of teacher development research options, one being *narrative inquiry*.

Claims about the value of narrative inquiry revolve around the idea that narrative expresses the socially situated and constructed nature of language teacher knowledge (Bell 2002; Freeman, 2002; Johnson 2009; Johnson and Golombek 2002). This includes the claim that teacher knowledge is largely tacit and may be best captured and conveyed through the narratives or stories teachers tell about their work (Bell 2002; Freeman and Johnson 1998). Teacher learning, therefore, occurs as individuals recognize the import of their stories for their practices. In this article, narratives that perform this function will be labeled professional development narratives (PDNs), whether or not they are explicitly situated within narrative inquiry.

Underlying these claims is the idea that ‘the structure of language and the structure of experience become inextricable...our experience of human affairs comes to take the form of the narratives we use in telling about them’ (Bruner, 1991, p. 5). This approach to narrative is what Schiffrin (2006) calls a *competence-based* approach where the focus is on ‘the potential of narrative as a cognitive means of organizing and constructing experience’ (p. 22). This is in contrast to what she calls a *code-based* approach where the focus is on ‘the realization of narrative as ‘text’’ (p. 22), also known as *narrative analysis*. Although the two approaches have different foci, ‘they complement one another in practice: analyzing language provides information not only about how stories are told, but also about how our experience is organized’ (Schiffrin, 2006, p. 23).

As Cortazzi (1994) pointed out over fifteen years ago in a review of narrative in language teaching, ‘many developments in narrative analysis have not been widely applied to language teaching’ (p. 157). This was echoed by Pavlenko (2007), who called for more analyses that considered language, as well as urging a more critical approach that acknowledges the challenges of using autobiographic data and investigates the social and cultural influences on them at both micro and macro levels. Since then this challenge has been taken up, perhaps most notably by Barkhuizen (2011), who coins the term *narrative knowledging* to describe what happens when narratives are co-constructed between narrators and co-narrators such as researchers. Narrative knowledging is an activity aimed at capturing the ‘active, fluid nature of meaning making’ (p. 6).

The evaluation and re-evaluation that occurs narratives may be one way in which narrative knowledging occurs. In particular, sociolinguistic approaches to evaluation and re-evaluation take into account the role of co-construction in narratives. It is, therefore, one way to approach the question of how professional development may occur through narrative.

Sociolinguistic narrative analysis, evaluation and re-evaluation

Labov’s work on narratives established the idea that evaluation is the means through which a narrative can claim relevance by establishing personal interest (Labov & Waletzky, 2003/1967). Evaluation may take place at different stages in a narrative. For example, narrator commentary, self-quotation, or character quotation may interrupt and suspend the action of a narrative to create anticipation (‘And I told him that—it’s impossible’, p. 98), or may coincide with the resolution of the narrative (‘I said to myself: this is it’, p. 97). These are forms of external evaluation because they occur outside the flow of the narrative action. There are also forms of internal evaluation, which may be found in the evaluative meaning of words and phrases throughout the narrative (‘real, real bad’, p. 97), including symbolic and culturally significant meaning (‘You could hear the rosaries clicking’, p. 98).

Some of Labov’s assumptions have been questioned on the grounds that they are features of a particular type of narrative, the personal experience narrative that focuses on a specific event. Another type is the conversational narrative (Norrick, 2000). They range from life stories or histories (Linde, 1993; Ochs & Capps, 2001) to small stories (Bamberg, 2006), which may be just a few words. In these narratives evaluation may create coherence by attributing causality and continuity to a life story.

Schiffrin (2009) explicitly questions several of Labov’s assumptions. She focuses on the ways in which connections are established between the denotational or story world of the narrative being told and the interactional or real world in which it is being told. The interactional world of the narrator(s) and listeners include the other narratives (and other texts) they mention or reproduce or are reminded of, as well as the discourse features of the narrative itself and how they are repeated or altered on

each narrative occasion. Even when the same speaker is telling the “same” story, specific features may be modified on different occasions for different audiences (Schiffrin, 2006, 2009). In these complex connections between the story world and the real world, narratives not only express people’s beliefs about the past, but also their beliefs about the present and their hopes and fears for the future.

This juncture between the story world and real world is also where evaluation can emerge. Norrick (2010) suggests that ‘evaluation emerges as part of the process of narration’ (p. 183) due to the tension between the story world and real world identities of the narrator.

On both accounts of narrative, evaluation plays a key role in expressing the significance of events. Its ubiquity is that evident in the way that evaluation may occur not only within a narrative, but also through a narrative, or even of a narrative (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999).

Evaluation may also become re-evaluation. Narratives also provide opportunities for re-evaluation through the use of others’ voices and metaphor (Gwyn, 2000); by including others’ voices with embedded reports and researcher co-construction, and by using description for its metaphorical value, experience can be objectified, making the familiar unfamiliar to provide an alternative view. Schiffrin (2003) discusses the use of narratives to mediate experience, such as the traumatic experience of Holocaust survivors, by creating coherence through re-evaluation and even reconstruction of narratives through retrospectively available knowledge. Such acts of re-evaluation contribute to viewing the world as teleological and individuals as agentive.

Narrators may also incorporate listener evaluations into their narratives. Although not all listener contributions result in responses from a narrator, some ‘are generally fairly likely to elicit an immediate response from the primary speaker’ (Norrick, 2010, p. 189). They may refocus the attention of the narrator to respond to evaluative responses by incorporating them into the narrative (Norrick, 2010).

These studies suggest how narrative evaluation and re-evaluation may be used within PDNs. This article will examine two recent professional development narratives that drew on sociolinguistic approaches to narrative in order to see if evaluation and especially re-evaluation, which are not explicitly discussed in them, play a role in how the narratives contribute to professional development. It aims to answer the question:

Does narrative re-evaluation in language teacher narratives contribute to professional development?

Re-evaluation in language teacher narratives

Re-evaluation of a narrative: Developing a more critical perspective

The role of interlocutors—whether members of the audience, as Norrick (2010) discusses or research interviewers as Pavlenko (2007) discusses—may allow a narrator to explore alternative perspectives (Ochs, 2006). One example of an interlocutor may lead a teacher narrator to re-evaluate their narrative is in Barkhuizen's (2010) positioning analysis of the 'better life' small story of Sela, a Tongan pre-service language teacher, which means this study is one of the few professional development narrative studies to directly use sociolinguistic tools. Barkhuizen shows how he repeatedly prompted Sela to address his question about the type of teaching arrangement she would like. His prompts lead Sela to address a number of professional concerns, including the role of *ma*, or shame, which Sela suggests prevents Tongans from learning English. By discussing *ma*, Sela presents herself as 'in her imagined teacher identity, as mediator of this conflict' (Barkhuizen, 2010, p. 290). This, then, is one example of how Sela positions herself within, and is positioned by, the discourse of immigration and language teacher education. As the research interviewer, Barkhuizen helped Sela co-construct her narrative by pushing her to express it. This allowed Sela to objectify her understandings and approach them from an alternative perspective (Gywn, 2000).

Another approach to this narrative is to focus on how this co-construction led Sela to a re-evaluation *of* her narrative (Cortazzi and Jin, 1999) that occurs outside the narrative itself. This occurs some time after the research interview, when Sela is provided with the analysis. She responds to the analysis it with, 'I've just finished reading through the analysis, and my word, thank you for dissecting my identity complexity(ies) and thus giving me the ability not only to understand it, but also verbalize it. It was VERY INTERESTING reading indeed!' (p. 295). Sela then says, 'however, I do feel kinda, I don't know the word, sort of like a pessimist that I make 'all' Tongan migrants sound like they're non- or limited-speakers of English, and hence disadvantaged; after all, there are a lot of Tongan migrants who are highly qualified and proficient in English' (p. 296). Although the researcher suggests 'narrators are selective in what they tell' (p. 296) and that Sela has positioned herself within mainstream ELT discourse in her narrative, in this response Sela is also re-evaluating part of her narrative. Thus it is not only *in* the narrative that Sela has revealed the underlying tensions between the cultural values of her community and her aims as a language teacher, but also in her later re-evaluation *of* the narrative that she has co-constructed with the researcher. This re-evaluation suggests Sela may be developing a nascent understanding of the possibilities that a more critical approach to her profession may have for her professional development.

Re-evaluation through a narrative: Examining practices and developing standards

Schiffrin's (2003, 2006, 2009) discussion of how narrators shape their narratives on different occasions takes note of the different information available to narrators at different times. In this section a collaborative study involving a researcher and a

teacher will be used. Lazaraton and Ishihara (2005) examine a discourse analysis of the nonverbal behavior or gestures of a teacher. (In the following extracts, T stands for the teacher, Ishihara, and R for the researcher, Lazaraton.) In this narrative, ‘understanding gained through collaboration and reflection stimulated and finally enabled T to analyze and articulate her beliefs’ (p. 537). Although the authors do not identify this as a narrative, the collaborative dialogues and the teacher’s reflections resemble data from other studies described as narrative.

Lazaraton and Ishihara (2005) indicate that in the early part of the research project, the teacher ‘made no mention’ (p. 536) of her gestures in her written reflections. The researcher’s focus on them in her classroom observation transcription and in their collaborative dialogues drew the teacher’s attention to her use of gestures. Initially T evaluates them as potentially ‘confusing’ (p. 536) for students. But in her later self-reflections, she writes that her dialogues with the researcher ‘pushed me to think...and stimulated further contemplation within myself. How do I know what I know? What shapes my view of second language teaching/learning?’ (p. 538).

In other words, the real world prompted the teacher to re-evaluate what she believed and did (the subject matter of the story world) by pushing her to seek out sources and influences. This led T to understand the significance of gestures in her teaching. The authors describe how their dialogues led the teacher to ‘renewed understanding’ (p. 537) so that ‘her articulated belief was transformed into her new experiential knowledge’ (p. 537), described in her written reflections:

T: It [non-verbal behavior] can certainly be an effective teaching aid that can bolster both teaching and student comprehension, provided that it is used in a pedagogically and culturally appropriate manner. To be effective, non-verbal behavior must be coordinated with the verbal counterpart in a non-obtrusive way, and used to send a consistent message. (T4,10/19/02) (p. 537)

From a text perspective, this re-evaluation of gestures stands out as sharing in the more formal language of the larger research discourse rather than the more narrative discourse of some of T’s written reflections. Through the self-awareness she has retrospectively gained through collaborative dialogue and self-reflection, T is in a better position to act as an agent in her classroom in the future (although it might be an overstatement to suggest, as Schriffrin (2003) does with her far weightier subject matter, that re-telling and re-evaluating can make the world appear teleological and agency within it possible).

The authors repeatedly underline that the reflective tools of collaborative dialogues and the teacher’s self-reflective writings ‘enabled her to make a connection between deeply buried subconscious beliefs, half-forgotten experience, and her currently constructed knowledge of her teaching, thus leading to her continued professional growth’ (Lazaraton & Ishihara, 2005, p. 538). T initiated this process by incorporating (Norrick, 2010) R’s recognition of and attention to her gestures by negatively

evaluating them. She does not adopt R's evaluation, but evaluates and then re-evaluates her use of gestures by comparing them to the standards she has for her teaching, such as sending a consistent message, which directly addresses her earlier negative evaluation of them as confusing. Thus it is not only the process of collaborative dialogue that led to professional development, but also the re-evaluation that occurred through the narrative self-reflections on the dialogues. This re-evaluation has also contributed to T's professional development.

Professional development and narrative re-evaluation

This re-analysis of two professional development narratives shows that it is not just what happens *in* a narrative as it is co-constructed that enables professional development to occur, but also the re-evaluation that happens *through* the narrative and *of* the narrative. Teachers develop not merely by telling stories, and not only by evaluating those stories, but also by re-evaluating them. This answer builds on the recognized role narratives play in expressing teachers' knowledge, and extends it by identifying a distinguishing feature and function of narrative, evaluation and especially re-evaluation, as the means through which some kinds of narrative knowledging (Barkhuizen, 2011) occurs.

The narratives examined here show this occurring in two ways. First, re-evaluation may initiate or foretell the direction of development, as alternative perspectives become articulated, perhaps with the assistance of interlocutor (as in Barkhuizen, 2010). Second, re-evaluation may lead to developing or extending personal teaching standards (as in Lazerton and Ishihara, 2005). These paths for development suggest that a professional development narrative is a consciousness-raising practice.

As a consciousness-raising practice, professional development narratives are only a first step. But a first step to what? What is important is not only the practice or event that is the subject of reflection, but also—and perhaps more significantly—the basis on which it is evaluated. Teachers can become conscious of the criteria they use to judge their own practice, as these two teachers did. This is important because all too often the thrust of professional development is based on an underlying notion that there is something deficient in a teacher's practice or theory—that we need to improve. I am instead suggesting that perhaps teachers benefit from simply considering what they already believe and know and do, and by comparing these cognitions and practices, seeing whether they want or need to re-evaluate any of them.

This is, of course, nothing new: it is what self-reflection means. It is, therefore, surprising that evaluation and re-evaluation, which are an important focus in narrative analysis, are not (at least not explicitly) an important focus in narrative inquiry, too.

