Errata

1. Page XV, List of Abbreviations: Change AMES to AMEP = (Adult Migrant English Program)

2. Page 207, Table 23: Change Standard CLT to Task-based Approach

Teacher Knowledge, Identity, and Practice: A Mixed Methods Study of ESL Teaching

Khatereh Yazdanpanah

BA (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), MA (Applied Linguistics)

Doctor of Philosophy

Submitted in total fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Education, Monash University

June, 2011

Dedication

To My Parents, Tooraj, and Kiana

Declaration

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or any other educational institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Signed: .....

Name: **Khatereh Yazdanpanah**

This research was approved by the Monash University Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans on 11 July 2008 (Project Number: 2008000963) and 2 December 2008 (CF08/3391 – 2008001661).

Acknowledgements

It is a pleasure to thank all those people who helped and inspired me during my doctoral study.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor and mentor, Dr. Jill Brown, who has supported me throughout my thesis with her patience, knowledge, guidance, and respect. She has been a role model and an inspiration for me in learning how to do research in the academic environment. I am also thankful for the excellent example she has provided as an enthusiastic researcher who has always been a source of encouragement for me, especially during the hard times of the PhD pursuit.

I would also like to give special thanks to Dr. Joel Windle who has been both my associate supervisor and kind friend. His belief in me along with his respect, perceptiveness, and guidance have been encouraging and enlightening.

I appreciate the Teaching/Technology Learning Centre (TLC) staff, Debing Wang and Matthew Rendell. Special thanks to Lucas Kussowski with whom I share credit of the digital video editing work of my thesis. I thank him for his excellent teaching of all the essential and practical details of working with digital editing software.

I thank my dear friends Dr. Miriam Faine, Dr. Glenda Jackson, Dr. Chi Chuan, Taghreed Jamal Al-Deen, Melanie Gomez , Nike Prince, and Cunzhen Yang for asking me insightful questions and generously sharing their ideas with me. I feel blessed to be surrounded by such supportive and intelligent friends.

I would be thoughtless if I did not mention the teacher participants in the first phase of the study who selflessly took the time to participate in the study. I owe my

deepest gratitude to the four teachers who collaborated in the second phase of the study allowing me to learn about their outlook on their work, themselves, and their students. They cannot be adequately appreciated.

I am forever indebted to my parents for teaching me to have faith in myself and be as ambitious as I desire and for acquainting me with the joy of intellectual pursuit. It is through their unconditional love and endless support that I have gained so much drive and the ability to tackle challenges. I thank them for celebrating even the smallest milestone with me.

To Kiana, my lovely little girl, who has been the warmth of my heart since the moment she stepped into my life. She has always been the ray of sunshine giving me the true experience of happiness and love.

Words fail me to express my gratitude to Dr. Tooraj Chamacham, my best friend and husband. His love, patience, and support have been central in completing the long and at times burdensome PhD journey. Through his eyes, I have seen myself as a strong and intelligent woman capable of achieving my goals. He has been by my side, taking care of whatever that needed to be done to help me concentrate on completing my thesis. Thank you. Thank you. Thank you.

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List of Abbreviations

ABS = Australian Bureau of Statistics

AMES = Adult Migrant English Service

CELTA = Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults

CLT = Communicative Language Teaching

DELTA = Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults

EFA = Exploratory Factor Analysis

ELICOS = English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students

ELT= English Language Teaching

ESA = Engage, Study, and Activate

ESL = English as a Second Language

KL = Knowledge of Language

KT = Knowledge of Teaching

L2 = Second Language

MM = Mixed Methods

PPP = Presentation-Practice-Production

SPSS = Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TAFE = Technical and Further Education

TESOL = Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

TLC = Technology Learning Centre

TOEFL = Test of English as a Foreign Language

TOEIC = Test of English for International Communication

Abstract

The purpose of this mixed methods study is to provide an understanding of the interrelationships between experienced ESL teachers' knowledge, practice, and the social context of the classroom. Such a study is important to gain a more in-depth understanding of ESL teaching and to assist in the development of appropriate teacher education programs. The purpose of stage one of the study, the quantitative inquiry, was to understand the structure of ESL teacher knowledge. Given that ESL teacher training programs at the post-secondary level are the major formal sources of teacher content and pedagogical knowledge, they were thought to be the best reference points for devising a likert-scale questionnaire on the phenomenon. Exploratory factor analysis of the data on 108 ESL teachers from the six states of Australia provided evidence that knowledge of teaching and knowledge of language, the main categories of teacher knowledge in the questionnaire, consisted of a total of seven subcategories of knowledge types. Teachers also regarded knowledge of teaching as being significantly more important than knowledge of language.

The findings of the quantitative study were used as a backdrop to investigate the interrelationships between the different types of teacher knowledge in a qualitative investigation with four experienced ESL teachers. The qualitative data—consisting of pre-observation and stimulated recall interviews and videos of the teachers' practice—revealed that the classroom context was understood through the identities that the teachers constructed for themselves and their students. The teachers in the second phase qualitatively verified the knowledge types that teachers had given the highest degree of importance in the quantitative phase indicating those knowledge types that were thought

to be most practical and important in the language classroom. Although patterns of teacher thinking seemed to be similar for all participant teachers, what went into each stage of their thinking, the content, differed from one teacher to another. Once teachers started teaching, their different knowledge types reciprocally interacted with one another in the background of their knowledge of Self and of their students. ESL teacher knowledge was found to be of three types: identity related, cognition related, and practice related.

The findings suggest that, since teacher identity is present in every aspect of what teachers think and do but not present in teacher education programs, the greatest challenge in learning to teach is located in this area. The main tenet of communicative language teaching is the need to help students connect the lesson to their own selves. This cannot be possible unless teachers have already experienced making such connections themselves. Hence, there is a need to assist student teachers to become both Self-aware and student-aware. Finally, the study argues that teacher education programs need to take into consideration the nature of different ESL teacher knowledge types—i.e., identity related, cognition related, and practice related—when developing programs.

Chapter 1: The Study

1.1 Background and Context

The idea for this research emerged through my observations of teachers in different teaching contexts. As a teacher and teacher educator, I observed that teachers who had taken the same training courses, used the same textbooks, and taught more or less similar groups of students, varied considerably in their teaching methodologies. Despite the aspects in common, there was great variety in their thinking about students, the nature of language and language learning, teaching purposes, and their roles as teachers. In addition, there were mismatches between what teachers said and what they did in the classroom. I observed that this was not limited to teachers in one part of the world. It seemed as if it applied to all teachers I had come across. Hence, I became interested to better understand how what teachers knew was related to what they did and who they believed their students to be. Put differently, the observations became my motivation to study English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching.

Teacher education programs are guided by a set of traditionally pre-determined courses, which are assumed to be essential for the construction of ESL teacher knowledge base (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2006). One outcome of such programs is that they seem not to have been successful in aiding teachers to transform theoretical knowledge, gained through such courses, into practical classroom teaching (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001; Golombek, 1998; Kagan, 1990; J. C. Richards, 1996; K. Richards, 1994). In other words, there are inconsistencies between theory and teachers' actual practice, that is, the point at which theory becomes practice.

My observations and the literature on ESL teaching led me to view teachers' knowledge of teaching, the classroom context, and practice as closely intertwined. By teacher knowledge, I mean "the knowledge teachers themselves generate as a result of their experiences as teachers and their reflections on these experiences" as opposed to "[k]nowledge that is primarily known and produced by researchers ... described as knowledge *for* teachers" (Meijer, Verloop, & Beijaard, 1999, p. 60). Classroom context is taken to be "an arena of subjective and intersubjective realities which are worked out, changed, and maintained" which "continually specify and mould the activities of teaching and learning" (Breen, 2004, p. 128). Teaching methodology, or practice, refers to "the activities, tasks, and learning experiences used by the teacher within the teaching and learning process" (J. C. Richards, 2004, p. 167).

ESL teacher knowledge has been looked at from a number of different perspectives, each reflecting the angle from which the researcher views the concept (see Borg, 1998; Breen, et al., 2001; Gatbonton, 1999; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994; J. C. Richards, 1996; K. Richards, 1994). Studies on teachers in English Language Teaching (ELT) and mainstream education have mainly focused on investigating either teacher knowledge, the classroom context, or the practice (see Basturkmen, Shawn, & Ellis, 2004; Borg, 1998; Breen, et al., 2001; Gatbonton, 1999; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994; Llinares, Leiva, Cartaya, & St. Louis, 2008; Long & Porter, 1985; Lyster & Ranta, 1996; Nakatani, 2005; Prabhu, 1990; J. C. Richards, 1996; K. Richards, 1994; Trofimovich & Gatbonton, 2006). None of these studies have investigated the three aspects (i.e., knowledge, context, and practice) in the same study. Moreover, except for Breen's (1991) qualitative study of 106 ESL teachers, the studies on teacher knowledge have qualitatively investigated a limited number of teachers in a limited number of teaching contexts. What is more, none have used the contents of teacher education

programs, which are accepted as the essential knowledge-base for teacher-trainees, as a starting point for studying ESL teacher knowledge. I suggest that it is beneficial to compare actual teacher knowledge with those contents. What is more, since the practical component of teacher training entails novice teachers working under the supervision of an experienced teacher, it is presumed that experienced teachers are the manifestation of the theoretical courses. Despite this, the majority of studies of ESL teaching have investigated pre-service and novice teachers. Therefore, it seemed a good starting point to compare the content of teacher education courses with the knowledge-base of experienced ESL teachers. Last, as a language teacher of adults, for the reasons elaborated in the next chapter, I found it most relevant to investigate ELT in adult teaching contexts.

In this chapter, the purpose, research questions, theoretical framework, research approach and a summary of the following chapters are outlined. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the significance of the study.

1.2 Statement of Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to explore ESL teaching using a mixed methods approach in an attempt to understand the connections between teacher knowledge, practice, and classroom context. To shed light on this issue, the following research questions are addressed in the study:

- *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher knowledge for the purposes of teaching adults?*
- *What is the structure of the adult ESL classroom context?*

- *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher practice for the purposes of teaching adults?*
- *How are experienced ESL teacher knowledge, practice, and the adult classroom context interrelated?*

1.3 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was developed from several different perspectives. The variety in the theoretical framework resulted in the construction of a mixed methods approach and provided the opportunity for the emergence of an unexpected theme, i.e., ESL teacher and student identity. The main literature and theories that shaped this study are those related to ESL and mainstream teacher knowledge (Borg, 1998, 2003b; Breen, et al., 2001; Freeman, 2002; Gatbonton, 1999; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1992; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000b; Meijer, et al., 1999; J. C. Richards, 1996; Shulman, 1999), theories of identity and the notion of Self (Gee, 1999; Goffman, 1959; Mead, 1934; C. Taylor, 2006), Lave and Wenger's communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), teacher identity (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Brown, 2003b), group identity and stereotyping the Other (Gilman, 2003; S. Hall, 2003; Jenkins, 2004), communicative competence (Savignon, 1983), lesson planning and material development (Harmer, 2007; Jolly & Bolitho, 1998; Nunan, 2002; J. C. Richards, 2001; Tomlinson, 2003; T. Woodward, 2001), and teaching methodology relevant to process approach to teaching writing (Applebee, 1986; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Hedge, 2000; Seow, 2002; Susser, 1994), grammar instruction (Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Sharwood Smith, 1991), task-based approach (Harmer, 2007; D. Willis & Willis, 2007), and the audio-visual approach (Ford, 1972; Hempel & Mueller, 1959; Mueller, 1955; J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001). I have also drawn from

the literature on experienced teachers and adult learners in mainstream and ESL education.