Although this article has focused on evaluation, it did not explore many ways in which linguistic examination of narrative, both as object from the structural perspective and in use from the interactional perspective, may further add to our knowledge of how

narratives function in professional development. There are two specific ways in which the language of PDNs might be approached that could potentially strengthen the argument that it is evaluation that drives PDNs. Both analyses would be situated within systemic functional linguistics (SFL). Appraisal (see Martin and White, 2005), which arose from SFL, is an obvious way to systematically explore the language of narrative evaluation in PDNs. Another approach is through genre analysis. As noted, a PDN is hardly a canonical narrative; perhaps it is emerging genre with its own narrative expectations. Additionally, there may be other aspects of narrative that also contribute to development.

This article also reinforces a pedagogical point that has been made elsewhere: only teachers can determine what knowledge is relevant to their concerns and how it can be effectively employed (Ellis, 2010). Narrative inquiry allows teachers to choose their own experiential concerns and the theoretical knowledge relevant to them. This can occur even in a traditionally organized curriculum with subjects such as theoretical linguistics and second language acquisition, by setting narrative inquiry assignments where pre-service teachers draw on their experiences as learners or their imagined identities as teachers, and in-service teachers draw on their experiences as professionals.

The fact that these two narratives were co-constructed implies that teacher educators, colleagues, and even researchers have an important role to play in contributing to the dialogue that seems to initiate and drive some narratives. Further exploration of the extent to which teacher narrators incorporate the evaluations of teacher educators, colleagues and researchers, following Norrick (2010), might prove worthy both from a research and pedagogical perspective.

Identifying evaluation and re-evaluation as key features of what makes a PDN work is one step in that direction. Teacher educators in particular can provide the assistance novice narrators may need to engage in effective professional development in, through, and of narrative, although this assumes that teacher educators are equipped to handle this role. Researchers who are also teacher educators may have a special role to play here. The narrative frame developed by Barkhuizen and Wette (2008), for example, may provide the kind of assistance researchers, teacher educators, and teachers alike may find useful. Researching whether explicit evaluations and re-evaluations become incorporated into cognitions and practices would be one line of inquiry. Learning more about why narrative inquiry works should improve opportunities for its effective use in practical applications.

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MIGRANTS INTO WORK: INTERPRETING WORKPLACE INTERACTIONS

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Abstract

Migrant workers need to interpret the language around them in their work. Analysis of interaction in a tanning factory in New Zealand draws on an evolving framework derived from pragmatics to interpret workplace language. In a site with Samoan, Tongan and Pakeha (European) ethnicities and largely male workforce, the female Samoan pay clerk bridges the mostly European administration offices and the Pacific Islands factory floor of hard physical labour. Study of workplace transcripts opens up possibilities for language teachers and learners to develop a frame for exploring interpretation of language, culture and workplace functioning.

Keywords: interpretation, workplace language, pragmatics, language education

Introduction

Workers regularly face the need to interpret language interactions in the workplace, some of which they also take part in. For L2 migrants, the need is intensified, often to a great extent, since they may be dealing consciously or otherwise with differences and difficulties in language, culture and position in society, along with issues of power relations, societal values, ideologies, power structures and unfamiliarity with local workplace procedures.

Meanwhile, language education has moved somewhat to use authentic text in language classes, which Roberts and Cooke (2009) argue provides “an essential bridge between the classroom and learners’ real lives” (p. 625). (See also Clifton, 2005; Guariento & Morley, 2001; Kilickaya, 2004; Mishan, 2004; Newton, 2004; Purcell-Gates, Degener, Jakobson & Soler, 2002; Riddiford & Joe, 2006; Riddiford & Newton, 2010). There is naturally enough some debate over authentic materials (cf Day, 2003), and various hesitations. For instance, teachers readily point out that the classroom may only uneasily try to replicate the real work world; that the messy nature of natural language can be daunting for learners; that there are questions over whether learners should “practise” the language of authentic texts. But from a different point of view, freed of the pressures of work settings, classrooms do give the opportunity to stand back and scrutinise authentic text and interactions, without having to respond on the spot to problems and challenges posed by the language and events on the factory floor. A desirable outcome for learners would be strategies for analysing language use in context and for considering appropriate responses.

Study of communication in the workplace has an extensive history of investigation, including and going well beyond “talk at work” (e.g. Holmes & Riddiford, 2009;

Holmes, Schnurr & Marra, 2007; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; “sensemaking” (Mills, 2002; Weick, 1995); business discourse (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2009); and discourse in the “New Work Order” (Gee, Hull & Lankshear 1996).

This paper explores the construction of meaning in “Tannco”, an ethnically-mixed tanning company in New Zealand. The question arises of a suitable theoretical base for analysis of workplace language.

Pragmatics

Pragmatics offers a framework for exploring meanings of language users’ communication. In almost shorthand terms, Clark (2005) calls pragmatics “the study of language in use” (p. 365).

Other descriptions of pragmatics are rather more extensive. A case in point is Cruse (2000), who sees pragmatics as dealing with information that is both encoded in language forms and separately, capable of interpretation *beyond* language forms, considered in context (p. 16). Others similarly emphasise context, such as Horn and Ward (2004), who refer to “context-dependent aspects of meaning” (p. xi).

Some earlier discussions of pragmatics also amplify the picture, for instance Green (1989), who argues that pragmatics deals with “understanding intentional human action” (p. 3). Green thereby tacitly invokes the notion of language users, hearkening back to the influential philosopher, Morris (1971), who argues, “[b]y ‘pragmatics’ is designated the science of the relation of signs to their interpreters” (p. 30).

Taking these different dimensions into account, we arrive at a working definition of pragmatics as *the interpreted meaning of people’s language use, taken in context*, drawn on for the discussion below. It seems appropriate to emphasise interpretation, since meaning is consistently subject to debate, is not always unambiguously evident, and is in any case, a construction placed on language. This working definition of pragmatics can serve as an outline for a classroom procedure in analysing text.

Within pragmatics, we distinguish Discourse Analysis as a relevant and productive theoretical base. Since its concepts can be hotly contested (see Widdowson, 2004), we necessarily use its terms with some caution. We note that Discourse Analysis focuses often on extended stretches of language, which in the case of spoken language, allows for recognising complex and rich interactions that may or may not be linear. Discourse Analysis insists on addressing language in context: “*the actual and densely contextualised forms in which language occurs in society*”, says Blommaert (2005, p. 15) (italics original). Language is therefore also “situated” argues Blommaert (p. 39), which would seem to invite analysts to acknowledge local contexts in particular. Accounts of language, says Wooffitt (2005), “are intimately linked to the context in which they are produced” (p. 18). Then, on the vexed question of interpretation, Widdowson (2004) notes, “we read plausible meanings *into* a text” (p. 19).

Methodology

The transcribed interactions drawn on in this paper were collected as part of the Language in the Workplace Project (LWP) based at Victoria University of Wellington (VUW) (Stubbe 1998; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003).

The sets of exchanges in this paper come from the factory floor and office of Tannco, a tanning factory in New Zealand. The workplace provided approximately thirty hours of recorded and transcribed conversations, with key participants wearing lapel microphones for up to two hours a day for five days. The recordings were also supplemented by one-to-one transcribed interviews with the CEO and the pay-clerk.

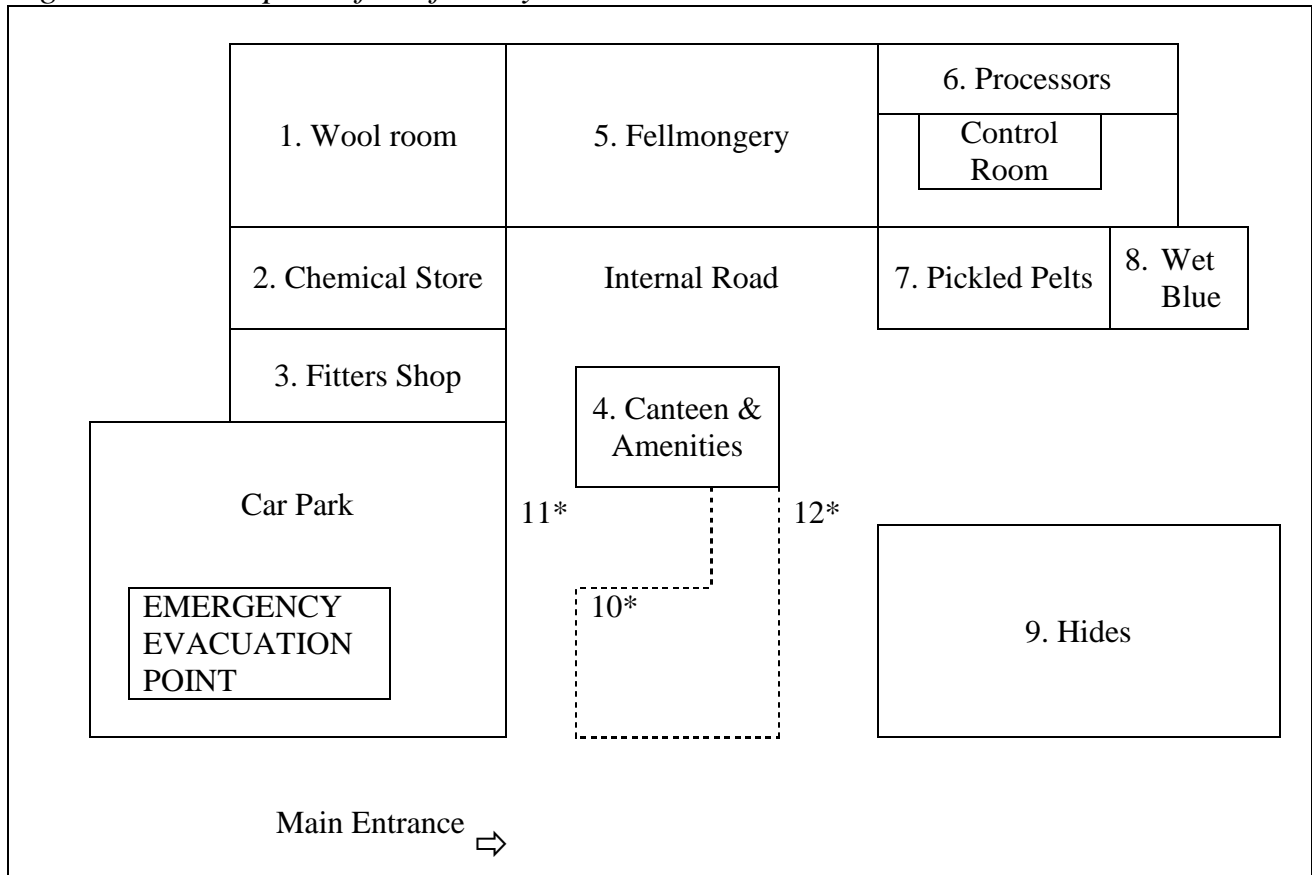
The research follows the ethics requirements of the LWP, approved by the University, with standard information and consent forms. All names in the interactions are pseudonyms and all transcription symbols are printed in their entirety, in conformity with LWP practice. The transcription protocols are separately described in the Wellington Corpus of New Zealand English Transcriber's Manual (Vine, Johnson, O'Brien & Robertson, 2002).

Orientation and overview

The workforce in Tannco was ethnically varied, composed of Samoan, Tongan and New Zealand Pakeha. We should note that throughout this discussion, we are concerned with ethnicity, a social construct, not race, in identifying workers. A potential source of distance or dissimilarity was that the administration office was mostly Pakeha men and women, while the factory floor consisted solely of Pacific Island males. Employees were encouraged to engage in their own preferred languages in work, and exhibited varying language performance in English.

The physical layout of the plant appears schematically in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Site plan of the factory



*10 Manager's, Pay Clerk's, Account's and other Admin Staff Office.

*11 Covered Walkway.

*12 Office of Production Manager.

Both within the plant and in the data analysis, the building housing the canteen (#4) and the administration offices (#10-12) is a strategic area and location. Placed centrally, it is surrounded by the factory floor. The canteen (also referred to as the “smoko room”) is the meeting place for all staff, and provides the setting for the recordings in the current article.

Timesheets: Banter and business

Both for exploring the text and preparing material for teaching, there are a number of relevant questions to pose for workplace transcripts. These include, who the players are, what roles they play, what their work relationship is, what tasks they carry out, how they interact, and what contexts and settings they function in.

In Tannco, the general context of the interactions was a work environment of hard, noisy physical labour on the floor, counterposed with a more relaxed and quieter existence in the administration offices. Tanning work is highly demanding, conducted

in odorous surroundings, often in very hot conditions. The smoko room, used by both floor workers and administrators, was barren and untidy.

The immediate catalyst for the interaction that follows is the need for certain paperwork. Site visits established that Leola, 40, the Samoan pay-clerk in the administrative office, has to make demands on various workers in her role as a coordinator. Here she confronts Phil, the 55-year-old Pakeha Production Manager, in the canteen:

- 1 Leola: I've got to chase (Phil) time sheets before he runs away +++ Mr XXX
- 2 Phil: Yes sweetie
- 3 Leola: Yes sweetie! My timesheets /what\ time is it?
- 4 Phil: /(.....)\ (yelling in background)
- 5 Leola: Where are your time sheets?
- 6 Phil: Oh I haven't even signed them yet but they're there + they're all there waiting for you + been there since =\
- 7 Leola: =/ well do you think this is Bart's office
- 8 Phil: This is where he comes and collects them every Monday morning you put em there, we'll come and get them
- 9 Leola: That is not good enough if you want to get pay and if he want his staff to get paid and be happy at work you should get these on my desk at nine o'clock at least every Monday [very strong voice]
- 10 Phil: Thank you ma'am =/
- 11 Leola: =/ Oh please I don't know
- 12 Phil: We're just too good for you that's all. You've told off Phil aye (Leola laughs) You just tell him off? (.....)
- 13 Leola: (laughs) /I'm picking \ on him but here I'm starting again and it's (him)
- 14 Phil: There's a reason for that Why? Just cos I'm a poor ol' one that can't move out of the way I 'm + I get picked on
- 15 Leola: now you tell me + now you tell me that way I can understand +++ I don't know + You're still happy as eh?
- 16 Phil: Yep (I...)=\

Two features bind both the conversation and the players: the *banter* that they fall into, and the *business* they're conducting. Leola serves her message: she needs timesheets (Lines 1, 3 5, 7, 9), the business she has to conduct. Phil signals that he knows what the issue is, but with responses that only partially answer the demands (Lines 6 and 8) and mostly in a kind of joking repartee. Leola plays the heavy manager role in Line 9, prompting Phil to switch back to defensive banter in Line 10, which both of them maintain till Line 14.

With the banter enabling the business, the two speakers engage in the necessary workplace activity of pay, through an overlay of apparently good-natured light-

heartedness and an underlay of slight uncertainty. Taken as a whole, the exchange offers evidence of a robust working culture and relationship that can operate at different levels, withstand strain and conduct the expected demands of the factory, apparently without damaging their partnership.

There is a further feature of the exchange: the data show that there was at least one other employee in the room at the time. Hence, on the question of plain speaking, one might wonder if the two workers were playing to the gallery in some way, since awareness of an audience may conceivably have framed the way they interacted, possibly intensifying their language and verbal play.

Several aspects of context are relevant to this discussion. As described earlier, one is the physical setting of the work – the nature of the factory, the hard physical labour, the labour-force, the location of the administration block within the factory layout, all of which can shape workplace interactions. A second aspect is the participants themselves – there are differences in ethnicity, age, gender and status, which can potentially influence attitudes and language use. One feature to note in this regard is that Phil is Production Manager, in effect Second-in-Command, whereas Leola is much lower in the management structure. It is therefore striking that she conducts the conversation in the almost flamboyant way that she does, challenging Phil in a lively manner. A third aspect of context is the immediate prompt for the exchange – a slightly charged workplace practice, with potential for vigorous responses. A fourth is that there is an audience to the interchange – as just argued, people may speak differently to each other if they know that there is a third party listening in.

There are now some suggested answers to a number of the questions posed above. The two speakers are fellow workers, with separately defined roles. They talk quite plainly and directly to each other. Leola in the role of pay-clerk has the task of collecting time-sheets. There is a certain amount of humorous exchange, with slight hints of friction between the two. Phil is somewhat reluctantly compliant to Leola's demands.

What then might prompt Phil's responses? One possibility is that age and gender issues combine to irk Phil: he may not like a younger woman portraying him as inadequate, especially in front of an audience. Likewise, there may be a status question: Phil, Production Manager, may not welcome reproof from the pay-clerk, arguably a lower echelon. Or, he simply may not like to be challenged. Alternatively, he doesn't see the issue as very important, would like to minimise it, but in any case, doesn't see that it threatens his relationship with Leola.

Moving further along the range of interpretation, the question arises of how the players construct matters – for example, how they construct themselves and each other, their tasks, the situation they face, and their work world. Some possibilities arise. Leola constructs herself as a forceful driver with an office role to play, while Phil constructs

himself as a reluctant co-worker, unwilling to be pushed around. She constructs him as a non-compliant colleague, while he constructs her as a somewhat overbearing nuisance. Leola constructs the situation as a necessary interaction (she needs the timesheets). Phil constructs the situation as a minor interference.

The point of the questions is to put into practice the working definition of pragmatics outlined above, as a means of exploring authentic text in the classroom. To recall, the definition we use is, *the interpreted meaning of people's language use, taken in context*, in which the shaded sections offer components of an evolving frame for classroom analysis of workplace data. While there is a constant element of interpretation in any dealings with text, the aim here is to ascribe meaning to data by the end of the process, in the light of scrutinising what we know about the people involved, their situation, and the language they use in relevant contexts.

Conceivably, there could be quite other interpretations of the above transcript. Some might see the text as an uncomfortable exchange, with barely concealed levels of dislike and unease. In this line of reasoning, the conversation could be an illustration of a poorly functioning or aggressive work culture. Given the evidence available, we argue otherwise, but the essence of analysing text in language classes would be to explore different options and the case to make for them.

Joint exploration of workplace data then could lead teachers and language students to interestingly varied interpretations, in an activity that would be much more open than traditional “comprehension exercises” with their pre-decided correct answers. The point of the activity would be to offer a principled way of investigating text and reflecting on workplace practices. The underlying issue would be to equip learners to approach dynamic and unscripted interactions with insight.

Bridging – Brokering

In a later and very different exchange in the tanning factory, context is again significant. In this event, Leola and the Production Manager, Phil, rally around Kingi, a Pacific Islander, who had fallen sick at work and needed an ambulance to get medical care. Kingi had lost time and income as a result, the workers had needed to reconstruct and record the sequence of events, and there had been initiatives both within the factory and to the national health system to arrange income for Kingi. In the analysis below, the pragmatics outline continues to provide a guide for exploring the interactions.

The discussion is a multicultural situation. Of the people involved, Leola is Samoan, Phil is Pakeha, and Kingi is Tongan. Elsewhere in the transcripts, Leola emphasises her Samoan ethnicity, yet seems equally at home in Pakeha company and society, and functions well in English, her second language. Kingi has an uneven knowledge of English and an uncertain grasp of the health system, including ACC, the Accident Compensation Commission, New Zealand's public primary-health system. Kingi is

often inarticulate in the conversation, probably through a combination of limitations in language and inadequate knowledge of health care procedures, although his responses and interventions do contribute to some extent to the evolving meaning-making of the exchange. Leola and Phil tend to direct the discussion and take over the planning, either because they seem to understand the issue or because Kingi is hesitant to engage actively in the interchange. Leola and Phil speak to and about Kingi, at times referring to him in the third person, as they engage with paperwork, try to reconstruct relevant history and confer about appropriate steps.

On Kingi's return to work some days after being hospitalised, the three workers engage in an extended planning sequence to ensure his income for him. Early in the discussion, Leola and Phil recognise that Kingi needs health care support, but doesn't know how to access it. The situation is complicated, because it is not totally clear which aspects of the national system should be responsible for Kingi's case. Meanwhile, an added consideration is whether Kingi would be eligible for some leave payment from the workplace to tide him over. As they turn their attention to the national health system, they consider certain exceptions that operate in health care and Leola appears to be thinking ahead to ways of outflanking the health bureaucracy:

Leola =/ social welfare is actually accepting that and he's going to /get some\\

Kingi:/yes ++ yes\\

Leola: money but the thing is there's a stand down period ++

Phil: oh

Leola: there shouldn't be a stand down period because he wasn't /even \\ paid off

They then start to plan the specifics of the next approach to ACC. This part of the discussion might seem like a stretch of cross-examining, though taken in the context of the rest of the exchange, it may simply amount to a form of querying out loud, in order to understand the situation of dealing with ACC:

Phil: have you been down to see them

Kingi: ahhh

Phil: A C C

Kingi: (....)

Phil: and what did they say

K: (... .. form ... another)

Leola: you should answer those /queries on\\ that ACC form

Kingi: /yeah the form\\

Leola: ummm

Kingi: yeah ACC

After extensive discussion, Leola details the next steps for Kingi and specifically guarantees her active support. In her last comment at the end of this clip, she also

reveals a move at pre-emptive damage-control over sick leave, in possible future encounters with officialdom:

Leola: take it to social welfare

Kingi: ohhh eh

Leola: I'll make a copy I'll keep a copy I'll give you the original

Kingi: yeah

Leola: to take to social welfare yeah make sure they get that original

Leola: (that is) the original this is my card

Kingi: oh yeah

Leola: if you see that lady at social welfare

Kingi: mmmm

Leola: can you ask her to give me a call to confirm with them that he has not been paid sick leave at all because he did not have sick hours

And Leola pointedly reinforces her determination to help Kingi, once again looking ahead to possible outcomes:

Leola: please tell the lady //+ \just give me a call

Leola: they should give you a +++ ummmm +++ a social welfare mmm + social welfare form

Kingi: mmmm

Leola: to bring it back here and I'll fill it out

Consistently throughout the interaction, Leola and Phil act as mentors and almost as go-betweens to Kingi. They include him as one of their own circle in the planning, they try to explore with Kingi what has happened, and specifically describe the next necessary steps both to themselves and to Kingi. In the course of the conversation, Leola and Phil seem to construct themselves as somewhat knowledgeable about the different bureaucracies they must deal with. Meanwhile, they construct Kingi as needing support, and their frame for the interactions is a situation of need and uncertainty. Leola and Phil are relatively articulate. Kingi is strikingly not so, which in itself may be an indication of his ability to advance his own health care.

In the process of addressing health literacy, Leola and Phil interpret part of the health care culture for Kingi, making that culture accessible to a migrant worker who faces obstacles of language and socio-ethnic custom. In so doing, they promote a certain measure of social justice for their fellow worker.

The workplace conversation appears to be a recognition that the health issue is both a legitimate item arising from the work setting (sickness at work; company responsibility for ensuing paperwork and approaches to ACC) and an item of national health officialdom. The exchange reads as an affirmation that it is appropriate for employees to support and include a colleague in a time of need. Hence, Leola and Phil play a pivotal role in taking responsibility for Kingi.

The intercultural dynamic of this exchange functions on three levels. First, the three different ethnicities interact with some measure of understanding. Second, Phil and Leola link the central office administration to the factory floor. They function as two key players to relate the company's procedures to the needs of a migrant floor worker. Phil and Leola can recall and explain company processes and therefore make them explicit and operational for Kingi. Third, Phil and Leola broker the health provider system for Kingi's benefit. They interpret the health system for Kingi, in the attempt to make that culture accessible to him. In similar circumstances, migrant workers would benefit from recognising the dilemmas they might be faced with, the nature of workplace culture and support, and who they might rely on for help.

Once again, a different interpretation is possible. Kingi may see the whole exchange as an unwelcome intrusion on his life. He may be silent because he doesn't want to take part in the conversation, and/or is just waiting for his co-workers to drop the topic. If so, the question is to find supporting evidence in the text.

Discussion

There is a certain robust intensity in the transcripts considered here. The employees co-construct their interactions and their work with vigour. They deal with necessary work tasks and sustain working relationships, apparently in a satisfactory way. Meanwhile they interweave their exchanges with a certain verbal play that smoothes the functioning of these workers and suggests a collegial workplace culture.

It would be satisfying to point to freely available data-banks of workplace language. Unfortunately, researchers in this area tend to restrict access to their data largely to their own team. However, active research projects do publish selected data in the course of their explorations. A case in point is the LWP of Victoria University (<http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/lwp/>), which lists numerous relevant publications.

The description of pragmatics used here offers a useful frame for language education concerning the analysis of text. Throughout, context is powerfully important, giving shape and content that informs the analysis. ("The context of use needs to be re-emphasized", say Shomoossi & Ketabi, 2007). Knowledge of the people in the interactions likewise advances the interpretation of interactions. But the whole process of interpretation is advantaged by inter-relating the different components of context, the participants, and their language use. It would be clear by now that this analysis draws on relevant information from both within and beyond text. A possible frame for language education can be represented in different ways.

Pragmatics items	Sample questions
people: participants; interlocutors	who are the people? what roles do they play in the workplace? what is their work relationship to each other? what are their tasks?
language use	what do the participants say? how do they relate to each other? how do they conduct their business? who are they speaking to? what's the sequence or juxtaposition of utterances? how do they construct themselves, each other, the situation, their tasks, their work world?
contexts	what contexts are relevant to the interactions? in what ways is the language <i>situated</i> ? in what ways do the context(s) frame the interactions?
interpretation	how to interpret the interactions, taking into account knowledge of the people and the context(s)?

One can draw on the frame by going from left to right within each category and/or vertically, to inter-relate different categories. A simple linear form of the frame is the following:

people →	language use →	context(s) →	interpretation
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From the point of view of language education, the transcripts studied are small snippets of work reality. We do not advocate mining them for vocabulary exercises, comprehension activities, memorising or role-playing. Rather, they are important as studies of workplace interactions that teachers and language learners might use to jointly work out a framework for analysing the implications of exchanges. After all, other workplace transcripts might flow in totally different directions from the generally positive sequence of those above, and in much less desirable ways. The discussion here is simply one approach to a framework for language education, drawing on a concept of pragmatics that differs from a very common tendency to represent pragmatics largely as speech acts. By its nature, this kind of analysis invites differing interpretations, as suggested with each of the interactions above. That is to be expected and valued in language education. Faced with workplace transcripts, the

challenge is to derive plausible meanings by inter-relating and scrutinising significant relevant information in the process of exploring text. An illustration occurs in *Timesheets* above. If the participants are alone, the conversation might have a distinctly edgy and uneasy undertone to it. If, however, they have an audience in the smoko room, there may be an element of conscious play-acting taking place.