For the qualitative phase of the study, the theories and literature are intertwined with the data in each chapter. Hence, the chapters in the second part of the thesis are an integration of research questions, relevant literature, the data, the findings, and the discussions.

1.4 Research Approach

The study aimed to implement a mixed methods approach to quantitatively map experienced ESL teachers' knowledge in the context of teaching adults, using a closed-ended questionnaire. In the second phase of the study, the aim was to qualitatively analyse experienced ESL teachers' knowledge, document their practice, and explore the association between their knowledge, practice, and the social context of the classroom using observations and retrospective interviews.

The participants for the first phase of the study were 108 experienced ESL teachers from different states in Australia teaching ESL at TAFE colleges, AMES, and ELICOS[1] from all the Australian states[2]. The data collection method was a seven-point likert-scale online questionnaire developed from the contents of teacher education programs at the tertiary level in Australia. The data were subjected to exploratory factor

[1] More information on the institutes involved is to be found in the next chapter.

[2] As mentioned in the first section of the present chapter, experienced teachers were chosen because they are viewed as the actual representation of the theoretical teacher education courses. This is reflected in the need for in-service teachers to work under the supervision of an experienced teacher for their teaching practicum course(s).

analysis to identify the categories of experienced ESL teacher knowledge teaching adult ESL students.

The second phase of the study was a multiple-site (TAFE and ELICOS) instrumental case study focusing on four experienced ESL teachers' knowledge, practice, and classroom context. In this phase, I carried out a semi-structured pre-observation interview, followed by a video-recorded non-participant observation and a retrospective interview. The findings from the first phase of the study were used as a backdrop to initially code the qualitative data. The data was further analysed by being subjected to a grounded theory method of data analysis. To analyse the data at a deep level, I also looked closely at the discourse used by the teachers in interviews.

1.5 Outline of Chapters

In Chapter Two, I present the context of the study, i.e., adult language learners of English, English language teaching institutes in Australia, and experienced ESL teachers. I discuss adult language learners' struggles in learning English in a foreign country and their language learning needs. I also outline the dominant features of experienced ESL teachers.

Chapter Three is a discussion of previous investigations into ESL teacher knowledge. The discussion leads to the reasons for an initial quantitative and a subsequent qualitative investigation.

In Chapter Four, I elaborate on my standpoint in terms of ontology, epistemology, methodology, and research aims. I argue the reasons for viewing a mixed methods approach (a two-phase study) as the most suitable type of investigation serving

the purposes of the study. I also present the participants, instrumentation, and data collection procedures of the first phase (quantitative) of the study.

In Chapter Five I present and discuss the findings of the quantitative phase. The discussion on the findings argues for qualitatively continuing the investigation in more depth in order to shed light on other dimensions of the ESL teaching.

Chapter Six explains the methodology used in the qualitative phase. There, I explain the data collection methods and procedures, introduce the participant teachers, their students, and the lessons, and discuss data analysis procedures.

In Chapter Seven, I argue the emergent theme in the study, i.e., teacher identity and its connections with teachers' construction of the student-Other identity. I discuss the different layers of the Self and teacher identity as well as the ways in which teachers construct the identity of the student-Other.

Chapter Eight turns to ESL teacher thinking. I identify the manner through which teacher thinking, a cognitive based aspect of teaching, both functions and interacts with teacher identity. Finally, the findings from teacher thinking and teacher identity are compared with the findings of the quantitative phase.

Chapter Nine documents the four ESL teachers' practice with the aid of video snippets. I connect the discussions from chapters seven and eight to the teachers' practice while at the same time comparing their practice with those suggested in CLT. At the end of the chapter, I present a model of ESL teaching.

In the last chapter, the conclusion, I revisit the findings derived from the research questions, present conclusions and recommendations for teacher education

programs and further study. I also revisit the point from which I started my research journey and the point I reached in my understanding of ESL teaching as a result of the study.

1.6 Significance

The study provides a detailed understanding of ESL teaching which is of great importance especially in a country like Australia where every day more adult English language learners are added to the number already studying in the country. Not only the number, but also the variety of the students increases day by day making it more important for teachers to know how to cope with this variety and change. Thus, by having a better understanding of ESL teaching, we can find ways to help teachers become actively involved with this variety and change. In this way, teachers may not only take pleasure in witnessing change and variety in the cohort of the students but also become dynamically involved in contributing to our understanding of ESL teaching.

Chapter 2: The Context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contextualizes the study by presenting the literature on adult language learners, English language teaching institutes in Australia, and experienced teachers. It highlights both the strong and vulnerable positions in which adult language learners are situated, stressing the importance of effective teacher education programs in helping teachers become aware of adult students' particular language learning needs. Next, the contexts in which adults in Australia learn ESL are briefly described, clarifying the reasons for selecting the particular language learning contexts. Last, studies on experienced ESL teachers in relation to thinking, classroom context, and practice are presented followed by a discussion on the importance of implementing the three factors in a single study.

2.2 Adult English Language Learners

Since the very first day of my teaching, I have always been interested in teaching adult language learners for the variety of rich experience they bring with them into the language classroom. What makes teaching adults exciting is the opportunity to incorporate real life issues and challenges as topics for the language learning lesson, something I see as more difficult to accomplish with younger learners. Adults' wide socialization experiences make them more at ease in sharing their accomplishments, world views, cultures, histories, and aspirations with their peers and with the teacher. My personal experience of teaching adult language learners has been one of a shared growth with the students as a result of this joint collaboration.

Adult language learning has not been always associated with pleasant images, however. I have seen adults experiencing distress and, even at times, depression due to their inability to communicate at even a survival level in an English speaking country. Their distress and frustration is intensified when they face financial problems as a result of not being able to find a job to support their families. Add to this the trauma they have gone through in leaving their home country, usually after experiencing unsuitable life conditions, to settle in a land unlike where they were brought up. Being located in a new community with its own culture and social groups, they often feel marginalized in their attempts to negotiate their new identities through the medium of a new and unfamiliar language. These outside-the-classroom challenges can be brought with them into the class, negatively affecting their English language learning. For these reasons and many more, I see adult ESL education as both more challenging and more rewarding than the teaching and learning of children.

In terms of the nature of adult education, Knowles et al. (1998, p. 36) state that although "[s]hortly after the end of World War I … a growing body of notions about the unique characteristics of adult learners began emerging [but it was not until] the past few decades [that] ... these notions evolved into an integrated framework of adult learning". What is interesting here is that adult education is not something new. People like Confucius, Aristotle, Plato, Socrates and many more great scholars of the past were teachers of adults who developed techniques for actively engaging their students in the quest for knowledge (Knowles, 1980).

Adult educators are united in the belief that adults can draw upon a rich source of experiences in their learning activities (MacKeracher, 2004); that is, adults have access to a wealth of experience that functions as the source of their knowledge (Knowles, 1970, 1980). I see this as even more true in ESL classes where the class can

be a collection of engineers, housewives, students, business owners, teachers, parents, spouses, atheists, and churchgoers. The basic mental processes involved in adult learning is the same as for children; nevertheless, because adults and children are in different life stages, they differ in regards to social experiences and socialization, emotional influences, age-connected physical changes, and accumulated life events (MacKeracher, 2004).

This wealth of past knowledge does not always work to the benefit of adult learners. It can also be a source of bias and resistance to new ideas that do not fit their existing store of knowledge (MacKeracher, 2004). In such circumstances, according to MacKeracher (2004) adult learners either accept their existing knowledge as inadequate or enter an unknown learning situation with the promise of an unidentified learning outcome. Both circumstances are likely to cause contradiction and distress since they may cause a breakdown in adult learners' self-concept. On the one hand, self-concept is required to undergo some change due to new learning experiences; on the other hand, adults need to rely on their self-concept to deal with the change. This is likely to trigger the feeling of being underestimated or ignored leading to a feeling of distress. I believe this is especially true in the case of adult language learners who have newly settled in an English speaking country where they are required to negotiate their changing identity in the new social context and at the same time to adhere to their sense of who they are in order to undergo this change. Consequently, as Mackeracher (2004) states, adults are likely to be more vulnerable and threatened than children if they attempt to learn and fail. This is because they lose a great amount of their already well-established self-concept in unsuccessful learning situations. Hence, when experiencing failure, they are more likely than children to withdraw from learning or not to enter learning situations at all.

In an ESL adult learning context, both the teacher and the learners come from a variety of cultural backgrounds. Each person brings into the classroom their culture, beliefs, values, and everyday responsibilities which form the basis for interpersonal communication among members of the class (MacKeracher, 2004).What is more, in such classrooms, adults are aware of their low level of English competence which may instigate a feeling of being inferior and stupid in a "hidden" or overt manner (Vandrick, 1997). The significance of such hidden contexts normally goes unnoticed unless an obstacle provides a difficult or awkward situation. In such situations, discovering the source of problem may be complex (MacKeracher, 2004). It is also likely that the adult learners may experience cultural or emotional problems, both in relation to classroom events and to events external to the classroom.

Since adults are connected to their social life, occupation, family responsibilities, and accumulated experiences and life skills, they show interest when involved in problem-solving activities relevant to their needs with immediate application in the real world. For this reason, flexible, non-traditional, and non-authoritative teaching connected to life roles and experiences is likely to motivate adult learners to become engaged in the teaching-learning activity (Knowles, et al., 1998). Along the same lines, Norton Peirce (1995) argues that the adult language learner should be conceptualized "as having a complex social identity that must be understood with reference to the larger, and frequently unequitable social structures which are reproduced in day-to-day social interaction" (p. 13). She further argues that the most relevant problem-solving activities for adult learners of English involve the practice of claiming "the right to speak outside the classroom" (ibid, p. 26) which can be incorporated into in adult ESL curriculum.

Adults learn best when they see themselves as having the power to set their own pace for learning. They prefer to be in control of their learning and to set learning goals

while also making independent learning decisions (MacKeracher, 2004). They have the competency to recognize their educational needs and possess the skills to design and evaluate their own learning activities, a process which MacKeracher (2004) calls self-direction. It is the result of the natural maturation process that individuals go through starting from dependency in childhood (Knowles, 1980). Adult learners are not totally self-directed, however. Kegan (1994) describes adult learners as moving backward and forward between autonomy and inclusion in the process of constant change and development. When the need for inclusion is met, adult learners feel the pressure to move towards autonomy or separateness. As the individual moves towards autonomy, they feel the demand to move towards inclusion. A study by Baxter Magolda (1992) revealed that men and women took different approaches to learning. Men showed more tendency to adopt an autonomy-based approach to learning (becoming adept in the subject, focusing on personal achievement, challenging others' thinking, giving attention to self-directed learning) while women preferred a relation-based approach (making connections between the material learned and personal experiences, relating to others in learning activities, and building interpersonal relationships with others).