The issues posed would range within and beyond language. Migrant workers would need to interpret various different cultures (e.g., ethnic, social and workplace), facing complex questions like, What should they take into account in interpreting interactions? Who in the workplace might be included and who excluded? Who is entitled to take part in different scenarios? What can migrants assume? What language is appropriate? But the study of workplace transcripts opens up real potential for language courses oriented to workplace and society, including cooperative placements.

Above all, there is scope and need for teachers and learners to explore meanings, interpretations and possible responses to workplace events in context. Learners are and have been workers, they can draw on at least two languages, different cultures, and life experiences that may quite outstrip their teachers. They therefore bring potentially rich backgrounds to the interpretation of workplace interactions.

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EXPLORING SPECIALISED VOCABULARY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: WHAT DIFFERENCE MIGHT SUBJECT, EXPERIENCE, YEAR LEVEL, AND SCHOOL DECILE MAKE?

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Abstract

How do secondary school teachers approach specialised vocabulary, such as factor in Mathematics or photosynthesis in Biology, in their teaching? This article examines a section of data from an online survey of teachers and considers four factors that might affect the teachers' decisions on what specialised vocabulary to teach, the place of this vocabulary in their lesson planning, classroom activities for students that focus on this lexis, and the materials or resources they use in class when teaching this vocabulary. Data analysis reveals a number of differences when subjects are taken into account, particularly in the kinds of hands on classroom activities for students and the materials or resources used by different subject teachers. Teachers' years of experience, year level of students, and decile all have some effect also, but not to the same extent as the subject areas of the teachers.

Introduction

Vocabulary for specific purposes research has become a major area of enquiry within the larger and fast moving field of vocabulary studies. Two threads tend to run through these research initiatives. The first is a pedagogical desire to identify the most useful lexical items for a specific group of learners "...as a means to help to close the gap between learner vocabulary size and vocabulary needs" (Coxhead, Stevens & Tinkle, 2010, p. 39). This thread is central to English for Specific Purposes (ESP) research. The second thread is closely linked to the first, in that we are looking for ways to raise the number of known words in a text, thereby lessening the number of unknown words. The aim of this thread is to gain over 98% coverage of the vocabulary in a text to aid comprehension (Hu & Nation, 2000). Coverage relates to the number of tokens (individual words) in a text. It can be calculated by looking at the number of known vs. unknown words in a text or by running texts through computer programmes using word lists such as the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000) or Nation's British National Corpus lists (Nation, 2006) (see Table One and further explanation below). Nation (2001, p. 147) explains that coverage is important because

Eighty per cent coverage of a text means that one word in every five is unknown (about two words per line). Ninety per cent means one in every ten is unknown (about one word per line), and 95% coverage means one in every twenty is unknown (about one unknown word in every two lines).

Another important point is that fewer unknown words in a text means learners have better opportunities for guessing the meaning of words in context. Hu and Nation

(2000) estimated 95% (one word in 20) is needed for guessing meaning from context (see Nation & Webb, 2010 for a useful discussion of coverage in vocabulary research).

A great deal of the research carried out so far on specialised vocabulary has been focused on university learners or pre-university EAP learners. Erlam's (2010) analysis of 120 articles published between 2005-2009 in New Zealand based publications targeting research based in New Zealand, the author finds that English as a Second Language (ESOL) research in this country was predominantly focussed on learners in the tertiary context. This trend is particularly evident in vocabulary research in the range of subject-specific vocabulary lists developed to address the needs of particular learners at university level. One of the most well known lists is the Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000; 2011). Other examples include Ward's (2009) basic list for engineering students, Coxhead & Hirsh's (2007) Science-specific list for English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and Konstantakis' (2007) on Business Word List. This kind of research has yet to be carried out in the secondary school context, to the best of my knowledge. A possible reason for this gap might be that the 'boundary' of the EAP field appears to be firmly established at university preparation and university level. Another reason might be that researchers in this field tend to be based in tertiary institutions (Erlam, 2010).

In a recent study of language and content with curriculum teachers in Year 12, Gleeson (2010, p. 108) finds that subject teachers in NZ secondary schools identify vocabulary as "...the most commonly recognised linguistic challenge". The size of this challenge is highlighted in a recent study of a 280,000 running word corpus of high school science textbooks. Coxhead et al. (2010) investigated the vocabulary size needed to read these books to find the coverage of existing word lists (West's 1953 *A general service list of English words*) (GSL); Coxhead's AWL; Coxhead and Hirsh's science list) and Nation's (2006) British National Corpus (BNC) lists. Nation's lists start at 1,000 word families and go up to 20,000. Nation has also developed (and is adding to) a list of proper nouns in English. The coverage of the science textbooks overall reached 98.07% at the level of 14,000 word families plus proper nouns. However, 98% was reached at different levels for the textbooks when they were analysed as individual books. Table One below shows that 98% coverage is reached at 11,000 plus proper nouns for years 9 and 10, but at year 12, 98% is not reached.

Table One: Text coverage of four secondary science textbooks by Nation's BNC lists (adapted from Coxhead, Stevens & Tinkle, 2010, p. 47)

Word list	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11	Year 12
11,000 + proper nouns	98.08	98.17	97.54	96.60
15,000 + proper nouns	98.72	98.74	98.17	97.18
Proper nouns	0.37	0.38	0.44	0.78
Not in the lists	0.87	0.75	1.33	2.08

The authors also found that the coverage of the same textbooks by the first two thousand words of West's GSL (1953), the AWL, and Coxhead and Hirsh's science

list for EAP was 81.9%. These lists go some way but not far enough to meet the needs of secondary school readers of these science textbooks in terms of meeting the 98% coverage needed for comprehension. Further investigation is underway by the author into the specialised vocabulary of secondary school texts.

Excellent resources such as the Ministry of Education (2009) DVD series 'Making Language and Learning' illustrate ways of working with language with English language learners in mainstream secondary classrooms. Whether teachers use such models in their teaching is not reported, to the best of my knowledge. The purpose of the present study is to find out more about the lexical environment in secondary schools in NZ. To this end, an online survey of specialised vocabulary in secondary schools was developed and followed by interviews with teachers. Coxhead (under review) provides an overview of responses by the 67 teachers who participated in an online survey. The present article presents further analysis of the data from the online survey and considers the extent to which the specialist subject, experience level of the teachers, year level of the students, and decile level of the school influence the approaches of the secondary school teachers in the survey to teaching specialised vocabulary.

Research questions

1. Do teachers from different subjects approach specialised vocabulary in different ways?
2. Are there any differences between more experienced and less experienced teachers?
3. Do teachers approach specialised vocabulary differently depending on the year level of the students?
4. What effect might the decile level of the school make?

Methodology

This paper reports on data gathered through an online survey which was sent out to teachers using email and advertisements through local and national networks. Notices were sent to Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Aotearoa New Zealand (TESOLANZ) and the New Zealand Education Gazette (<http://www.edgazette.govt.nz/>), as well as in a TESOLANZ newsletter articles (see Coxhead, 2010). The survey was open for approximately six months, from August 2010 to March 2011. Human ethics approval was granted for this study by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee.

The survey was designed and trialled with the assistance of Jenna Tinkle and Liesje Stevens, Summer Research Scholarship recipients in 2009/2010. In the instructions for the survey, teachers were asked to think about one particular year level and subject, thereby focusing their responses to the questions on subject area and year level. The online survey contained twelve questions and took on average around 15 minutes to complete. Table Two below outlines the parts of the survey and gives examples of Likert scale items. Appendix One shows the Likert scale items from Question 7 from the online survey as a fuller example.

Table Two: Outline of the online survey on specialised vocabulary for secondary school teachers

Question and number of Likert scale items (N)	Questions	Examples of Likert scale Items
Questions 1-4	Main Subject Area Main Year Level Where do you teach? Do you have English as a second language (ESOL) students in these classes? How many years of teaching experience have you had?	N/A
Question 5 (N = 9)	How do you decide what specialised vocabulary to focus on?	I select vocabulary based on my own content knowledge I decide based on classroom discussion and context
Question 6	Please tell us other ways you decide what specialised vocabulary to focus on.	N/A
Question 7 (N = 8)	How does specialized vocabulary fit into your lesson planning and teaching?	I consider specialised vocabulary when planning lessons and teaching. I provide students with glossaries of specialised vocabulary. I draw attention to specialised vocabulary as it occurs in context.
Question 8	Please tell us other ways specialised vocabulary fits into your lesson plans and teaching.	N/A
Question 9 (N = 9)	What hands – on learning activities do you give to your students with the purpose of teaching specialised vocabulary.	I give the students dictionary practice activities. I give the students “fill in the blanks” vocabulary exercises.
Question 10	Please tell us about other hands – on learning activities you give to your students with the purpose of teaching specialised vocabulary.	N/A
Question 11 (N = 11)	How often do you use these teaching materials/ resources to teach specialised vocabulary?	Department made resources Dictionaries
Question 12	Please tell us about other teaching materials/ resources you use to teach specialised vocabulary	N/A

The odd-numbered questions in each pair (5, 7, 9, and 11) were all Likert scale-based (39 items in total), while the even numbered questions were open-ended. These questions asked for more information or detail on the focus of the odd-numbered question.

The Likert scale questions were based on time periods from “every class” (coded as 1) through to “about once a term (or every ten weeks)” (coded as 5). The decision to look at the frequency of activities was made because secondary schools teachers might not see the same class every day of the week. Two experienced secondary school teachers gave feedback on the design of the scales. The survey was then trialled with approximately ten colleagues and PhD candidates within our school. The present article focuses on responses to the Likert scales in questions 5, 7, 9, and 11 of the survey, focusing on the participants’ subject areas, years of teaching experience, year group, and school decile.

Participants

In total, 160 teachers from 50 schools answered the online survey. Of these, six were from outside New Zealand, and one responded ‘a’ to every question. A further 92 left all questions blank. When these 99 were eliminated, 61 respondents were left in the analysis. One respondent did not give any identifying information, such as school, years, subjects, but the email address for this participant indicated that this person was a New Zealand-based teacher, so this respondent was left in the analysis. For overall trends in the survey data set and reporting of some parts of the even numbered questions in the survey, see Coxhead (under review). Note that Coxhead (under review) reports on the data from 67 participants in the survey compared to 61 in the present article. The 67 included respondents from outside New Zealand who were clearly working in a secondary school context and reported on the survey as a whole.

Data analysis

The data for this study was analysed using ANOVA to test whether the mean responses on the Likert scale differed by teacher group. The exploratory nature of this study suggested that an analysis based on means would be adequate to identify important differences between the groups. A p-value of 0.05 or less was considered statistically significant. As this was an exploratory study, no adjustments were made for multiple comparisons.

Results

Research question 1: Do teachers from different subjects approach specialised vocabulary in different ways?

The 61 participants were grouped into four main subject areas. These areas are Science (N = 21) (including for example Biology, Chemistry, and Physics), ESOL and Languages (N = 17) (including French), English and Arts (N = 16) (including Theatre Studies, Visual Art, and Drama), and Social Sciences and Economics (N = 7). The first principle for deciding groupings was the academic field of enquiry. The second

principle was that roughly similar numbers of participants would be in each group. Unfortunately, the Social Sciences and Economics group is much smaller than the others ($N = 7$).

ANOVA analysis showed that for nine of the Likert scale items in the survey there were significant differences in the mean responses according to subject area. Four differences occur in the materials/resources section of the survey, three in the hands on activities for students section, and two in the deciding what vocabulary to focus on section. No items came from the question on how specialised vocabulary fitted into the teachers' lesson planning and teaching.

Table Three below lists all nine items with significant differences according to subject area from the Likert scales, their F statistic and p-values, as well as the means and standard deviations. In all cases, higher frequency of usage was coded lower, and less frequent usage was coded higher, so the lower the means, the more often teachers report doing these things. So for the first item in the table, collaboration with other teachers or Head of Department, the Social Science and Economics teachers (mean = 2.29) appear to collaborate the most often, followed closely by the Science teachers (mean = 2.90). There is a one point difference between the mean of the Social Science and Economics teachers and the means of both the English and Arts teachers (mean = 3.33) and ESOL and Language teachers (3.71). This one point difference provides more of a contrast, so we will focus on items where a one point difference occurs in the data. The second line of the table about using glossaries in textbooks shows a similar pattern to the collaboration data just mentioned.

Table Three: Likert scale analysis of online survey responses by teachers' subject area

Subject area:			Science N = 21		ESOL & Languages N = 17		English & Arts N = 16		Social Sciences & Economics N = 7	
F stat. and p-value ↓			Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<i>How do you decide what specialised vocab. to focus on</i>	Collaborate with other teachers, or Head of Dept.	2.913 .045	2.90	1.221	3.71 (N=14)	1.069	3.33 (N=15)	1.047	2.29	1.254
	Use glossaries provided in textbooks	2.962 .040	2.75 (N=20)	1.251	3.31 (N=16)	1.195	3.63	1.204	2.17 (N=6)	.983
<i>What hands on activities do you give students</i>	'Fill in the blanks'	3.039 .036	2.81	1.209	2.31 (N=16)	.946	3.50	1.211	3.00	1.000
	Dictionary practice activities	9.004 .000	4.38	.921	2.53	1.179	3.47 (N=15)	1.302	4.14	1.215
	Definition-word matching activities	3.021 .037	2.95	1.071	2.41	.870	3.44	1.153	2.71	.488
<i>How often do you use these teaching mats/resources</i>	Dictionaries	10.12 2 .000	2.00	1.342	4.12	.928	3.67 (N=15)	1.496	3.14	1.069
	Power-point	3.552 .020	3.29	1.419	2.13 (N=15)	1.125	2.07 (N=14)	1.385	3.14	1.345
	Text-books	5.499 .002	3.43	1.287	3.56	.892	2.36	1.277	4.29	.488
	Student write-on notebooks	3.266 .028	3.15 (N=20)	1.694	4.06	1.144	2.43 (N=14)	1.555	2.71	1.704

Note that the number of responses is as per group size, for example N=21 for Science, unless otherwise stated. Note also that while the first question in Table Three is not a frequency-based question, the Likert scale items in that section were frequency-based in that teachers decided how often they made decisions about what specialised lexical items to focus on.