In terms of motivation, MacKeracher (2004) states that adults seem to learn best in unthreatening conditions where the relationship between the teacher and adult learners is based on trust. Such situations provide the opportunity for them to become fully engaged and motivated in the learning activity, which causes them to direct their energy to change processes. Buttaro and King (2002), in a qualitative case study looking at Hispanic ESL women living in the United States, found that teacher qualities such as enthusiasm and encouragement were reported to be essential in the participants' success in English lessons. Outside the classroom factors such as mother-child relationship (i.e. helping their children with their homework, attending school meetings, or

communicating with their children) also played a pivotal role in the success or failure of the female students in the formal learning context. In studying adult Vietnamese ESL learners of English in Australia, Bernat (2004) found that, although they possessed low levels of confidence in learning English and were disadvantaged both in terms of socio-economic status and English language proficiency, they were highly motivated to learn English. Their strong drive for English learning came from their external motivation to find a better job. Norton Pierce (1995) also suggests that adults' investment in language learning should be seen in light of their changing social identities (i.e., being a mother who is the only provider for the family). Knowles (1970, 1980), also believes that adults develop a strong drive for learning as a response to a particular need related to the social context in which they have a role. Such situations urge them to focus on the immediate application of knowledge. Thus, they show more drive when participating in performance-based learning activities than when involved in theoretical learning.

Learning is influenced by the way knowledge is co-constructed in the communities of knowers. As Goldberger (1996) explains, in such communities, status and power play a pivotal role in how and what is to be known. Nobel (2000) states that cultural differences in any community are associated with power inequalities. Due to historical background or for some other reasons, a particular culture may become dominant and exert power. These "conditions under which language learners speak are often highly challenging, engaging their identities in complex and often contradictory ways" (Norton & Toohey, 2001, p. 312). In the case of the present study, the Australian, that is the Western tradition of learning, is the dominant culture in the ESL curriculum even though the students are mostly from non-Western backgrounds. As a person coming from an Eastern background and studying in a Western system, I have seen that people from the two sides of the globe are, to some extent, different in the way they

perceive the relationship between themselves and the world. Western thought regards the world as an entity external to the individual on which the individual can expend change. Thus, westerners give priority to individuals and their rights and stress analytic and clear-cut ways of finding the *truth*. In the Eastern school of thought, society and the world take precedence over the individual. The individual (the part) is embedded in the society (the whole). Since individuals do not stand outside the ever-changing society, they are enormously influenced by it. Consequently, individuals have the responsibility to exercise self-control. Holistic thinking, social responsibility, finding solutions benefitting all, and unravelling life's mysteries are some features of Eastern thought.

As a concluding remark, adult English language learners bring a variety of inside-the-head factors with them into the language classroom. These are their past schooling experiences, family values with regards to the importance of education, personal learning styles, concerns about their job and family, and many more. Such learners also focus on outside-the-head challenges, which are equally important in their learning and performance in the language classroom. Some examples of these socio-contextual issues are working hours and ESL classes, communication with native speakers outside the classroom, and access to childcare centres when attending English classes. These socio-contextual factors can be addressed by serving as topics for discussion and elaboration in the form of classroom activities. In this way language learners can be given a space to explore their real-life dilemmas in the language classroom (Menard-Warwick, 2005). Hence, for language learning and teaching to efficiently take place, it is essential that teachers be aware of both the personal and the educational sides of language learners and respond to them in a suitable fashion. This can best be accomplished through appropriate teacher education programs.

2.3 Adult Language Teaching Contexts

Since the introduction of mass migration to Australia at the end of World War II, more than six decades ago, almost 7 million people have permanently settled in Australia, 700,000 of whom are humanitarian entrants (Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2010a). The number of migrants entering Australia in one year, from July 2008 to June 2009, was 158, 021. These were from a total of 200 countries, the majority of whom by country of birth were from New Zealand, the United Kingdom, India, China, The Philippines, Iraq, Sri Lanka, Malaysia and Burma respectively (ibid). Australia's migration plan consists of two components:

- Migration for family members, professionals and skilled migrants, and people with special eligibility criteria; and
- Humanitarian programs for refugees (Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2010b)

Australia has also been successful in attracting large numbers of international students to its educational centres, especially since the 1990s. Students seeking to study in an English speaking country see Australia as a better option compared to the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom in terms of security, tolerance toward migrants, university tuition, and living costs (Marginson, 2002). The number of international students granted visas to study in Australia in a period of one year from 2008 to 2009 was 320,368. The majority of these students by country of citizenship were from India, People's Republic of China, Republic of Korea, Nepal, Thailand, Brazil, Malaysia, the United States of America, Vietnam, and Indonesia respectively (Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2010c).

Since the major language in Australia is Australian-English, a suitable command of the English language is necessary for both migrants and international students coming from non-English speaking backgrounds. The Australian Multicultural and Education Services (AMES) provides English language and settlement services to migrants in Australia. *English for Migrants* is offered to migrants and refugees consisting of 510 hours of ESL training which helps adults improve their reading, writing, speaking, and comprehension skills of English. Migrants who possess more advanced English skills but need assistance to enter the workplace, may take *English for Work* courses. Those between the ages of 18 and 25 are able to take *English for Youth* ESL courses, which are especially designed to assist young people starting a new life in Australia by training them in study, life, and employability skills. Those humanitarian entrants who have undergone trauma prior to migrating to Australia can take up to 400 hours of informal ESL tuition, under the S*pecial Preparatory program (SPP)*, before commencing their more formal ESL classes (Australian Multicultural and Education Services, 2010).

Non-English speaking background migrants or international students applying to enter any of the Australian universities or Vocational Education and Training (VET) programs are required to provide evidence of their English language proficiency level. If the document they provide does not satisfy the level of English language proficiency expected from them at the post secondary level, they are required to enter the English Language Intensive Courses for Overseas Students (ELICOS) or Technical and Further Education (TAFE) program (Australian Multicultural and Education Services, 2010).

Hence, the English language preparation programs for:

- migrants are offered through AMES;

- migrants and international students willing to enter the VET sector are offered through TAFE colleges; and
- migrants and international students aiming to enter the higher education sector are provided through ELICOS.

Since AMES, TAFE, and ELICOS are the largest providers of ESL adult education throughout Australia, they were thought of as suitable contexts for the purposes of this study. For the second phase of the study, as explained in the Methodology II chapter, I was not able to access AMES teachers for observations and interviews. Another provider of ESL adult education are Neighbourhood Houses which are not included in the whole study, again due to complexities in regards to accessing teachers.

2.4 Experienced Teachers

The participants in this study are experienced ESL teachers from whose standpoint teacher knowledge, identity, and methodology is explored. According to Gatbonton (2008, p. 162) "[E]xperienced teachers are those with many years of teaching behind them, with 'many' interpreted in various studies as at least four to five years". What follows is a brief overview of some features of experienced teachers, the manner through which they form knowledge, their understanding of the teaching context, and the teaching methods they adopt in teaching.

I contend that since experienced teachers are rich in terms of what they know and do in the classroom, compared to novice and student-teachers, the more we are able to understand how they think and perform in different teaching contexts, the more we can contribute to training student-teachers efficiently. As Gatbonton (2008, p. 162)

states, experienced teachers are more stable in terms of "thinking and classroom performance" compared to novice or student-teachers. This feature can be seen in light of their being exposed to a range of different teaching opportunities that have been repeated over the years giving them a repertoire of knowledge about what works and what does not in a given situation. Compared to novice and student-teachers, they possess a more stable knowledge base (ibid). According to Breen et al. (2001), despite individual differences in terms of knowledge and methodology, experienced ESL teachers share a "collective" repertoire of knowledge and actions which constantly interact with one another as they teach.

In addition, that teacher education programs nominate experienced teachers as mentors for student-teachers in their school-based teaching, suggests that experienced teachers are regarded as the practical realization of the theoretical courses of teacher education. Stated in other words, experienced teachers may be seen to provide the ultimate models that student-teachers hope to reach one day.

2.4.1 Teacher knowledge.

From a cognitive point of view, as teachers teach, teaching experience becomes stored in memory in the form of complex structures of knowledge. When confronted with a new situation, experienced teachers match the main features of the context with the complex set of knowledge stored in memory; in this way, the relevant information is retrieved giving them the ability to execute appropriate teaching—in a new situation—based on their past experiences (J. D. Lange & S. G. Burroughs-Lange, 1994). In a descriptive study of elementary level experienced and novice teachers' decision-making, Fogarty et al. (1983) found that in terms of attention, experienced teachers were able to simultaneously and efficiently attend to a variety of instructional goals and student

performance cues and connect them to a wide variety of pedagogic, content, and student knowledge. All this contributed to executing a diverse range of instructional performances in the classroom. What goes on in teachers' heads is only one aspect of teaching. The teaching process involves retrieval of teaching knowledge closely connected with the classroom context. Put simply, attending to the cognitive aspect only partially illuminates the process of teaching. We, therefore, need to make connections between teacher knowledge and the social context in which this knowledge is used.

2.4.2 Classroom context.

In regards to experienced teachers' perception of the classroom context and the method they choose to approach this context, the literature suggests that they have a good understanding of their students, an essential element of the teaching context. Calderhead (1983) claims that even prior to teaching, experienced teachers have some understanding of their students' knowledge, skills, needs, attitudes, problems, and abilities. It takes them only the first few days to acquire some understanding of their students' specific knowledge types and abilities. Thus, when teaching a lesson, due to their wide experience in classroom teaching, these teachers are able to predict in which areas students might have difficulty. Moreover, experienced teachers are more focused outwards, towards students, and novice teachers are focused inwards, towards themselves and the ways students react to them. In a study comparing experienced and inexperienced ESL teachers, Gatbonton (2008) found that experienced teachers focused more on students' classroom behaviour and positive reactions to these behaviours; while, for inexperienced teachers building relationships with students and being attentive to students' reactions was of more prominence. Finally, as stated by Lange and Burroughs-Lange (1994) experienced teachers respond differently to problematic or new classroom situations. They may temporarily withhold from finding a solution by not

making judgements, getting help from others, lowering their expectations, or continuing to teach as they did until reaching a solution. In sum, they tend to postpone making changes to have time to study the problem. Another route they may take is becoming actively involved in understanding the problem. This can be done through looking at the problem from different angles, challenging the problem through trial and error, going back to past experiences and training to find a solution, or checking new sources of assistance. Although such findings are without doubt helpful in understanding how experienced teachers think about the classroom, there is a need for studies to make stronger connections between the features of the teaching context and teacher thinking and knowledge. These, moreover, need to be connected to practice.

2.4.3 Teaching methods.

Throughout years of instruction, experienced teachers have been exposed to different teaching methods, both in their teacher development programs and classroom experiences (Mackey, Polio, & McDonough, 2004). This gives them a rich source of practice to refer to while teaching. Experienced teachers show skill in adopting lesson plans and are spontaneous in their handling of unexpected pedagogical situations. Less experienced teachers tend to show reluctance in diverging from their lesson plan even when the circumstances require them to do so (Mackey, et al., 2004). In a qualitative study of four experienced ESL teachers, Johnston and Goettsch (2000a) found that ESL teachers' skill in grammar instruction comes from their years of teaching experience and education. This knowledge, which is constantly changing, comes from both internal and external sources. The internal sources are mental databases and the gradual processes through which teachers resolve teaching problems as they encounter them. External sources are grammar books (references), interactions with other teachers, and electronic discussion groups.