The middle section of Table Three reports on the three hands on activities with significant differences. Here we can see that the ESOL and Language teachers have the lowest means, indicating that they use these activities more often. One point differences can be seen between ESOL and Language teachers and English and Arts (fill in the blanks and word matching activities). Interestingly, when we look at the data on dictionary practice activities, we see more than a one point difference between ESOL and Languages teachers with the lowest means and both Social Sciences and Economics and Science teachers with the higher means.

In the final section of Table Three on materials and resources, we can see that reporting on dictionary use presents an interesting case. Science teachers report using dictionaries the most often, with clear one point differences with Social Sciences and Economics and English and Arts. There is a two point difference between Science teachers and ESOL and Languages teachers. So in contrast to the reporting on dictionary practice activities above, where ESOL and Languages teachers report higher use, Science teachers report higher use of dictionaries as reference material.

Table Three also reports on three other materials and resources with significant differences. Here we see English and the Arts teachers reporting higher levels of PowerPoint use (one point difference with Science), textbooks (two point difference with Social Sciences and Economics), and students' write on books (over one point difference with ESOL and Languages. Note that Social Sciences and Economics teachers, as the next highest users of write on books, have a one point difference with Science).

Research question 2: Are there any differences between more experienced and less experienced teachers?

Table Four below shows the number of participants and their years of experience. Note that 36 participants have been teaching for 16 years or more. Roughly half that number had taught for ten years or fewer. These figures indicate that highly experienced teachers overall participated in the survey.

Table Four: Years of teaching experience and number of participants

Years of experience	Number of participants
Less than five years	8
Six to ten years	7
11-15 years	10
16 + years	36
Total	61

In Table Five below, we can see that four items in the Likert scales had a p-value of less than 0.05. Two items come from the question on fitting specialised vocabulary into lesson planning and two are from hands on activities in the classroom. No significant differences were found for deciding on what vocabulary to teach or from the materials and resources questions in the survey.

The first section of Table Five reports on lesson planning shows that all the groups reported drawing attention to specialised vocabulary as it occurs in context. However, the difference is less than one point between the 16+ group who reported doing so more often and the 6-10 group who reported doing so less often. The next item on getting the students to actively use specialised vocabulary in writing has the 6-10 year group at a one point difference in the means with the three other groups.

Table Five: Years of teaching experience and Likert scale items of significant difference

Years of teaching experience			< 5 years N = 8		6-10 years N = 7		11-15 years N = 10		16+ years N = 36	
F stat-istic and p-value ↓			Mea n	Std. Dev.	Mea n	Std. Dev.	Mea n	Std. Dev.	Mea n	Std. Dev.
<i>How does specialised vocab. fit into your lesson planning</i>	Draw attention to special-ised vocab as it occurs in context	4.118 .010	1.50	.535	1.71	.951	1.20	.422	1.11	.319
	Get the students to actively use specialis-ed vocab in writing	3.076 .035	1.88	.835	2.86	1.21 5	1.70	.675	1.74 (N=35)	.919
<i>What hands on activ-ities do you give students</i>	‘Think-pair-share’	3.232 .029	3.38	1.18 8	4.00	.816	3.30	1.56 7	2.60 (N=35)	1.19 3
	Dictionary practice activities	2.968 .040	4.63	.744	3.86	1.06 9	3.90	1.28 7	3.23 (N=35)	1.39 5

In terms of hands on activities, the 16+ group also report doing more think-pair-share (one point difference with 6-10 years) and dictionary practice activities (one point difference with the less than 5 years).

Research question 3: Do teachers approach specialised vocabulary differently depending on the year level of the students?

Participants were asked to keep one particular class in mind when they were responding to the survey, even though they might teach across a range of year levels. One participant was not teaching at the time of the survey and therefore did not respond to this question. Others noted one year level while others reported teaching across a range. This set of responses to the question of year level presents difficulties in interpreting the data, and shows diminishing returns from the survey at this point.

Table Six shows the participants by year level. The coding for this table was done by junior school (years 7-10), senior school (Years 11-13) and all levels.

Table Six: Year level and number of participants

Years	Number of participants
Years 7-10	19
Years 11-13	29
All levels	12
Total	60

The significant responses in this data set come from the sections of the survey of deciding what vocabulary to teach (one item) and fitting vocabulary into lesson planning (two items). The same pattern can be seen across each of the activities in Table Seven below according to the year level of students. That is, the 7-10 year level groups report carrying out these activities the most often, followed by the 11-13 group and then the all levels group, who did the activity least often.

Table Seven: Year level of students and Likert scale responses with significant differences

Year level of students:			Junior 7-10 N = 19		Senior 11-13 N = 29		All levels N = 12	
F statistic and p-value ↓			Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<i>Deciding what vocabulary to focus on</i>	Collaborate with other teachers, or head of dept.	7.671 .001	2.42	1.121	3.38 (N=26)	1.134	3.91 (N=11)	.831
<i>How does specialised vocabulary fit into your lesson planning</i>	Provide students with glossaries of specialised vocabulary	2.779 .051	2.68	1.204	2.86 (N=28)	1.268	3.75	1.055
	Put specialised vocab up on the board at the beginning or throughout the lesson	3.592 .034	1.61 (N=18)	1.145	1.62	.903	2.50	1.087

There is a one point difference between the junior group and the all levels group on collaboration and providing glossaries for students.

Research question 4: What effect might the decile level of the school make?

Participants were asked where they were currently teaching. The decile rating for each school was noted and schools were grouped according to deciles to make roughly even groups. One participant did not answer this question, while six others wrote ‘secondary school’ or ‘not teaching at the moment’ in response. Therefore, data from only 53 participants could be used for this section, as Table Eight below shows.

Table Eight: Decile level and number of participants

School Decile	Number of participants
Decile 10	17
Deciles 7-9	14
Deciles 4-6	12
Deciles 1-3	10
Total	53

Table Nine shows that significant responses in this data set come from the sections of the survey of deciding what vocabulary to teach (one item) and hand on activities for students (two items). Like Table Seven above, only three items of difference are reported here, which again suggests diminishing levels of return from the survey.

It is interesting to note that there is a one point difference between Decile 1-3 teachers and the other groups when deciding on specialised words to teach and considering words that teachers think students who use English as a second language might not know. Deciles 4-10 all report taking these students into consideration more often than the lowest decile schools. We can also see a difference of one point with dictionary practice activities, from the Decile 4-6 and Decile 7-9 schools reporting using these activities the most often and Decile 10 schools who do not use them very often at all. A similar pattern can be seen with the use of tests of specialised vocabulary, whereby Decile 4-6 teachers report higher usage of tests than Decile 10 schools (a difference of over two points).

Table Nine: School decile and Likert scale responses with significant differences

School deciles:			Decile 10 N = 17		Decile 7-9 N = 15		Decile 4-6 N = 12		Decile 1-3 N = 10	
F statistic and p-value ↓			Mea n	Std. Dev.	Mea n	Std. Dev.	Mea n	Std. Dev.	Mea n	Std. Dev.
<i>Decidin g what vocabul- ary to focus on</i>	Consider words that I think ESOL students might not know	6.654 .000	1.76	1.16 6	1.47	.743	1.58	.996	3.63 (N=8)	1.95 2
<i>What hands on activities do you give students</i>	Diction- ary practice activities	3.321 .024	4.38 (N=16)	1.14 5	3.33	1.34 5	3.17	1.11 5	4.00	1.06 9
	Give the students special- ised vocab. tests	3.472 .025	4.12	1.17 7	3.40	1.29 8	2.75	.965	3.90	1.30 9

Discussion

It is important not to overstate the findings in this small study, particularly when focussing just on the Likert scale data. Several key points stand out, however. Firstly, the analysis of the data by subject area yielded nine areas of the Likert scale where significance was reached. These nine areas all contained more than one point of difference between the groups reporting using techniques or materials or making decisions about vocabulary more often and those reporting less often. This figure was nearly double the number of areas where significance was reached for the other three sets of data analysis, which suggests that the main difference between the teachers and their approaches to specialised vocabulary may be found in the subject that they teach. This finding relates to Gleeson's (2010) secondary school study about the importance of vocabulary to teachers as a 'linguistic challenge'.

So what difference does the subject being taught make to approaches to specialised vocabulary? Most importantly, it has an impact on the materials and resources these teachers use in the classroom. Dictionaries seem to play a particular part in approaches to specialised vocabulary. We can see that dictionary practice activities appear in three of the four sets of data analysis depicted in the results section above. These three areas are subject area (ESOL and Language teachers use them more often than the other groups), years of teaching experience (teachers with 10+ years experience use them more often than less experienced teachers), and decile (Deciles 1-9 teachers report higher usage of dictionary practice activities than Decile 10 teachers). Perhaps if the year group data was clearer, we might have seen a difference in this group also. In the responses on how often teachers give students dictionary practice activities, only 4.9% said they used them in every class. A further 23% reported using them about once a week, 16.4% for once a month and once a term, and 37.7% reported never using dictionary practice activities in class. One respondent did not reply to this question.

When reporting on using dictionaries themselves as a resource for teaching specialised vocabulary, Science teachers report using them more often than the other groups. Perhaps these teachers are encouraging students to directly access dictionaries to gain precise definitions of scientific lexical items, particularly if these words also have everyday meanings, such as *precise* in Physics and *significant* in Mathematics. Interestingly, we can also see in the data that ESOL and Language teachers report using dictionaries much less often than other teachers. In the responses on how often dictionaries were used as a *teaching resources* for specialised vocabulary, 21.3% of all participants responded 'never', 14.8% reported once a term, and 16.4% reported about once a week. In contrast, 26.2% reported using dictionaries every class, and another roughly 10% used them once a week. More investigation is needed to find out about dictionary use. Perhaps expense, lack of resources, time pressure, or dictionaries now being readily available online might be some of the reasons why dictionaries are not used as often by these teachers as by others.

Interestingly for the development of a secondary school corpus by the author, almost 50% of respondents reported using resources they had developed themselves every class, including worksheets. Perhaps having such an experienced group of teachers taking the survey has influenced this figure. Textbooks were used roughly once a week by 40% of the teachers. These findings will influence the organisation, development, and collecting of materials for the secondary school corpus, especially as online resources were used by 36% of the respondents about once a week. For example, the tests of specialised vocabulary that are used more or less often in different decile schools would be interesting to collect and analyse.

The data suggests that the amount of collaboration between teachers and Heads of Department has some connection with the subjects teachers teach as well as the year level of the students. Perhaps higher levels of specialisation in a subject (teaching year 12 vs. year 10, for example) at schools brings fewer opportunity to work collaboratively, or perhaps collaboration is differs from school to school. Further analysis is needed on this point. Further analysis too is needed to look at the approaches of more experienced teachers and their less experienced counterparts to see what factors might influence their choice of vocabulary-focused activities in their classrooms.

Limitations

One limitation of this study, as with any self-report survey, is that participants are reporting on their own behaviour. An observation study is planned for next year, along the lines of Folse's (2010) investigation of vocabulary-related episodes in classrooms. Another limitation is the sample size of the survey. With only 61 respondents, this study is small in scale. Another limitation is the response categories for the subject and year level question. Participants were asked to keep one subject and year level in mind when answering the questionnaire. One participant gave no data for subject, while six others responded with more than one subject, which is unsurprising in the case of ESOL teachers. Others wrote Science as well as Chemistry, thereby differentiating between teaching junior and senior classes. Furthermore, 12 respondents wrote 'all levels' in response to the levels question, making categorisation difficult for data analysis. Perhaps providing drop down menus for selecting year levels and subjects would have provided clearer data for analysis.

Conclusion and further research

This paper draws on data from an online survey of secondary school teachers and their approaches to teaching specialised vocabulary. The subjects people teach, their years of experience, the year level of the students, and the decile of the schools all appear to have some effect on the decisions teachers make on approaching and teaching specialised vocabulary. Further analysis of the open-ended questions in the online survey and the follow up teacher interviews will be done before the next step in the research, classroom observations, is carried out. This article shows that research into the place and use of dictionaries in classrooms is also needed. Finally, here we have focused on the 19 points of difference in the responses to the 39 Likert scale items in the survey. Future analysis needs to be carried out to look at the points of similarity in the data.