Based on the following studies, experienced ESL teachers seem to adopt two main teaching methods. One, they focus on comprehensible language input by contextualizing lessons. Two, they check student understanding through student output by eliciting examples and explanations from them. In a study of experienced and inexperienced ESL teachers at a North American university, Mackey et al. (2004) found that experienced teachers were skilful at directing attention to linguistic forms when encountering students' "non-target-like production" in grammar instruction. In the same situation, less experienced teachers were not able to depart from the lesson plan and tended to draw students' attention to the semantic side of their productions, rather than the linguistic side. Johnston and Goettsch (2000a) also found that, instead of giving explanations in grammar lessons, experienced teachers emphasized presenting contextualized examples, or eliciting examples and explanations from students. Their main goal was aiding students in making connections between those bits and pieces they had learnt and ultimately putting them into practical communication. Checking students' understanding of the lessons through the feedback they received was also another element to which they were attentive.

Gatbonton (2008, p. 175) found that experienced teachers devoted more class time to "eliciting vocabulary items, presenting them, illustrating them, writing them on the board and having students guess their meanings from context" whereas inexperienced teachers tended to focus more on explanations and giving instructions. In other words, experienced teachers showed more skill in managing student output and providing sufficient language input. Gatbonton (1999) observed that when teaching, experienced ESL teachers were mainly concerned with managing language. More precisely, their main attention was on both teaching language items and providing comprehensible input by encouraging students to put the language learnt into use in a

meaningful manner, contextualizing lessons, and eliciting students' comprehension of the lessons.

Akyel (1997), studying EFL teachers, found that experienced teachers were mainly concerned with students' understanding of the lessons and maintaining involvement and interest. Comprehension check was done through eliciting explanations, examples, and meaningful use of the language from the students. Since the teachers were not worried about losing control of the instructional goals as planned, the flow of teaching was based on student output and feedback. This was done because they were familiar with classroom patterns to the extent that they could recognize and anticipate events happening in the classroom.

2.5 Summary

In sum, experienced teachers are those with at least four to five years of teaching experience who are more or less stable in their teaching and thinking processes, have acquired a rich source of teaching knowledge, have a good grasp of the patterns of the social contexts of the classroom, utilize a wide range of teaching methods, and are spontaneous in dealing with unexpected teaching situations. The review of literature depicts the gap in incorporating the three aspects of teacher thinking, practice, and the classroom context in a single study. Such comprehensive studies can provide a more comprehensive understanding of ESL teaching and consequently more suitable teacher education programs adapted to the needs of both teachers and students.

In the next chapter, I discuss the role of teacher knowledge, which I see as connected to practice via thinking, analyse studies of teacher knowledge, and argue the need for a quantitative investigation of ESL teacher knowledge.

Chapter 3: ESL Teacher Knowledge

3.1 Introduction

ESL teaching is partly a thinking process in which teacher knowledge plays a pivotal role in the instructional choices which teachers make among different alternatives (Breen, et al., 2001). Thus, this chapter directly targets the difficulties of understanding ESL teacher knowledge and argues the need for an initial quantitative study to address these issues.

3.2 The Role of ESL Teacher Knowledge

Teacher knowledge plays an important role in teachers actively making instructional choices among different alternatives based on contextual requirements and constraints at a given time (Breen, et al., 2001). When teachers are engaged in the teaching-learning process in the classroom, their thoughts guide their performance. These thoughts are controlled by their knowledge and beliefs (Gatbonton, 1999). On the importance of studying teacher knowledge, Mullock (2006) maintains that researchers in language teacher education programs have discussed the need “for a broadening of the theoretical base of language teacher development programs”. This goal can be achieved through the investigation of teachers’ practice and knowledge and the manner through which “this knowledge is transferred to their teaching behaviour”. Such findings can aid us in creating more effective teacher development programs since these programs are argued to be capable of bringing about the expected outcomes (p. 48). Breen et al. (2001) state that inquiry into teacher knowledge can grant us a better understanding of the nature of teaching. The findings can, moreover, contribute to educating in-service teachers as well as teacher development programs. It can provide a sound groundwork

for curriculum developers and policy makers in designing changes related to classroom practice, teaching materials, or curriculum. And last, such understandings can suggest a variety of structures for language teaching evolving out of practical classroom work (ibid).

Borg (2003b, p. 81), in a literature review article on "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching", cites 16 studies from 1992 to 2001 that have used a variety of constructs to make connections between teacher cognition and classroom practice. These are: beliefs, assumptions, knowledge, attitudes, thoughts, ideas, morale, affect, concepts, philosophical principles, an underlying system of constructs, and a notion analogous to schema. In the present study, teacher knowledge is used to investigate the cognitive aspect of ESL teaching.

3.3 Definition and Categorization

I use the term *knowledge* to refer to "the knowledge teachers themselves generate as a result of their experiences as teachers and their reflections on these experiences" as opposed to "[k]nowledge that is primarily known and produced by researchers ... described as knowledge *for* teachers" (Meijer, et al., 1999, p. 60). Teacher knowledge assists teachers in interpreting those contextual cues through which they think they will gain desired results (Calderhead, 1983). As students are an integral part of this context, Johnston and Goettsch (2000a) characterize teacher knowledge as "an ongoing interaction between the teacher's knowledge and actions and her awareness of student knowledge and student learning" (p. 17).

Teacher knowledge has been defined in diverse ways; each reflecting the angle from which the researcher has looked at the construct. Breen et al. (2001) use the term

"pedagogic principles" to refer to teaching principles "shaped and generated by ... abstract and underlying beliefs" that "mediate between them and the teachers' on-going decision-making and actions with a particular class of learners in a particular teaching situation" (p. 472). J.C. Richards (1996, p. 293), analysing a body of adult teacher interviews and narratives, defines teacher knowledge as "maxims", which "are personal working principles ... [reflecting] ... teachers' individual philosophies of teaching, developed from their experience of teaching and learning, their teacher education experiences, and from their own personal beliefs and value systems". Keith Richards (1994, p. 402) calls teacher knowledge "craft knowledge" referring to different hierarchies of knowledge which at a narrow level can be viewed as a set of "skills and procedures" handed down from one teacher to another, at a more general level as a set of personal decision-making skills one implements depending on the demands of the context. Gatbonton (1999, p. 35) calls teacher knowledge "pedagogical knowledge" meaning "teacher's accumulated knowledge about the teaching act (e.g., its goals, procedures, strategies) that serves as the basis for his or her classroom behaviour and activities". Johnson (1994, p. 443) uses "the concept of image.... to refer to general metaphors for thinking about teaching that not only represent beliefs about teaching but also act as models of action". Citing Clandinin and Connelly (1987), Golombek (1998, p. 448) uses personal practical knowledge as ESL teachers' "moral, affective, and aesthetic way of knowing life's educational situations". She further argues teachers' personal practical knowledge "as being dialectical, situated, and dynamic in response to their personal and professional lives, embodied in persons, and taking the form of stories". Borg (1998, p. 9) looks at teacher knowledge from the perspective of "personal pedagogical systems" which "play a significant role in shaping teachers' instructional decisions" and are "stores of beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions, and attitudes".

Prabhu (1990) argues that teachers operate in the classroom on the basis of their "sense of plausibility" or "pedagogic intuition", which is their personal concept about

> how learning takes place and how teaching causes or supports it.... This personal sense of plausibility may not only vary in its content from one teacher to another, but may be more or less firmly or fully formed, more or less consciously considered or articulated, between different teachers (p. 172).

In stating that different people have looked at teacher knowledge in different ways, I do not suggest that there is no agreement on the features of teacher knowledge. In fact, contrary to the varied definitions above, there exist general commonalities. First, the definitions state that teacher knowledge informs practice. Second, teachers use different knowledge types with different learners, meaning that it is contextual, dialectical, and informed by the context. This also indicates that teachers have a repertoire of knowledge on which they can draw while teaching. This knowledge is learnt through observing and/or talking with other teachers, personal teaching experiences, and training. It is based on experience; hence, it is personal and varies from person to person. And last, it is informed by something deep-seated in teachers which some call beliefs, some call values, and some others call personal stories (Breen, et al., 2001; Gatbonton, 1999; Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1994; Prabhu, 1990; J. C. Richards, 1996; K. Richards, 1994).

A close analysis of the studies above should allow us to say that some have extended our understanding of the nature and origin of teacher knowledge. Some others have shed light on the connections between teacher knowledge and practice. However, none have attempted to focus on all these factors at the same time with the same degree of emphasis. More precisely, based on the definitions above, teaching entails teachers' thoughts guiding their practice (Gatbonton, 1999) as it interacts with the immediate social context, the classroom (Breen, 2004). Put differently, teaching practice is the

means by which teachers take advantage of their cognitive resources or knowledge within the social environment of the classroom to construct knowledge with the students (Borg, 2003b). For this reason, it is essential to study all the three factors—i.e., teacher knowledge, classroom context, and practice—simultaneously if the intention is to develop an understanding of language teaching. The imbalance in the focus of the studies has resulted in their identification of different specifications of teacher knowledge, categorizing it in different ways.

Shulman (1999, p. 64) classifies teacher knowledge as “content knowledge”, “general pedagogical knowledge”, “curriculum knowledge”, “pedagogical content knowledge”, “knowledge of learners”, “knowledge of educational contexts”, and “knowledge of educational ends”. He attributes most importance to pedagogical content knowledge as a synthesis of content and pedagogical knowledge. This combination represents “how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction”. He also asserts that this knowledge base is dynamic and liable to change as it evolves. Freeman (2002, p. 6) argues that when pedagogical content knowledge is applied to the field of language learning-teaching, it “becomes a messy and possibly unworkable concept” for the content of the lesson and the medium of instruction are the same while this differs in subject-matter instruction. Clarke (1994, p. 9) highlights that borrowing knowledge from other disciplines is “of little use, at best, and disabling, at worst”, for real experiences of teachers and learners in ELT is not taken into account. Gee (1988, p. 219) also states that language teaching is different from subject matter teaching because the latter requires consciously teaching and transmitting bodies of knowledge from one person to another. In the former, teaching requires enculturating “someone into a language system (grammar, words, perspective taking, identity marking)” and fiddling

with his identity and perspectives and in this process creating a new person. That is, by learning a new language one becomes a member of a new community, i.e., the community of English language speakers. Membership in this new community entails learning the relevant culture and norms as well as words, grammar rules, and other conventions that the members use for communication. All this requires forming a new identity. In addition, since the language learners' language level is not the same as their native language, they are not able to express their opinions and views at the same level of complexity as they do in their native language. This again contributes to identity disruption and formation of a new identity.

Table 1, influenced by Borg (2003b), shows that the field of ESL has its own complications. Due to the complexities in the types of research cited earlier, teacher knowledge has been understood from diverse perspectives suggesting that researchers are generally not unanimous on its specifics.