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Appendix One

Question 7 from the online survey on how specialised vocabulary fits into teachers' lesson planning and teaching

Question	Every class	About once a week	About once a month	About once a term	Never
I consider specialised vocabulary when planning lessons and teaching.					
I compile lists of specialised vocabulary that are necessary for learning the content.					
I provide students with glossaries of specialised vocabulary.					
I put specialised vocabulary up on the board at the beginning of the lesson and/or throughout the lesson.					
I use vocabulary-orientated classroom discussions.					
I draw attention to specialised vocabulary as it occurs in context.					
I help students learn to look for contextual clues in texts so they can work on the vocabulary themselves					
I expect students to pick up the specialised vocabulary while learning the content.					
I consider specialised vocabulary when planning lessons and teaching.					
I compile lists of specialised vocabulary that are necessary for learning the content.					
I provide students with glossaries of specialised vocabulary.					
I put specialised vocabulary up on the board at the beginning of the lesson and/or throughout the lesson.					

REVIEWS

Burns, A. and de Silva Joyce, H. (Eds.). *Planning and teaching creatively within a required curriculum for adult learners*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL. ISBN 9781931185400. 288 pp.

Reviewed by Kevin Roach, Auckland University of Technology

Teachers' voices are now a legitimate dimension in the study of second language teaching and learning. Teachers' interpretations of their own work related to planning, teaching and evaluation in a variety of contexts provide local understandings of how teaching and learning unfolds in the classroom, illustrating what teachers do and why they do it. Teachers are encouraged to critically reflect on their work, thereby constructing and making explicit their own theories of teaching. Published accounts of this sense-making enrich the field of language teaching and learning. They provide opportunities for pre-service teachers in training programs to better understand the realities of practice, and for in-service teachers to compare and contrast the contingencies of practice with their own contexts.

The book is part of the *TESOL Language Curriculum Development Series* edited by Kathleen Graves, which complements two other TESOL published series of teachers' work: *Case Studies in TESOL Practice* (Burton, 2000-2006) and the *Language Teacher Research Series* (Farrell, 2006-2008). While the volume under review focuses on planning and teaching within a required or prescribed curriculum in adult contexts, other volumes in the curriculum development series focus on the development of new curricula, or courses in tertiary and compulsory educational contexts. The aim of the curriculum series "is to provide real world examples of how language curriculum is developed, adapted or renewed in order to encourage readers to carry out their own curriculum innovation" (p. v). As the title of the volume suggests, its focus is on adapting or making creative changes to an existing curriculum in response to a number of situational factors, including a desire to better accommodate students' needs, to facilitate more meaningful learning experiences and, in some cases, to stave off the monotony of a routine approach.

For those new to the literature in this area, reference in the title to teaching might come as a surprise. Traditional views tend to present curriculum as a series of planning steps related to course content (the "what" of teaching) that can be discussed apart from methodology (the "how" of teaching). However, as noted in the Series Editor's Preface, curriculum seen as a "dynamic system" makes no such distinctions: curriculum activity in this view becomes a set of non-hierarchical and interrelated processes related to planning, enacting (i.e., teaching and learning), and evaluating, embedded in the political, social and educational contexts that determine their purpose and scope. Graves (2008) presents a detailed account of curriculum enactment, and Wette (2009) explores how experienced language teachers construct the instructional curriculum.

The book has 13 chapters. The first is an excellent overview and summary by the two editors, whom readers might recall as editors of the *Teachers' Voices* series, published by the now disestablished National Centre for English Language Teaching Research at Macquarie University, Sydney. Chapter 1 draws on the considerable insight and experience of the two editors in framing the contents of the volume. The remaining 12 chapters present teachers' accounts. These descriptions of curriculum change cover a wide territory, both in the innovations that are implemented, and in the range of contexts in which they occur. The teaching of English is, after all, a global endeavour, and this is reflected in the fact that accounts are situated in Australia, the US, Cambodia, Japan, Thailand, Vietnam and Peru. As such, they illustrate both target language-embedded and target language-removed contexts, approximating the distinction between ESL (or ESOL) and EFL. The innovations or creative changes that teachers made to their required curriculum are equally diverse. They include designing a community garden as part of a language, literacy and numeracy program for indigenous Aboriginal learners in outback Australia (Ch 2), introducing a post-course action research task as an evaluative component in a teacher education program (Ch 4); interviewing outbound tourists at an international airport as a project component of an ESP business program (Ch 6); introducing poetry and music into one class of a high stakes, grammar-based program for ESL immigrants (Ch 9); adopting the principles of a text-based syllabus and discourse analysis to introduce (semi)authentic dialogues and sociolinguistic awareness into a speaking course (Ch 10); and introducing free-writing as an unobtrusive but powerful way of complementing a textbook informed course (Ch 13).

A number of topical themes emerge from the innovations, including "Bringing the outside into the classroom", "Moving outside the classroom" and "Using literature and the creative arts". Overlapping concerns of situated or experiential learning, the relevance of real-life language, and adapting instructional materials to a particular localised context are also salient. For me, however, the overall conceptual theme of teachers wanting to effect positive changes in their own practice to better facilitate positive outcomes for their learners provided a powerful cohesiveness to the book. This organising theme highlights the central importance of the teacher in negotiating and implementing curriculum change, and provides clear evidence of reflective practice, often in opposition to institutional constraints, collegial mistrust, and student apprehension. For this reason alone the book is of considerable value, both for new graduates and for experienced teachers in the New Zealand context about to embark on an overseas assignment, as well as for those wishing to teach or currently teaching locally.

While it is true that local accounts of practice have most impact for readers involved in a similar context, and that many readers are unlikely to read the volume cover to cover, the accounts offer valuable insights into the possible contingencies that can await all teachers, irrespective of their teaching context. Moore's (Ch 12) experience of "being all dressed up with somewhere to go" (p. 224) provided no warranty against the challenges of working in an EAP program in Cambodia. These accounts of

curriculum enactment ultimately provide some useful ideas and strategies that might be employed to better face those challenges, and demonstrate how changes might be effected for the betterment of the program, or course, the learners and indeed at times for the sanity of teachers. Researchers too, particularly those with an interest in action research or participatory practice models will find the emic descriptions of situated practice useful.

If I had to state the book's imperfections, I would say that references following each chapter instead of at the end of the book would have better contextualized the accounts for the informed reader, and that a final summary chapter bringing commonalities and themes from all the chapters together would have been very useful. These quibbles aside, the volume, and indeed the entire *TESOL Language Curriculum Development Series*, would make an important addition to the library shelves of any institution involved with English language teacher training or education.

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Lea, D. (Ed.) (2008). Oxford learner's thesaurus: A dictionary of synonyms. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press. ISBN 978-0-19-475200 8 (pbk. + CD-ROM). 1008 pp.

Reviewed by Lizzy Roe, University of Auckland

As a “dictionary of synonyms”, the Oxford Learner's Thesaurus (OLT) with CD-ROM lives up to its name, and it is a resource that its target users (EFL learners of Upper Intermediate level and above) should find useful. The OLT's aim is not just to list synonyms, as a conventional thesaurus does, but also to provide extensive information on synonym meaning, frequency of use, collocation, and register to help learners understand the differences in meaning and usage of similar words. Its content is from unspecified corpora: written and spoken, British and American English, and one Business English corpus. The 2,000 headword synonyms each have a ‘synonym group’ of three to ten words (enough to inform but not overwhelm), presented in descending order of frequency of use. In all, there are 17,000 entries of synonyms and

opposites (words, phrasal verbs, idioms), each with a simple, brief definition and example sentences (from the Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary).

The thesaurus section (870 pages) has a clear layout. Each word in the synonym group is listed, with a brief explanation of the commonality of meaning: "These words all mean/describe ...". There is a list of patterns and collocations that apply to each word, followed by individual synonym entries with meaning, grammar, and register information (six levels of formality). Some entries include special information, opposites, derivatives, or cross-references to other headwords with related meanings. A few have illustrations or a *synonym scale* cline of words increasing in strength of meaning from left to right. One valuable feature is the *NOTE* box with explanations to contrast two synonyms very close in meaning, so as to help learners select the more appropriate word.

The book first presents the *Thesaurus Trainer* with instructions (and practice exercises) for using the resource. This is essential, given that it highlights the need to first look up the desired word for which a synonym is being sought in the Alphabetical Index at the back of the book. Learners who are unaware of this requirement of a thesaurus format need to have this pointed out, as the pages have so much word-definition text that at a glance it resembles a normal dictionary. If learners approach it as such, they will potentially miss many entries. The Alphabetical Index distinguishes close synonym entries by giving a short usage phrase for each one. For example, the adjective *habitual* has three parenthetical entries: *frequent* (e.g. habitual lateness), *regular* (e.g. habitual criminals), *usual* (e.g. her habitual frown).

After the thesaurus section, there is a *Study Section* of eight subject headings (two being *Arts and Entertainment* and *Language and Communication*), with a range of exam practice exercises for selecting the correct synonym. The exercises use a wide range of question types, including a multi-paragraph contextualised input text. The next section has seven pictorial *Topic Maps*, with exercises to test synonym and collocation knowledge. The answer keys to all training exercises appear in a later section. This is followed by the *Topic Index*, which has thirty topics, some specific (*law and justice*, and *travel*), others generic (*describing places* and *describing things*). No rationale for these classifications is given. They vary greatly in number of listed entries, which are cross-referenced to the thesaurus entries. An improvement for secondary or tertiary-level learners would be to add an "academic language" topic using the more "formal" register words. The *fact and opinion* topic in the Topic Index comes closest, with such entries as *argument*, *conclusion*, and *theory*. The book ends with brief grammar and phonetics references.

Turning to the CD-ROM, it has the thesaurus section (unnecessarily renamed *A-Z Index*), the *Alphabetical Index*, and the *Topic Index*. However, it also offers a *My Topics* function which enables users to customise their own subject headings and list of entries from the thesaurus. Unfortunately, it is not possible to add words from the

Topic Index into *My Topics*, which would be an efficient means of word building (as with the above “academic” word suggestion), but other users’ lists can be imported. The CD is easy to navigate. The user types a word into a search box and the entries from the *Alphabetical Index* appear in a left panel, while the thesaurus entries appear in the main window. The three main functions (*A-Z Index*, *Topic Index*, *My Topics*) have separate display windows. There are sound file pronunciations in British and American English of single word entries.

Useful extra features include being able to type in your own notes about any entry, and to copy any entries into an external document. The *Exercises* function has four activity types which use a total of 300 target words from the thesaurus. The aim is to choose the best word for completing meaning, register and usage, or expressing opposites. All use the same format of selecting the correct answer from a drop-down menu to complete up to four single-sentence, one-word, gap-fills. There is little challenge in these decontextualised multiple-choice exercises, although if learners resist the *Show answers* tab and refer to the thesaurus entries before answering, they may find them helpful. (The hardcopy *Study Pages* exercises are better designed with a clearer focus on semantic distinctions and deeper processing required for answering.) For the exercises from both sources, no feedback is provided for wrong answers; the design could be improved by providing a cross-reference to the thesaurus entry with a brief explanation. The CD also has a *Games* function with crosswords, pelmanism, and wordsearch activities. They use a two-minute timer display; once time is up, all answers automatically appear. The timer is easily turned off. Finally, the CD has an *Extras* section containing printable pdf versions of the book’s *Thesaurus Trainer*, and *Study* and *Reference Pages*.

Evaluating the OLT as a resource to help learners understand the differences between two or more synonyms, and to know how to use their selections appropriately, it is to be strongly recommended. It is a comprehensive resource that could be used to great benefit by language learners, as long as they know to use it as an indexed-entry thesaurus.

Murray, D.E. and Cristison, M. (2011). *What English language teachers need to know Vol 11: Facilitating learning*. New York and London: Routledge. ISBN 978-0-415-80641-1. 236 pp.

Reviewed by Marilyn Lewis, Honorary Research Fellow, University of Auckland

This is the second of two volumes by Murray and Cristison in the Routledge ESL and Applied Linguistics Professional Series, their earlier (edited) title being on leadership. Here their intended readership is the other end of the professional lifespan: “pre-service teachers and teachers new to the field of ELT” (p. xii). The authors have been

based in the United States and Australia, as well as working in many other places on short courses for teachers. Since Volume 1, *Understanding learning*, has not come my way, this review will be limited to Volume 2. The fourteen chapters, covering an impressive range of topics, are divided into three sections: planning, instructing and assessing. This chronological order works well.

The section on *Planning* has four chapters: one each on the curriculum, lesson content, activities and classroom interaction, and materials. One feature here and throughout the book is the ready-to-go materials, such as the lesson plans included in Chapter 2 and the websites to which readers are directed for further examples. There is extensive explicit cross-referencing between the chapters of this book. For instance, the section on managing classroom interaction in Chapter 3 is extended later in the book (Chapter 11) under the subtitle “analyzing classroom interaction”. Chapter 4, “Selecting and Adapting Materials”, highlights the importance of authenticity in selecting dialogues. An invitation to compare one’s own telephone conversations with a text book example illustrates the way readers can process the information.

Most of the seven chapters in Part 2, “Instructing for learning” deal with specific groups of learners: teaching children, followed by adolescents. For the latter, the authors review the various threads of development: intellectual, physical, and so on, including a brief reference to moral development. There are three chapters on teaching adults: one for immigrants and refugees, one for postsecondary learners, and one for workplace literacy. For beginners in any field, the jargon can often hide the message, as illustrated by “Integrating Language and Content” (Chapter 10). If the abbreviations CBI, CLIL, SIOP and CALLA stretch your thinking, then it will be a relief to know that definitions are included at each term’s first appearance. These can be tracked easily via the index. Part 2 concludes with Chapter 11 “Exploring One’s Own Instruction”, which includes, as noted above, classroom talk. The absence of more detailed research tools for this exploration may be explained by the many references to Volume 1 which is clearly intended to be a close companion to this text.