Table 1
Categories of ESL Teacher Knowledge

The Concept	Categories
Instructional Decisions (Johnson, 1992)	• Student motivation & involvement (the need to increase or maintain student motivation and involvement) • Instructional management (the effect of overall group process on the instructional flow of the lesson) • Curriculum integration (the sequence of the lesson content and/or instructional materials) • Student social needs (students' social, affective, and developmental needs) • Subject matter content (the nature of the lesson content) • Student understanding (increasing student understanding) • Student language skill & ability (level of student language skill and ability)
Maxims (J. C. Richards, 1996)	• The Maxim of Involvement: Follow the learners' interests to maintain student involvement. • The Maxim of Planning: Plan your teaching and try to follow your plan. • The Maxim of Order: Maintain order and discipline throughout the lesson. • The Maxim of Encouragement: Seek ways to encourage student learning. • The Maxim of Accuracy: Work for accurate student output. • The Maxim of Efficiency: Make the most efficient use of class time. • The Maxim of Conformity: Make sure your teaching follows the prescribed method. • The Maxim of Empowerment: Give learners control.
Personal Pedagogical Systems (Borg, 1998)	Teachers' beliefs about • students, • themselves (i.e., teachers' self-perceptions), • the subject matter being taught, • teaching and learning, • curricula, • schools, • the teacher's role, • materials, • classroom management, and • instructional activities.
Personal Practical Knowledge (Golombek, 1998)	• Knowledge of self • Knowledge of subject matter • Knowledge of instruction • Knowledge of contexts
General Domains of Pedagogical Knowledge (Gatbonton, 1999)	• Knowledge of how to manage specific language items so students can learn them (Handling Language Items) • Knowledge about students and what they bring into the classroom (Factoring Student Contributions) • Knowledge about the goal and subject matter of teaching (Determining the Contents of Teaching) • Knowledge about Techniques and Procedures (Facilitating the Instructional Flow) • Knowledge about appropriate student-teacher relationships (Building Rapport) • Knowledge about evaluating student task involvement and progress during the lesson (Monitoring student Progress)
Typology of Practical Knowledge (Meijer, et al., 1999)	• Subject matter knowledge • Student knowledge • Knowledge of student learning and understanding
Knowledge Base of Language Teaching (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000a)	• Content Knowledge • Pedagogical Content Knowledge • Knowledge of Learners
Pedagogic concerns (Breen, et al., 2001)	• a concern with how the learner undertakes the learning process; • a concern with particular attributes of the learner; • a concern with how to use the classroom and its human and material resources to optimize learning; • a concern with the subject matter of learning—with what is being taught and learned; • a concern with the specific contributions that they can make in their role as teacher.

In addition to the varied categorizations, teacher knowledge has been seen to be influenced by different sources. These are: "unexpected student behaviour" (Johnson, 1992, p. 527), contextual factors (J. C. Richards, 1996), experience and initial training (Borg, 1998), teachers' positioning of themselves in connection to others and their perceptions of the consequences of their actions on themselves and others (Golombek,

1998), teachers' content knowledge when combined with other knowledge types (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000a), and teachers' language management concerns (content knowledge) in particular (Gatbonton, 1999). Meijer et al. (1999) found language teacher knowledge to be interacting in a more complex manner than the studies above. They found that teachers were different in regards to the content of their practical knowledge. Depending on the type of knowledge the teachers tended to focus on, Meijer et al. (1999) grouped their six categories of language teachers' practical knowledge into: "(a) Practical knowledge with a focus on subject matter knowledge, (b) practical knowledge with a focus on student knowledge (c) practical knowledge with a focus on knowledge of student learning and understanding" (p. 81).

In summary, researchers' varied emphases on different dimensions relevant to teacher knowledge has resulted in the diverse findings. I suggest that in qualitative studies of ESL teaching, as in the case of all the above studies, it would be more productive to study the phenomenon in its entirety taking into consideration the factors identified to be common to all researchers. These are ESL teacher knowledge, practice, and the immediate teaching context. This suggestion is more suitable when taking a holistic and hermeneutic stance towards ESL teaching, which is the focus of the second part of the project. At this point, I present two further arguments in support of my position.

3.4 The Problem

The aim of teacher thinking studies has been, and still is, to contribute to teacher education programs. Looking at such programs in the Australian context, it becomes clear that ESL teachers are trained on the basis of more or less similar course contents, which are presumed to be the necessary knowledge base that teachers will be required to

implement in their classroom teaching. Research also suggests that ESL teacher training has a profound influence on the teachers and that ESL teachers share a common knowledge base. On the other hand, researchers have used their own or others' theories to identify the components of teacher knowledge. In light of these, what needs to be done at this point is to use the contents of teacher education courses as a starting point to study ESL teacher knowledge. Instead of going to theories for understanding the components of the ESL teacher knowledge base, we can start from a more solid ground which is the course content in which teachers have been trained.

Second, to date, much of the work on ESL teacher knowledge has been guided by critical literature reviews and/or qualitative investigations. While these studies have undoubtedly contributed extensively to providing an emic account of teacher thinking (Freeman, 2002), they lack scope. There is a need to study ESL teacher knowledge in a wider scope—i.e., a larger number of teachers in different teaching contexts—to arrive at a more sound understanding of ESL teacher knowledge grounded in a documented study. By asking a large number of ESL teachers about the knowledge types they implement in their teaching, we can draw a tentative model of the categories of teacher knowledge. From there, we can probe deeper via qualitative investigation to understand the interrelationships among the different ESL teacher knowledge types. At this point, through a quantitative large-scale study, I aim to answer the general question of: *What is the structure of ESL teacher knowledge?*

In Chapter Five, I discuss that how answering the above question leads to a series of other interrelated questions, triggering the motivation for continuing the study within a qualitative framework.

Chapter 4: Methodology I

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter I argue the reasons for taking a mixed methods approach to the study in light of the perspective from which I see research inquiry. Then, I introduce the participants, instruments, and data collection procedure for the quantitative phase of the study.

4.2 The Approach to the Study

When writing up the methodology chapter of a thesis in education and social sciences, it is generally recommended that the researcher justify the reasons for choosing particular research methods and methodology. These justifications are believed to be influenced by the researcher's theoretical perspective or epistemology and ontology (Crotty, 1998). Crotty (1998) argues that the researcher's standpoint or theoretical perspective determines the use of certain methodology and, in turn, a set of research methods. Nevertheless, others like Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) believe that one can take a more practical approach to research design. Instead of going from top to bottom—i.e., from theoretical perspectives to investigation techniques—a researcher can take a more pragmatic route and allow the research purpose(s) and in turn the research question(s) to determine the methods and methodology to be implemented in the study—i.e., going from bottom to top (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

In the following, I have chosen to look at research inquiry from the bottom-up, starting from the generation of the research purposes and questions, then going towards the methods of inquiry, methodology, and finally to epistemology and ontology.

4.3 The Development of Research Purposes and Questions

No matter what theoretical perspective one holds, the development of the research purposes is at the heart of any research since it is the reason(s) for starting the research in the first place (Newman, Ridenour, Newman, & DeMarco, 2003). I am not using research purpose as an equivalent to research questions since it is different from research questions, methods of data collection, methodology, or theoretical perspective. It is the reason for carrying out the research which is at the same time interwoven with the research questions, methods of data collection, methodology and theoretical perspective (Newman, et al., 2003). Only from clear research purpose as a first step can the researcher move on to maintaining consistency in the development of research questions and methods of enquiry which can in turn strengthen the validity of the investigation (Newman, et al., 2003). To elaborate, I wish to focus on the present study starting from the purpose of the study, then proceeding to the research questions.

The motivation for embarking on the present study comes from my experience as a teacher educator and language teacher working in a number of different teaching-learning environments. One of the things I have observed during this time is that teachers with similar educational background who have undergone the same teacher education program, teach the same textbooks, and follow the same lesson plan with the same teaching objectives, may teach quite differently. It is this combination of disjuncture between espoused and practiced approaches to language teaching and individual variations, which interests me. Research suggests that teacher education programs may be able to equip teachers with theoretical knowledge but are not necessarily successful in transforming this knowledge into actual teaching (Breen, et al., 2001; Golombek, 1998; Kagan, 1990; J. C. Richards, 1996; K. Richards, 1994). What is

more, looking at the array of investigations into teacher knowledge, I have found that these studies have a number of limitations when applied to the area of ESL.

First, many of the influential works on teacher knowledge—such as Shulman's (1999) work—are from areas outside language teaching which may provide a misrepresentation of ESL teacher knowledge when applied to ELT (Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Gee, 1988). Second, those descriptions and categorizations of ESL teacher knowledge conducted by researchers in ELT have been guided by studies of a purely qualitative nature (see Borg, 2001, 2006; Farrell, 1999; Golombek, 1998; Mullock, 2006; J. C. Richards, 1996) which implies that, while the studies may have been able to provide an in-depth identification of teacher knowledge, they lack breadth. In other words, such descriptions and categorizations of teacher knowledge are applicable to the teachers under study in the investigated context(s) (Creswell, 2009). This has resulted in different researchers providing diverse specifications of ESL teacher knowledge (see Borg, 2003b; Breen, et al., 2001; Gatbonton, 1999; J. C. Richards, 1996; K. Richards, 1994).

Since the studies to date have focused on a small number of teachers in a limited number of teaching contexts, I believe there is a need to initially provide a description of ESL teacher knowledge as understood by a larger number of teachers in different teaching contexts. Then from there we can take further steps towards understanding teacher knowledge from a more in-depth perspective. For this reason, the initial area of interest in the present study is an attempt to identify the main constituent elements of ESL teacher knowledge. I have then attempted to shed light on the manner in which these elements are related to one another. Teacher knowledge cannot be understood abstracted from the context (i.e., the students) in which it is practiced and the practice through which it is represented. Hence, there is also a need to study teaching context and

methodology as well in order to gain a more comprehensive picture of teacher knowledge. It is important to remember that the teachers in the study are experienced ESL teachers of adults in Australia. Hence, the research questions generated from the purposes of the study as outlined above are the following:

- *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher knowledge for the purposes of teaching adults?*
- *What is the structure of the adult ESL classroom context?*
- *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher practice for the purposes of teaching adults?*

From these questions, we reach the overarching question, which is: *How are experienced ESL teacher knowledge, practice, and the adult classroom context interrelated?*

4.4 The Choice of Research Methods

In order to address the above questions, I did not find it necessary to restrict myself to either quantitative or qualitative methods of inquiry. I have attempted to use the most appropriate methodological tools to answer the questions under study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The motivations for the choice of quantitative and qualitative methods of inquiry are the following:

First, to understand ESL teacher knowledge, we need to understand its composition. Since ESL teacher training programs at the post-secondary level are the major formal sources for equipping teachers with content and pedagogical knowledge, it was thought that these programs are the best reference points for devising a questionnaire on ESL teacher knowledge. (More information on the development of the

questionnaire is provided in the Instrumentation section of this chapter.) The questionnaire consisted of Knowledge of Language (17 variables) and Knowledge of Teaching (23 variables). The purpose was to take a large set of knowledge types and explore a smaller number of latent variables (constituent elements). As a result, the data was subjected to Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using SPSS version 16. The main feature of EFA is that it can be used to explore interrelationships among variables; that is, between knowledge types (Pallant, 2007). Consequently, data relevant to the second research aim, disclosing the interrelationships among the different ESL teacher knowledge types, was revealed.

Next, the downside of quantitative studies is that the relationship among different aspects of teacher knowledge cannot be easily detected using structured studies. Groves et al. (2004), on the short coming of questionnaires, state that surveys "are powerful in producing statistical generalizations to large populations. They are weak in generating rich understanding of the intricate mechanisms that affect human thought and behaviour. Other techniques are preferred for that purpose" (p. 378). Events triggering the activation of particular ESL teacher knowledge-types cannot be easily explained via numbers and a series of pre-structured questions. Qualitative research methods such as observation and interview offer the possibility of extending and clarifying issues raised by quantitative methods. Hence, the third research purpose which is exploration of the interrelationship between knowledge, teaching context, and methodology—a more immediate perspective of ESL teacher knowledge—was thought to be best explored through observation of classroom teaching and in-depth interviews with ESL teachers. It should be mentioned that the qualitative phase was commenced only after data from the quantitative phase was analysed. Hence, the findings from the

quantitative phase served as a backdrop for the qualitative phase. The qualitative data was subjected to a grounded theory method of data analysis.

As a result, the study implemented a mixed methods approach to: (1) quantitatively map experienced ESL teachers' teaching and language knowledge in the context of teaching adults, using a closed-ended questionnaire; and (2) qualitatively analyse experienced ESL teachers' knowledge, document their classroom practices, and explore the association among their knowledge, practice, and the social context of the classroom using observations and retrospective interviews (instrumental case study). Mixed Methods (MM) is defined as "research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or program of inquiry" (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007).

Before proceeding to the rest of the discussion on methodology, epistemology and ontology in the present study, I would like to briefly discuss pragmatism for it has close ties with the MM approach.

4.5 Pragmatism

Pragmatism began in the late 19th century through the work of the American philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce and was developed by William James, John Dewey, George Herbert Mead, and Arthur F. Bentley (Maxcy, 2003). It is a philosophical movement that gives prominence to the practical aspect of propositions. The common ground shared by all pragmatists was (and still is) in their challenge to the notion that scientific inquiry could be carried out through a "single scientific method" (Maxcy, 2003). Pragmatism was developed as a middle position between the two extremes of

post-positivism and constructivism (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Below is a comparison of post-positivism and constructivism in terms of ontology, epistemology, and methodology:

- **Ontology (nature of reality)**: Post-positivists hold the view that there is only one truth which can be understood but with a certain degree of flaw due to humans' inability to comprehend the intricate nature of phenomenon. Constructivists contend that the truth is multiple and socially and mentally constructed as the result of the interactions of human beings and their constructors (Guba & Lincoln, 2004).
- **Epistemology (the relationship between the knower and the known)**: In post-positivism the relationship between the knower and the known is assumed to be of a distant and unbiased nature. Objectivity is the essential principle although the dualism between the knower and the known is refuted. Constructivists see epistemology as the result of the interaction between the researcher and the participant who make an effort to co-construct reality (Guba & Lincoln, 2004).
- **Methodology**: when it comes to methodology, post-positivists are mainly interested in implementing interventionist and de-contextualized designs while constructivists show a more hermeneutical and dialectical purpose in their approach to research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Pragmatism incorporates a realistic approach to research by supporting both opposing views of post-positivism and constructivism. Instead of starting from generating concepts guiding research on very abstract notions such as epistemology and ontology, pragmatists focus on the most concrete dimension of research, the research aims (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). They contend that the research purpose itself establishes the rationale for gathering both qualitative and quantitative data. Hence, it

embraces the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). The choice of qualitative or quantitative or both methods of investigations should be led by the research aims and in turn the research questions (Newman, et al., 2003). I would like to end the discussion on methods with a quote from Trow (1957, p. 35):

> Let us be done with the arguments of "participant observation" *versus* interviewing … and get on with the business of attacking our problems with the widest array of conceptual and methodological tools that we possess and they demand. This does not preclude discussion and debate regarding the relative usefulness of different methods for the study of specific problems or types of problems. But that is very different from the assertion of the general and inherent superiority of one method over another on the basis of some intrinsic qualities it presumably possesses.

4.6 Research Methodology

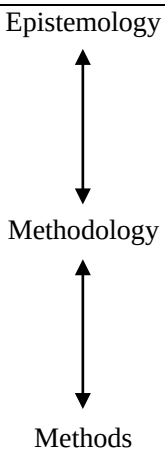
Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009, p. 21) define research methodology as

> a broad approach to scientific inquiry specifying how research questions should be asked and answered. This includes worldview considerations, general preferences for designs, sampling logic, data collection and analytical strategies, guidelines for making inferences, and the criteria for assessing and improving quality.

To design quantitative and qualitative means of investigation in their research methodology, pragmatists adhere to the compatibility thesis claiming that both qualitative and quantitative methods are compatible and not “epistemologically incoherent” (Howe, 1988, p. 10). Reichardt and Rallis (1994; cited in Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009) argue that qualitative (constructivism) and quantitative (post-positivism) methods are compatible in their fundamental values. These are the belief that research is influenced by the theoretical frameworks of the researcher, theories are influenced by the values researchers hold (i.e., experimenter effect), theories or causal relationships cannot be proved, a phenomenon can be explained by different (and sometimes opposing) theories and that our comprehension of social reality is constructed.

Morgan (2007) suggests that, instead of taking a top-down approach using methodology to connect epistemology and ontology to methods and giving more prominence to the abstract level (epistemology and especially ontology) than the mechanical ones (methods), it would be more practical to lay the same degree of emphasis on all levels and see all levels as equally important. More precisely, in practice there is a two-way relationship between methodology and epistemology and methodology and methods. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship more clearly (Morgan, 2007).

Figure 1
Placing Methodology at the Center



Adapted from Morgan (2007)

In pragmatism, methodology is concerned with "constructing a decision calculus regarding the selection of the most coherent, cost-efficient, or effective method or in finding what method or set of methods is best (valuable)". It attempts to answer questions like "What possible difference can these methods in combination and mixture make for the meanings of the research questions raised in the initial plan of the investigation?" (Maxcy, 2003, p. 83).

In the present study, the sequential quantitative (likert-scale questionnaire) and qualitative (observation and interviews) data were complementary. The survey, for

example, was designed to explore the composition of Knowledge of Teaching (KT) and Knowledge of Language (KL) teachers used while teaching and the degree of importance they attributed to KT and KL. A survey of this type, however, cannot generate data which identify the reasons for the quantitative findings. Hence, follow-up observations and interviews were conducted with four experienced ESL teachers to present an in-depth understanding of the findings from the quantitative phase. In other words, I assessed teacher knowledge using a larger-scale study whose findings were converted into observation and interview analyses. Finally, the data from the observation and interview as well as the questionnaire were converted into theory.

The questions posed in the quantitative phase of the study (survey) could only make sense if there was common understanding between myself as researcher and the teachers who responded. Similarly, the qualitative phase of the study (observation, interview, and data analysis) could not have proceeded if the teachers and I had not worked from common understandings. In the same vein, I would not be able to communicate the study to my audience if we did not share a common foundation. What I am trying to raise here is that, in the research that we do whether it is qualitative or quantitative, our work cannot move forward if the element of intersubjectivity (i.e., mutual understanding) is not present (Morgan, 2007). At the same time, I do research because I know I do not share some other common grounds with the participants and the audience which is not the intersubjective domain. Hence, instead of taking either the subjective or objective road, I attempt to consider intersubjectivity in my research by reflectively going forward and backward between those aspects of my research which are shared and those that are not shared (Morgan, 2007).

I am also mindful that research findings cannot be so general as to be applicable to any context or so unique that they cannot be relevant to any context other than the

research site itself (Morgan, 2007). The strength of the present MM study is that the findings from the large sample of teachers from the survey study provide a degree of confidence in making generalizations. On the other hand, the qualitative analysis has been able to provide a rich description of the context which makes clearer "how much of our existing knowledge might be usable in a new set of circumstances, as well as what our warrant is for making any such claims" (Morgan, 2007, p. 72).

4.7 Epistemology and Ontology

Epistemology refers to "the relationship between the knower and known (the researcher and the participant)" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 89) and ontology is "the form and nature of reality" (Guba & Lincoln, 2004, p. 21). In the post-positivist and constructivist paradigms ontology and epistemology form the philosophical domain building up the research methodology and consequently the methods and research questions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The post-positivist domain regards the relationship between the knower and the known as objective and dualistic while constructivists contend that the knower and known are "interactively linked" (Guba & Lincoln, 2004, p. 26). In terms of ontology, post-positivists hold that there is a single reality while constructivists believe that realities are mentally and socially constructed and multiple (Guba & Lincoln, 2004, p. 21). The differences between the two philosophical stances and Kuhn's (1962, 1970, 1996) proposal of paradigm debates gave rise to the incompatibility thesis arguing that, since the underlying philosophies of the paradigms are incompatible with one another, the methodology and hence the methods of inquiry related to each paradigm cannot be mixed in a single study (Guba, 1987). Howe (1988, p. 10) proposed the compatibility thesis using pragmatism as its philosophical foundation to argue "that combining quantitative and qualitative methods

is a good thing and [denying] that such a wedding is epistemologically incorrect". Pragmatism as an alternative paradigm to the post-positivism and constructivism debate accepts that reality exists as a single entity separate from our minds but at the same time argues that we cannot determine reality in its true sense and that there are different ways of looking at the same phenomenon (Cherryholmes, 1992). On the epistemological level, pragmatism refutes the subjective-objective extremes and contends that reality is presented at different levels which can be subjective at one time and objective at another, or a combination of both at the same time (Dewey, 1925). For instance, in the first phase of the present study, I merely intended to understand more about teacher knowledge using a questionnaire and its findings fed into the second phase requiring a highly interactive process to answer more delicate questions relating to individual teacher understandings in particular contexts.

4.8 The Quantitative Phase

What follows is a detailed account of the first phase of the study comprising of description of the teachers, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. The qualitative phase of the study is explained in the Methodology II chapter. I would like to draw your attention as the reader to the changes in the style of writing used for the quantitative and qualitative sections.

4.8.1 Sampling frame.

In the current study purposive sampling provided the opportunity to select those ESL teachers who could provide rich information for the questions under study. Based on Gatbonton's (2008) definition, in the study, ESL teachers of four or more years were considered experienced. The study also looked at those ESL teachers who were teaching

adults in Australia. There are a variety of institutions in Australia that provide ESL education to adults. As it was intended to gather a diverse range of data on teacher knowledge and as there was a time limit on the number of organizations that could be feasibly contacted for the study, it was decided to focus on TAFE colleges, ELICOS, and AMES. There were also attempts to include ESL teachers teaching at neighbourhood houses but due to organisational difficulties, it was decided to exclude them from the study. An important note on the diversity of the sample is that, since the results of the survey were intended to be used in an exploratory factor analysis, it was important to select a sample that was diverse so that the variance on the measured variables would be maximized. This is important especially in factor analysis for, when the sample is overly homogeneous, there is the danger of having low correlations among factors (Fabrigar, MacCallum, Wegener, & Stranhan, 1999). Detailed explanations on the recruitment of the participant teachers and the administration of the survey are presented in the data collection section.