Part 3 starts with Chapter 12 on formative and alternative assessment. From one of the author’s research notes comes a teacher-student exchange which will be familiar to all readers. The teacher has a specific answer in mind for her question but the students have different ideas of “the most important concepts” (p. 179) covered that day. Strategies for more profitable formative assessment follow. This is followed by a description of a large-scale assessment (Chapter 13), which includes an interesting discussion on what people believe “proficiency” means. Indirect methods include tasks based on reading passages while direct methods include writing to a prompt. The final chapter on programme evaluation concludes with a short section on teacher evaluation and programme accreditation with a wide range of examples including bi-national initiatives.

A number of features make this book suitable for a pre-service course. From the beginning, the content combines case studies from the authors' own extensive and recent experiences with summaries of received knowledge. Thus in the first chapter we meet children studying in Taiwan alongside adult immigrants to Australia as we are taken through the options for curriculum design. These take a historic sweep (van Ek, 1976 is acknowledged) as well as including current examples, such as the 2001 Singapore English Language Syllabus. Tasks and discussion questions are included in each chapter, so that the teacher educator has ready-made course activities.

Although chapters have their own discrete titles, the cross-referencing to similar topics mentioned earlier gives a sense of integration. As one example, references to a range of learners appear not only in the chapters with specific headings. Unusually for a non-edited book, each chapter has its separate list of references. While this could be seen as a slight disadvantage for someone wanting a sense of the sweep of the field, anyone wanting to follow the ideas of a particular referenced writer need only check the index. The advantage of having these separate lists is that each chapter could stand alone during one part of a course. This review concludes with a couple of suggestions for future editions of the book.

New Zealand readers may question the rather unflattering, and in my opinion inaccurate, reference in Chapter 7 to our provisions for adult immigrants thirty years ago. Readers are told that "language proficiency was not considered a high priority" (p. 107) here for Pacific Island immigrants in the 1970s. What of the huge sums of money spent on language advisors, language centres, in-service courses, workplace English programmes, published materials, and the secondment of primary and secondary teachers, as well as teacher trainers for a year's postgraduate study at Victoria University each year?

My second suggestion would be to update the references for some chapters. While the actual examples are current and varied, sources on which the theory is based are more dated. As one example, Chapter 3, "Planning Activities and Managing Classroom Interaction", has only two references since the mid-1990s. Perhaps the most striking example of relying on historic sources is Chapter 11 "Exploring One's Own Instruction" where one might have expected to see reference to some of the work on classroom language, particularly "teacher talk" published in the past couple of decades.

More positively, the contents of this volume are lively and readable, and include a wide range of international examples. I look forward to seeing how programme providers integrate this material into their existing courses and how in-service teachers make use of its guidance and samples of curriculum documentation and classroom interactions.

Thaine, C. (2010). *Teacher training essentials: Workshops for professional development*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978-0-521-172240-0 (pbk). 127pp.

Reviewed by Clare Conway, Auckland University of Technology

Teacher Training Essentials is divided into three parts, each containing a number of lessons on a range of English language teacher education topics. The “Classroom Methodology” section has 12 lessons that introduce the trainee to core topics such as lesson planning, giving feedback, teaching oral and written skills, and teaching language systems. Language systems are further explored in the second section, “Developing Language Awareness”, which aims to build up trainees’ awareness of English language through 12 lessons covering grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and discourse. In the final section, “Background to Teaching”, six lessons give trainees the opportunity to consider theories about language teaching such as second language acquisition, sociolinguistic perspectives, course design, testing and evaluation.

Each lesson has two or three pages of worksheets, and all lessons are supported by trainer notes. The spiral-bound, A4 book is part of the Cambridge Copy Collection which, as the title suggests, makes pages available for photocopying. Illustrations are black and white with clean lines that photocopy well. The Appendices contain worksheet activities from the lesson (such as sequencing and role play cards) that have been enlarged and are ready for copying on to card, which saves the trainer time in preparation.

The one page of trainer’s notes for each lesson is clear and detailed. At the beginning of the notes there is a summary of the lesson focus, aims, length, target trainee cohort, and any preparation needed. The notes for each lesson then provide directions for a lead-in activity such as a brainstorm, or question for discussion based on personal experience or opinion. This is followed by directions for carrying out tasks (for example mingles, pair work, matching exercises, sentence completion) to develop trainees’ understanding of concepts. Terminology is carefully introduced in context and a discovery learning approach is taken. As an example, in the lesson on developing learners’ writing skills trainees are asked to categorise statements into process or product writing approaches. They then sequence the stages of two separate writing lessons, and decide which lesson is product-focussed and which is process-focussed. Following this, trainees discuss the two approaches and think of tasks to help students develop writing sub skills. The trainer thus models the type of activities that teachers themselves can use in the classroom with their language learners. Each lesson concludes with a reflection task on the topic for trainees to consider in their own teaching context. While each lesson follows the same basic approach (lead-in, tasks and reflection), there is variety in the activities, layout and illustrations, which

helps maintain interest. Throughout all lesson notes there are helpful instructions for grouping trainees, setting up tasks and conducting feedback, and answers to worksheet exercises are provided. The notes also give useful reminders and suggestions to the trainer to ensure smooth lesson delivery.

The target audience for this book is trainers and trainees on preparation courses for awards such as CELTA, DELTA, CertTESOL, DipTESOL, or teachers attending in-service professional development workshops. The material is situated in the EFL context and is mainly for the European market. There are references to a private English language school in Rome, UK place names, excerpts from British course books (eg. *face2face*), and images with a British or European flavour (eg. Manchester-London train timetable and airport check-in for Air Madrid). However, author Craig Thaine, a New Zealander, includes a story from *The New Zealand Herald* about a NZ lifesaver in England, incorporates a sentence about Wellington in an exercise on referential pronouns, and provides a sample of Australian-NZ English in a lesson on vocabulary.

The introduction suggests that the book will appeal to ‘busy trainers and academic managers who need to prepare ... session(s) in a hurry’ (p. 8). Anyone preparing a session in a hurry would be advised to check that the activities do in fact suit their particular cohort of teachers. The first lesson in the book on classroom management is aimed at pre-service or new in-service teachers. Yet a group of pre-service trainees who had not yet started their practicum would find it difficult to complete the mingle task which asks them eight “Find someone who...” questions about their teaching. Some reflection tasks similarly ask pre-service trainees questions about their experience with learners in the classroom. However, the trainer who has checked the material for a particular cohort of trainees can adapt the wording of tasks if necessary.

As the book title suggests, the essentials of language teaching are covered in the lessons. It could be argued that also essential are topics such as intercultural competence and academic literacies for language school students who plan to move on to study at tertiary institutions. It would be useful for any future revision of the book to include these topics in the “Background to Teaching” section.

The strength of *Teacher Training Essentials* lies in the detailed trainer notes, trainee tasks that model good teaching practice, and the clear, simple way in which trainees are lead to an understanding of new concepts. The publication will be a very useful addition to the resources of those responsible for language teacher training and in-service professional development workshops, particularly in the EFL private language school sector. Language teacher educators in other contexts may also welcome the opportunity to draw on these ready-made lessons, which can be adapted for different cohorts of teachers.

Turnbull, M. and Dailey-O'Cain, J. (Eds.). (2009). *First language use in second and foreign language learning*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters. ISBN-13: 978-1-84769-195-8. 207 pp.

Reviewed by Le Van Canh, University of Waikato

The use of learners' first language in teaching and learning second and foreign languages has been the subject of much debate among applied linguists and language educators in recent years. According to Macaro (2005), perspectives on target language use and first language use can be seen as located along a continuum. At one end of the continuum lies the position which views first language use as having no pedagogical or communicative value. Proponents of this position (e.g. Ellis, 1986; Krashen, 1982; Swain, 1985) draw on Krashen's (1982) comprehensible input hypothesis and Swain's (1985) pushed output hypothesis, which argue for the need to expose learners to a flood of comprehensible target-language input as well as to provide them with ample opportunities to produce the target language to ensure mastery of the target language. All of these authors support the view that second language learning is a monolingual process. At the other extreme of the continuum are perspectives which argue that the first language can be beneficial as a cognitive aid in second language learning (e.g. Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Watanabe, 2008).

Classroom-based research also shows that teachers, to varying degrees, often use learners' first language, even in contexts that are based on principles of communicative language teaching (e.g. Polio & Duff, 1994; Turnbull, 2005), and that students tend to opt for their first language even when monitored (Behan, Turnbull & Spek, 1997). In the context of the on-going debate over the issue and in the absence of solid empirical evidence of a causal relationship between exclusion of the first language and improved second/foreign language learning, the book *First language use in second and foreign language learning* is a timely new publication. Another welcome addition to this sub-field is Guy Cook's recent volume on translation in language teaching (2010).

The book is a collection of nine empirical studies related to first language use in a variety of second and foreign language contexts (French immersion in Canada; English as a foreign language in China; the multimedia learning context of French as a foreign language and English as a foreign and second language in England; primary school English as a foreign language in Hungary; Spanish-English dual immersion in the United States, German as a foreign language in Canada and the United States; and French as a foreign language in the United States). In the concluding tenth chapter the editors reflect on the studies reported in the book and make recommendations for policy, practice and teacher development as well as avenues for future research.

Regarding research methodology, all the studies presented in the book draw on multiple theoretical frameworks and use both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. However, what I find most useful in terms of methodology is the way

authors use qualitative methods informed by principles of grounded theory and narrative inquiry to investigate the issue. I believe that shift to the qualitative paradigm from the psychometric paradigm which has dominated mainstream second language acquisition (SLA) research is to be commended, given the huge gap between laboratory conditions and the social reality of language classrooms. Such a paradigm shift represents the recognition of teaching and learning as human individual activities as “a system of social relations” (Leontiev, 1981, p. 46) that is co-constructed teachers and learners within a particular cultural-historic milieu.

All in all, the book provides a wealth of information about the use of learners’ first language in the second and foreign language classroom. The empirical inquiries reported in the book are part of a growing body of research that is interested in the influence of teachers’ mental lives on their practice (Borg, 2009), and in why their practices are not always in harmony with mainstream SLA theories. Another value of the book lies in the suggestions the authors make for future investigations into the issue of first language use in the second and foreign language classroom; for example, on codeswitching practices.

In my opinion, the book has two limitations. First, although the editors claim that the book covers a “variety of second and foreign language contexts” (p. 8), most of the studies were conducted in either European or North American contexts. The second limitation, which has been already acknowledged by the editors, is that it fails to provide practical tips for classroom teachers on the optimal use of first language in the second and foreign language classroom. This is an unfortunate omission, if we believe that target-language exposure is “necessary but not sufficient” to guarantee second language learning. However, despite these flaws, I strongly recommend this book. It deserves a place on the shelf of second language teacher educators, curriculum developers and classroom language policy-makers alike.

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TRIBUTE

DOROTHY F. BROWN

Dorothy Brown has had a lifetime's commitment to education, in particular to teacher education in the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). TESOLANZ recognised this in 2011 when it donated \$1000 towards the Aotearoa New Zealand Peace and Conflict Studies Centre Trust's development of a peace resource for school students. This was in the place of an honorary life membership of TESOLANZ.

Having completed a BA at Victoria University in Wellington, Dorothy trained as a secondary teacher at the former Auckland College of Education under Dr Marsden, who pioneered post-primary teacher education at the College. Dorothy was always mindful of his final words to the group "if you do not go on educating yourself both as a person and as a teacher I have been a failure". She has always tried to inspire her students to keep up their own learning.

After teacher training she taught science, first at Wellington Girls' College and later at Palmerston North Girls' College. She also tutored in Multicellular Biology and Horticultural Botany at a relatively new Massey University. There she became aware of how insufficient English was causing problems for overseas students – and no extra help was available.

When Dorothy moved to Wellington, she decided to find out more about English Language Teaching. She was the only science graduate and the only native speaker of English in a class of 60 teachers from Asia and the Pacific doing the diploma in English Language Teaching, headed by H. V. George. At that time, the English Language Institute of Victoria University was the only place in New Zealand offering diplomas in English Language Teaching. When she had completed her diploma, Dorothy joined the staff for seven years whilst also completing a Bachelor of Arts in Linguistics and Education. In 1975 and 1976 Dorothy was one of the teachers who taught the very first group of Chinese students from the Peoples Republic of China to come to New Zealand to study, after the ping pong diplomacy of Richard Nixon.

In 1977 Dorothy went to Sydney, Australia and worked in teacher education in TESOL, first at the Guild Teachers' College, then at Sydney College of Education and finally at the University of Technology Sydney. Together with Joy Philips, she pioneered the Diploma in TESOL programmes; one for teachers in schools, another for teaching adults.

During her time in Australia, Dorothy maintained her New Zealand connection, providing a warm welcome for many New Zealanders in Sydney helping to forge the strong Australian/NZ TESOL links which remain in place today. In 1978 she took leave from Sydney to go at the invitation of the NZ Chinese Embassy to China to

teach at the Foreign Languages Institute in Tianjin. She returned twice more to China, once to teach scientists in Taiyuan and once as a teacher trainer at Nankai University.