4.8.2 Teachers.

The participants in the study are 108 ESL teachers from all the states and territories in Australia with the majority coming from Victoria, New South Wales and South Australia. The majority of the teachers in the study are females comprising 80.6% of the respondents. Based on the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) 2006, Census of Population and Housing, 4,747 females (80.1%) and 1,174 males (19.8%) teach ESL at both the school and adult sectors. It is important to bear in mind that the census belongs to 2006 while the present study was conducted in 2009. Also, the census made no distinction between ESL teachers teaching in schools and those teaching in the adult sector. However, it can be deduced that the population of ESL teachers teaching adults in 2006 is less than the whole population of ESL teachers. It can be inferred from the

figures that the sample in the present study is not less than 2% of the population (population of ESL teachers in 2006 is 5,921 and the sample size is 108) with a fair balance of males (roughly 2% of the population) and females (roughly 2% of the population). The figures from the ABS census reveal that the ESL teaching industry in Australia tends to be more dominated by females than males (Table 2). The responses to the questionnaire in order of percentage are TAFE (59.3%), ELICOS (26%), and AMES (14.8%) respectively (Table 3).

Table 2
Comparison of the Study Sample and Population of ESL Teachers

	ESL Teachers in the Study		ESL Teachers in Australia (2006 ABS Report)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percentage
Male	21	19.4	1,174	19.8
Female	87	80.6	4,747	80.1
Total	108	100	5,921	100

Table 3
Teaching Contexts of the Participating Teachers

	Frequency	Percent
TAFE	64	59.3
ELICOS	28	25.9
AMES	16	14.8
Total	108	100

Teachers' TESOL qualifications ranged from PhD to Certificate in TESOL with the highest number holding Graduate Diploma (27.8%) and Masters (25.9%) in TESOL or Applied Linguistics, indicating that the participants are highly qualified ESL teachers (Table 4). The average teaching experience of the respondents is approximately 15 years and the average age is 51 (Table 5).

Table 4
Teachers by Teaching Qualifications

	Frequency	Percent
PhD	4	3.7
Masters	28	25.9
Bachelor of Education	5	4.6
Graduate Diploma	30	27.8
Graduate Certificate	16	14.8
Diploma	7	6.5
Certificate	18	16.7
Total	108	100

Table 5
Teachers by Age and Years of Experience

	Valid	Mean	Median	Mode	Minimum	Maximum
Age	108	51.37	53.50	60	30	63
Experience	108	14.64	14.00	10	3	39

That the teachers in the study are both highly experienced and highly qualified suggests that they are likely to present more informed responses. However, it is not clear whether this sample is a true representation of experienced ESL teachers in terms of qualifications. There seems to be no source available to provide statistical information on the qualifications the population of ESL teachers teaching adult learners hold. This means that there is need to shed light on the demographic features of ESL teachers teaching adult language learners in Australia.

4.8.3 Instrumentation.

The intention of the study was to identify the composition of ESL teacher Knowledge of Language and Knowledge of Teaching, which are the main knowledge types emphasized in ESL teacher education programs. Teacher education programs in TESOL and applied linguistics include a mix of knowledge base and practical component. The knowledge base consists of knowledge of language and knowledge of language teaching. In the practical component, student-teachers are expected to

implement the knowledge of language and teaching in the teaching practicum (J. C. Richards, 1996). On contacting TAFE, AMES, and ELICOS, it was understood that ESL teachers are required to hold a Certificate Degree in ESL teaching as a minimum requirement. Therefore, the questionnaire used in the study is based on knowledge base courses (knowledge of language and knowledge of language teaching) offered at teacher education programs throughout Australia at the tertiary level as well as Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA)[3] and Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults (DELTA)[4]. A full outline of the process of questionnaire development is to be found below.

Survey studies are one of the most popular methods of quantitative investigation. They can be used to measure issues as simple as demographic features to more complex characteristics such as attitudes or mental states of individuals (Alreck & Settle, 2004). Questionnaires, one form of survey studies, are suitable for descriptive (where the focus is on measuring the spread of a phenomenon in a population) and analytical (where the purpose is finding an explanation for a given phenomenon in a population) research (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004). Creswell (2005) defines questionnaire as "a form used in a survey design that participants in a study complete and return to the researcher. The participant chooses answers to questions and supplies basic personal or demographic information" (p. 360).

[3] CELTA is a 120-hour introductory course for those with no suitable English language teacher training and little or no teaching experience. The course entails reading, research, peer and experienced teacher observation, practical teaching, and written assignments.

[4] DELTA is a 140-hour diploma course for those teachers with a teaching qualification and a substantial teaching experience. The course entails supervised teaching, directed observation of lessons, reading, research, assignment writing, and a written examination.

Construction of the questionnaire on ESL teacher knowledge began by examining course offerings in teacher education programs at the tertiary level. These programs offer a wide range of courses on content and pedagogical knowledge deemed essential knowledge for TESOL teachers. Since the context of the present study is Australia, the most suitable ESL teacher training programs were thought to be those offered by Australian universities. For this reason, all the 39 Australian university websites available from http://australian-universities.com/list/ were visited. Each university was checked for the availability of TESOL programs in both the Applied Linguistics and Education departments of each university at the Graduate Certificate, Graduate Diploma, and Masters Levels. After downloading the available TESOL courses along with their descriptions, a separate list of the available courses with the university acronym next to each course was made for each level (Graduate Certificate, Graduate Diploma, and Masters). Having checked each and every course description, a key word(s) was put next to each course describing its aims.

Consequently, a table containing the courses and their university acronyms in the same box was designed. The result was three tables (Graduate Certificate, Graduate Diploma, and Masters) each comprising of seven columns. The contents of the columns were content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, learner knowledge, curricular knowledge, language assessment knowledge, sociocultural/political knowledge, and research knowledge. The contents of each column were reviewed and those, which seemed redundant were crossed out. For example, when reviewing the content knowledge column in the Graduate Diploma table, *English grammar for teaching (La Trobe University)*, *English grammar (University of Canberra)*, and *Functional grammar (University of Western Sydney)* were all labelled as *grammar*. In this way, the contents of each column were condensed. The same procedure was applied for every column in

the three tables. When the contents of all columns in the three tables were condensed to the highest degree possible, the same columns across the three tables were compared. The common courses, across the three tables, which represented the same aim were assigned one label and put in a fourth table. The uncommon courses were also given a label and put again in the fourth table. The reduced list from all the three programs was then turned into two styles of questionnaire (i.e., rank order items and likert-scale items).

As mentioned earlier, it seems that some ESL teachers in Australia only take a CELTA and/or a DELTA without undergoing any other tertiary education in TESL. Hence, the knowledge made available in these programs was checked and based on course descriptions it was found that they overlap with courses presented at the tertiary level. For more information on these two courses, please refer to: http://www.cambridgeesol.org.

A point to be emphasized is that when checking Australian teacher education courses at all post-secondary levels, there was great similarity between the programs across the nation. There seems to be agreement at this level as to what is (or perhaps what should be) the knowledge base for ESL teacher work.

Initially two item-types were discussed for the design of the questionnaire; 1) rank order items 2) Likert-scale items. For this purpose, the two questionnaire types were designed, each consisting of seven categorizations (each TESOL teacher knowledge-type was regarded as one category). In order to examine the efficiency of both questionnaire types, both were given to 16 postgraduate research students (14 with a background in TESOL, one with a background in counselling, and one in music education) who all had teaching experience and had previously carried out survey studies themselves (see Buckingham & Saunders, 2004; Czaja & Blair, 2005). Based on

the feedback received, the questionnaire with rank order items was left out and changes were made in the content of the Likert-scale questionnaire. Since the data from the survey was intended to be subjected to EFA, it was attempted to make no presuppositions on the classifications and compositions of teacher knowledge types prior to analysing the data. For this reason, the initial seven classifications of teacher knowledge (i.e., content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, learner knowledge, curricular knowledge, language assessment knowledge, sociocultural/political knowledge, and research knowledge) were abandoned and the whole questionnaire was divided into knowledge of language and knowledge of teaching.

The questions in the questionnaire are clear, simple, specific, short, and each addresses one form of knowledge. The questions do not contain double negatives, recall of dependent items, offensive topics, or emotional words suggesting any direction in responses (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004; Czaja & Blair, 2005; O'Leary, 2005). The advantage of clarity in the questions is that it gave confidence that both the teachers and the researcher had the same understanding of the questions (Alreck & Settle, 2004). Since the researcher was not present at the time teachers were responding, the questions were designed to be clear and self-explanatory (see Czaja & Blair, 2005).

For the purposes of the first phase of the research, it was thought that a questionnaire was the best information gathering tool. However, there was a need to decide on the best method for conducting it (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004). Factors such as time constraints, the budget available, the importance of accurate data entry into SPSS, the geographical spread of the ESL teachers, and the data collection method ESL teachers were more likely to respond to were important in deciding on the data collection method (Czaja & Blair, 2005). Since the target population is widely spread throughout Australia, it was thought that, given the constraints in budget and time,

conducting one-on-one questionnaire response or sending the questionnaires through the mail would be impractical. For this reason, internet-based questionnaires were thought to be the best option. The upside of conducting an e-survey was that it yielded a considerably high response rate compared to traditional methods. Also, the data from the e-survey was directly entered into SPSS making it economical in terms of time spent for data entry as well as leaving a lower degree of error in data entry. The survey also covered a large number of respondents who were geographically dispersed. Compared to mail surveys that take some time for the pre-notice letter and then the questionnaire to be delivered to the respondents, answered, sent back, and delivered to the researcher again, it took a fraction of time to send, respond and return (Czaja & Blair, 2005; Sue & Ritter, 2007). The downside of the e-survey is that it is limited to those who have ready access to the internet. In this way, the potential of response bias was increased (Czaja & Blair, 2005; Sue & Ritter, 2007).

The web survey company used in the present study is http://SurveyMonkey.com which is a popular instrument for conducting online questionnaires. The website provided the possibility of entering single-response and open-ended questions. This took only a few minutes and there were easy-to-follow step-by-step instructions to enter the questions into the software. The software also allowed the researcher to require teachers to answer each question before going to the next one.

The first page of the questionnaire states the purpose and importance of the study, criteria for selecting the participants, the contributions they can make to the study, clear instructions on how to answer the questionnaire, e-mail address and telephone number of the researcher, how respondents can have access to the summary of the results of the survey, the institution sponsoring the research (Monash University), and promise of confidentiality (see Czaja & Blair, 2005; Sue & Ritter, 2007). On the second

page, teachers are asked about their demographic features for the purpose of the analysis of the data and comparison of the demographic distributions of the teachers when reporting the data (Czaja & Blair, 2005).