Having retired from UTS, Dorothy was asked to return to New Zealand in 1990 to teach on the Diploma in English Language Teaching programme in the English Department, at The University of Auckland. From 1996-2010 she taught part time on the Graduate Diploma in Teaching English in Schools to Speakers of Other Languages (TESSOL) programme at the former Auckland College of Education, now Faculty of Education, University of Auckland

Dorothy has always maintained that one should not teach teachers in English language teacher education if one was not trying to teach English oneself and so throughout her time as a teacher educator she has seized every opportunity to teach new learners of English in many different contexts. Her English language teaching has touched such diverse groups and topics as tertiary staff members' pronunciation and spoken English, pre university students in intensive academic English programmes, new migrants and refugees from Kosovar and Burma, workplace English, migrants with mental health problems, diplomats in training in Malaysia and lecturers at the Apia Teachers College.

The breadth and depth of Dorothy's teaching experience, her scholarship and her humanity have ensured that she is a sought after presenter for staff development sessions. She has presented in such diverse settings as Maori language intensive programmes in Waikato, deaf education, Catholic religious education, ESOL sector meetings as well as all sectors of the state education system.

Dorothy is well-read, erudite, compassionate and rigorous exemplifying the best qualities of an inspiring teacher. Committed to issues of justice and equity, she challenges all her students, whether teachers or English language learners, to make the most of the gift of languages and learning and contribute to the creation of a more just world. Her teaching questions and disturbs.

Dorothy's interest in her students continues long past the course completion date. The quality of this encouragement and practical support has ensured that her former students are now leaders throughout the world, in schools, in language teacher education and in national policy development and implementation.

Susan Gray
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A SENSE OF BALANCE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING: REFLECTIONS

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Introduction

I have spoken about this topic a number of times at the conclusion of TESOL teacher education courses and in staff development sessions. The fashions of language teaching change but many of the decisions that teachers have to make in their classrooms every day have stayed the same. Helping people become effective and informed teachers with good judgement has been the goal of teacher education for me. As I have observed in very many classrooms over the years I have decided that what is needed above knowledge, teaching skills, cultural awareness and personal qualities like enthusiasm is the idea of balance.

Balancing is applicable to many aspects of life and all teaching. Active balancing is not the same as sitting on the fence which does require a sort of balancing but really has an element of meaning linked with staying on the side-line and not becoming involved with daily decisions. Teachers need to keep a sense of balance in the real world of the classroom and be adaptable as situations change.

What supports balancing? A fulcrum is the point at which a lever or balance is supported. As an aside, I had not thought of levers and language teachers as collocating but perhaps sometimes we are helping to lever people up or across to a new position. If you think of the sort of balance which has a central fulcrum like a see-saw or a beam balance, the design of the fulcrum is crucial to the efficient functioning of the balance. For our work, I think this fulcrum is a mixture of natural ability to teach, good teacher training, experience, empathy with students, and continuing teacher development.

Balancing relies on sound knowledge and good judgement. Classrooms are places where there is a mixture of planning and chance. We do not know what questions our students will ask or exactly what their previous experience is. I have always been surprised by what students do know and by what they do not know. If the teacher is well-prepared, the old adage “chance favours the prepared mind” means that they can respond appropriately to all situations.

Last time I visited the topic of a sense of balance it was as a lecture that had notes for twenty eight balances. This time I will look at seven of those balances.

Balances

1) Accepting silence versus encouraging talk

All native speakers of a language have the opportunity for an extended period of silence. Young children are the recipients of much talk with little verbal response expected. Probably a person's first language is the most natural and beautiful sound. The sounds of an additional/new language can be strange. One teacher in Sydney told me of the student who was almost silent in the classroom. The girl confided in her teacher that she went home each day, closed her bedroom door, sat in front of the mirror and read aloud in English. "I had to get used to the sound of the new language coming out of me" she said. This self-motivated student was in control of her own silent period.

We know that some students will speak in one or two word lexical chunks but others prefer to wait until they have the grammar and can speak in extended chunks. This preference applies to native speakers of a language as well. Extended silence of children in their first language can sometimes lead to concern. Witness this exchange between a two and half year old L1 speaker of English whose family were on the verge of sending him to a speech language therapist. Until this incident he had been silent.

The family was sitting around the dinner table discussing whether to have a picnic in the bush or at the beach.

The two and half year old, who until then had been silent, piped up said "Let's go to the beach for the picnic". At which his anxious father rounded on him and said "Why have you not spoken before?" To which his son replied "Nothing to say!"

It is interesting to consider how the earlier a school age learner of English arrives in New Zealand, the more opportunities they have for collective and almost unconscious practising of the sounds of the language in singing, choral reading of blown-up books (Nation, 2009) and chanting without being singled out and judged on individual performance. Older students on arrival are often more self-conscious and have fewer opportunities for this sort of participation. The onus is on teachers to choose topics and design activities that make students want to contribute and be part of the class community. We need also to respect students' right to silence and understand that much learning can be going on in this receptive period. Learners need time and silence for noticing, consciousness raising, decoding, reflection and encoding. Older students are aware of their inability to say what they really want to. One secondary student said "You should know me in my first language. I am a much more interesting person".

2) Language focus based on pre-determined needs versus language focus based on students' immediate needs

In exploring whether language coverage is systematic or meets the personal needs of the students at the time, I am highlighting the balance between teaching the grammar, vocabulary and phonology of English in an ordered way versus teaching the grammar,

vocabulary and sounds that are immediately useful for students to get on with their lives. One set of books that highlighted the systematic approach to grammar is Tate's series of readers for the Pacific (Tate, 1967). There are many other well planned school texts from countries teaching English as an additional language in schools. One of the problems, however, in these sorts of texts is deciding on the scope and sequence of grammatical coverage. For example in Tate's books the simple past tense was introduced very late and you cannot write stories until you have the past tense. Many students who come to NZ may have been educated in English based on this systematic coverage of language and they sometimes know more grammar than their New Zealand teachers.

I was surprised when my first year university students in China told me that they had learnt pronunciation by first learning phonemic transcription. This is an example of the systematic approach to the teaching of the sound system of English. When I asked them if they found this approach boring, their reply was "We do not mind being bored if we know we are laying a firm foundation".

Igoa's (1995) approach is an example of teaching based on the personal needs of students. Igoa, put into practice her strong belief that the emotional and educational needs of a specific group of traumatised refugee students were best approached through art and related activities. Two thirds of class time was spent on art activities where children had the opportunity to explore their lives. They wrote or were helped to write about the pictures that they had drawn. The other third of class time was spent exploring the grammar and the vocabulary focus that had emerged from the content that the students had deemed significant for them at that stage. This approach of course is not dissimilar to the one espoused by Ashton Warner (1963) where the vocabulary for reading was based on children's everyday rural life and particularly their emotional and imaginative life – they began by reading words such as mud, gumboots, horses, love, cry and ghosts.

3) Modelling and scaffolding versus student creativity

There needs to be a balance between giving students modelled and scaffolded input to produce spoken and written output and giving them opportunities to be original in their new language. The planning for this balance depends on judging students' need for guidance or their readiness to take off from teacher control and rely on their own initiative. There is a whole raft of activities for scaffolding, for example interactive clozes, sentence combining, sequencing pictures, skills flow and many more to be found on ESOLonline (www.esolonline.tki.org.nz) and in the English Intensive Programmes (years 1-6) (Ministry of Education, 2008) and (years 7-13) (Ministry of Education, 2003). Participating in these activities can help build a strong foundation in the language. However the aim is for students to be able to express their own thoughts in their new language. This may produce more 'mistakes' but these can be used for planning. One teacher said to her pupils "make your mistakes gloriously, that lets me know where to help you". This leads to the next balance.

4) Correcting versus not correcting

There is a crucial balance to be kept between knowing when correction is appropriate and allowing student mistakes. This has always been a problem for a long time as noted by Kelly (1969) and continues to be an area for current research (Ellis, 2010). It is important to consult with students and teachers on their attitude to correction. When I taught an adult Spoken English class of teachers from overseas, I asked them whether they would like to be corrected. One third said “I want to be corrected all the time and immediately”. Another third replied “I don’t want to be corrected. I am interested in the content”. The final third wanted delayed private correction.

In China, teachers of university students no matter whether beginners or advanced told me that they considered their main responsibility was to correct students – in both spoken and written work.

The long term aim of teacher correction is to do it in such a way that it fosters students’ ability to correct their own mistakes. Teachers should accept mistakes and errors as these can be seen as “friends on the way to learning”. Selected and kind correction aims to help students become self-correcting. You don’t want correction to lower confidence.

5) Old work versus new work

Repeated opportunities for noticing language assists uptake, processing and output, consolidating new learning (Met, 1994). This can be problematic because some students require more repetitions than others (Chapelle & Hegelheimer, 2004) while teachers have limited time to cover the curriculum. Moving on is unproductive for English language learners who may have not mastered the previous vocabulary or syntax. Linking back to what has already been covered needs to be balanced against the demands for curriculum coverage. Getting this balance right is crucial and the hallmark of a good teacher. H. V. George’s¹ definition of a good teacher was a “person who can repeat without boring”. He also said “the old work is more important than the new work”. He argued that it is better to have mastered a small vocabulary of high frequency and defining words and the frequent language structures rather than moving on to low frequency words and infrequently used structures. Course books and units of work often do not have enough in-built interesting repetition for many students so that feelings of “I can’t cope” and “I can’t keep up” can creep in, perhaps followed by feelings of frustration, fear and failure.

¹ H V George was the director of the English Language Institute at Victoria University of Wellington from 1964-1981 (Peat, 1986).

6) Learning L2 versus encouraging L1

This balance must be considered in the context of colonial attitudes and former educational policy where a subtractive approach to language learning was espoused. Children learnt their second language at the expense of their first. Parents were sometimes advised by teachers to use English rather than the mother tongue at home. Unfortunately this still happens. Personal experience of this discriminatory attitude has continued to influence present day policies and practices. Genuine respect for the linguistic and cultural knowledge that students and their families bring to New Zealand schools is needed. Monolingual teachers, in particular, need to appreciate the linguistic abilities of those who are “blessed with bilingual brains” (Ashworth, 1988) and encourage them to remain bilingual. We want the students we teach to have access to multiple worlds and so teachers need to find ways of encouraging L1 beyond greetings, food, performances and national songs.

Two examples show how the informed teacher can achieve the balance needed between encouraging L1 use for cognitive development, and creating opportunities to use English in a multi-ethnic classroom. In the first example, the science teacher gives instructions and explanations in English and then has the students conduct the experiment and follow up group work in their first language before reporting back in English. The second example was suggested by year twelve and thirteen migrant students at a staff professional development session. The students had been asked to talk to the staff about their school experiences and give suggestions about what would have made it easier for them to learn English and be part of the school. Although the students wanted to remain strong in their Samoan or Korean language and worlds, they did wish that their teachers would sometimes take control of the grouping of the class. They wanted to mix with speakers of English as well as within their L1 group but had felt that they were not welcome. Sometimes teachers need to intervene to ensure that students have opportunities to speak in English as well as L1.

7) Culturally relevant input versus exposure to new culture

On one hand is the need to choose materials that represent the stories, lives and interests of all groups represented in the class. On the other hand is the need to introduce the students to the founding documents of New Zealand - the unique relationship with *tāngata whenua*, and the political system available in a democracy. Newcomers need ways of understanding and engaging with the new community through knowing its history, geography, flora, fauna and environment. Newcomers also need encouragement and resources to keep their own culture alive. We need to help them build background knowledge about New Zealand and about their original country. To be bilingual is to be bicultural (McCarthy, Rezai-Rashti, & Teasley, 2009). We want to foster informed citizens of present day Aotearoa/NZ who all have a clear sense of their family origins. Respecting and encouraging ethnic/cultural diversity leads to the building of a tolerant cohesive society.

Conclusion

Teachers know that in the course of a lesson or a day they cover many more balances than have been considered here. My hope is that in reading this article you will be prompted to think of the balances that you juggle in your teaching of English language learners every day. Some of these balances are related not to the immediate classroom but to policy and politics.

All balancing acts of course happen within the context of the most significant balance – the dynamics of the teaching a whole class and giving individual or small group attention. This has always been a very delicate balance for all teachers in all subjects. Classes are variously talented, multi-ethnic, multi-motivated, multi-faith, multi-lingual and with different levels of English proficiency. It is all too easy to get off-balance. Of course grouping helps but not all students like group work so that in itself becomes another balance to be navigated. If we do group students we need to talk with them about how and why we are working in particular groups.

Why is a sense of balance important? I think it provides a framework to aid reflection on our teaching. The best balances will be at different places for different courses, sometimes we can decide on the balance as we plan our lessons but often it will be the on the spot shifting of the balance that relies on a teacher's informed judgement. We will make mistakes, we have made mistakes. These will be costly for our own self-esteem, for the institution but most of all for our students. Recognition of balancing and decisions we make each day may prevent us from becoming overwhelmed by the complexity of the task we are doing.

For me, the seriousness of the subject matter that we choose for students to explore has always been at the forefront of my mind. The ultimate standard for assessing the worth of my teaching must be the extent to which my teaching has helped build an inclusive and actively tolerant society.

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