On the second page, teachers are asked about their demographic features such as gender, age, qualification, years of teaching experience, and current teaching context. The main sections of the questionnaire, pages 3 and 4, are on the two scales of Knowledge of Language (comprising of 17 items) and Knowledge of Teaching (comprising of 23 items) requesting teachers to specify the usefulness of each item on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = extremely useful, 7 = Not useful at all). Teachers were also given the option of ticking "0 = Not familiar with the term" if the item was not known. At the end of each knowledge type questions, they were given a space to write down any knowledge type that they deemed important but not stated in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The questionnaire is relatively short and was not expected to take more than 10 minutes to complete.

4.8.4 Data collection.

To conduct the questionnaire, the explanatory statement was initially e-mailed to the heads of TAFE colleges, ELICOS service providers at universities, and AMES all located in Australia. In the explanatory statement Monash University was introduced as the sponsoring institute for the research study. The aims of the study and the link to the website where teachers could complete the questionnaire, how the respondents were selected, the importance of their participation in the study, e-mail address and phone number of the researcher, and assurance on confidentiality were all clearly stated (see Creswell, 2005; Czaja & Blair, 2005; Sue & Ritter, 2007). The heads of the various institutes were asked to circulate the explanatory statement among the ESL teachers

working at their institutes so that those interested could participate. The heads of the institutes who agreed to circulate the e-mail sent a reply message indicating that they had informed their teaching staff about the research via forwarding the researcher's e-mail to them. In this way, it was possible to track the institutes that had agreed to participate in the study but there was no way to detect who had given the answers to the questions. Near the end of the survey period a reminder was sent to the institutes so that teachers, who had not responded, would be reminded to respond. This strategy increased the response rate (see Czaja & Blair, 2005; Sue & Ritter, 2007).

None of the respondents were under any type of pressure to respond. Also, those who had recorded having fewer than 4 years of teaching experience were excluded from the study. However, as mentioned before, one disadvantage of the e-survey is that only teachers who had access to the internet were able to participate in the study. Although many of the official correspondences in TAFE, ELICOS, and AMES seem to take place via e-mailing and the use of the internet, there may still be many others who either do not have access to the internet or who do not feel comfortable working with the internet even if they do have access. Nevertheless, it is worthy of mention that, as soon as the head of an institute replied to the researcher informing her of notification sent to their teaching staff about the research, a surge of responses within 48 hours could be observed on the Survey Monkey website. This indicates that a large number of people showed interest in responding electronically.

Chapter 5: Findings & Discussions I

5.1 Introduction

The chapter presents the descriptive statistics on the teachers' responses to the questionnaire and exploratory factor analyses by subjecting the data to statistical analyses using SPSS 16.0 for Windows. At the end, discussion on the findings as well as motives for further exploration is presented.

5.2. Importance of KT and KL for the Teachers

The mean score for KT, teachers' Knowledge of Teaching as elicited in the first series of questionnaire items, is 6.24 and KL, teachers' Knowledge of Language as elicited in the second series of the questionnaire items, is 5.39 indicating that the teachers regard KT as more important than KL. A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of KT and KL. The results revealed a significant difference between the means at the $p < 0.0005$ (two-tailed) level (Table 6). The 0.62 Eta squared statistic indicates a large effect size (see Pallant, 2007).

Table 6
Paired Samples T-test for KL and KT

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 KT – KL	.85128	.66799	.06428	.72386	.97870	13.244	107	.000

Tables 7 and 8 provide descriptive statistics for KT and KL (i.e., number of responses to each item, the lowest and highest score given to each item, mean and standard deviation for each item). In KT, means for *teaching reading*, *writing*, *speaking*, *listening*, *pronunciation*, *grammar*, and *vocabulary* were the highest suggesting that the

teachers focus more on the four skills plus grammar and vocabulary. *Teaching English in international contexts*, *e-learning*, and *computer assisted language learning* were deemed the least important for the teachers. Given that the ESL students come from a variety of backgrounds, the teachers' reduced emphasis on teaching English in international contexts suggests that they may not regard it as important to know about education systems in other parts of the world and the potential impact of this on their teaching. In Chapter Seven, we see that the teachers who took part in the qualitative study had their own understanding of the education systems in other countries. Low means for e-learning and computer assisted language learning suggests that the teachers in the study were not involved in the application of computer and the internet in language learning and teaching.

In KL, the teachers considered knowledge of *grammar* and *word meaning* as the most essential and knowledge of *English literature*, *world Englishes*, *bilingualism/multilingualism*, *English as a global language*, and *first language acquisition theories* as the least practical knowledge base for ESL teaching.

The teachers assessed all the KT items as familiar and one fourth of the KL items as unfamiliar. *Pragmatics*, *morphology*, *sociolinguistics*, and *world Englishes* were recorded as unfamiliar 21, 14, 8, and 6 times respectively (see Table 8 the boldfaced zeros). Although teachers regarded some items of the KL as unfamiliar, it is not clear whether they use the knowledge (knowledge of *pragmatics*, *morphology*, *sociolinguistics*, and *world Englishes*) in their teaching and are not familiar with the term or they are not using the knowledge because they are not familiar with the concept. However, perceiving bilingualism/multilingualism and first language acquisition theories as the least practical in language teaching, or not being familiar with sociolinguistics, morphology and pragmatics hints that ESL teachers in Australia are less inclined towards the linguistic and psycholinguistic dimensions of language teaching.

Low scores on world Englishes and English as a global language is also in line with low scores on teaching English in international contexts. This implies that the teachers did not see global issues of the English language as being relevant to their teaching.

Table 7
Descriptive Statistics for KT

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Teaching listening	108	3	7	6.73	.621
Teaching writing	108	5	7	6.72	.544
Teaching speaking	108	3	7	6.72	.624
Teaching reading	108	3	7	6.65	.674
Teaching pronunciation	108	3	7	6.58	.787
Teaching vocabulary	108	4	7	6.53	.742
Teaching grammar	108	3	7	6.52	.803
Communicative Language Teaching	108	3	7	6.52	.870
Lesson planning	108	4	7	6.50	.755
Material Development	108	3	7	6.49	.803
Designing tasks	108	3	7	6.48	.755
Methodology	108	3	7	6.38	.964
Adult Language Learning	108	2	7	6.30	.969
Learner sensitivities & learning styles	108	3	7	6.18	1.003
Language testing	108	3	7	6.07	1.056
Classroom organization	108	2	7	6.06	1.101
Syllabus Design	108	2	7	6.03	1.098
Curriculum evaluation	108	2	7	5.94	1.146
Nonverbal communication in L2 learning	108	2	7	5.92	1.145
Curriculum Design	108	2	7	5.92	1.161
Computer Assisted Language Learning	108	1	7	5.78	1.233
E-learning	108	1	7	5.45	1.363
Teaching English in international contexts	108	1	7	5.10	1.606

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics for KL

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Word Meaning & use	108	3	7	6.52	.837
Grammar	108	4	7	6.49	.837
Literacy	108	1	7	6.07	1.386
Language & culture	108	2	7	6.00	1.160
Phonology	108	1	7	6.00	1.136
Intercultural communication	108	2	7	5.89	1.321
Second language acquisition theories	108	1	7	5.73	1.398
Pragmatics	87	0	7	5.57	1.309
EAP/ESP	108	1	7	5.53	1.488
Morphology	94	0	7	5.40	1.401
Sociolinguistics	100	0	7	5.37	1.587
Discourse analysis	108	1	7	5.23	1.392
First language acquisition theories	108	1	7	4.79	1.762
English as a global language	108	1	7	4.65	1.637
Bilingualism/multilingualism	108	1	7	4.63	1.644
World Englishes	102	0	7	4.29	1.738
English literature	108	1	7	3.60	1.740

5.3 Demographic Features and KL & KT

Two one-way between-groups analysis of covariance was conducted to compare the effectiveness of gender, qualification, and teaching context (independent variables) on the KL and KT scores (dependent variables) separately. The participants' age and years of teaching experience were used as covariates (Tables 9 and 10). The only significant difference was in the mean scores of males and females for KT. This difference was significant at the .01 level ($p = .014$) with partial eta squared of .86 which according to Pallant (2007) is a roughly large size effect. A comparison of the total means for males and females indicates that males scored lower than females in indicating the importance of KT items for classroom teaching (Table 10).

Table 9
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for KL

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	5297.451[a]	25	211.898	949	.545	.340
Intercept	9317.848	1	9317.848	41.741	.000	.476
AGE	.040	1	.040	.000	.989	.000
EXPERIENCE	10.064	1	10.064	.045	.833	.001
GENDER	733.297	1	733.27	3.285	.076	.067
TESOLQualification	434.613	5	86.923	.389	.854	.041
TeachContext	1029.027	3	343.009	1.537	.218	.091
GENDER * TESOLQualification	521.314	2	260.657	1.168	.20	.048
GENDER * TeachContext	438.825	1	438.825	.966	168	.041
TESOLQualification * TeachContext	891.451	7	127.350	.570	.776	.080
GENDER * TESOLQualification * TeachContext	635.556	1	635.556	2.847	.098	.058
Error	10268.549	46	223.229			
Total	660814.000	72				
Corrected Total	15566.000	71				

a. R Squared = .340 (Adjusted R Squared = -.018)

Table 10
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for KT

	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	8129.950[a]	2	254.01	.879	.015	.473
Ntercept	34855.258	1	34858	57.744	.000	.794
AGE	2.384	1	2.384	018	.895	.000
EXPERIENCE	33.569	1	33.569	248	.620	.004
GENDER	851.935	1	851.95	6.300	.014	.086
TESOLQualification	450.802	6	75.134	556	.764	.047
TeachContext	988.871	4	247.28	1.828	.134	.098
GENDER * TESOLQualification	772.614	4	193.14	1.428	.234	.079
GENDER * TeachContext	133.583	2	66.791	.494	.612	.015
TESOLQualification * TeachContext	1495.602	10	149.50	1.106	.371	.142
GENDER * TESOLQualification * TeachContext	435.555	2	217.78	1.610	.207	.046
Error	9060.560	67	135.22			
Total	2092807.000	100				
Corrected Total	17190.510	99				

a. R Squared = .473 (Adjusted R Squared = .221)

5.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Knowledge of Teaching and Knowledge of Language are conceptually distinctive domains of ESL teacher knowledge. Within each, it can be anticipated that particular forms of knowledge will cluster or be used together by particular types of teacher. In order to identify which types of knowledge tend to be used together, exploratory factor analysis has been used. Henson and Roberts (2006, p. 394) describe factor analysis as

> a larger set of *j* variables with a smaller set of *k* latent constructs. It is hoped, generally, that the *k* constructs will explain a good portion of the variance in the original $j \times j$ matrix of associations (e.g., correlation matrix) so that the

> constructs, or factors, can be used to represent the observed variables. These constructs can be used as variables in subsequent analyses.

In exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the researcher is interested in generating theory by exploring the underlying constructs based on actual observations (i.e., a posteriori) (Henson & Roberts, 2006). In order to determine the underlying factors for teachers' knowledge of language and knowledge of teaching, an EFA was conducted on the likert-scale scores from the questionnaire (Field, 2009).

There were a number of decisions to be made both prior to and during the statistical procedure (see Fabrigar, et al., 1999). The first step included deciding on the variables to be measured and the sample size (Fabrigar, et al., 1999). As explained in the methodology chapter, devising the questionnaire was performed with great care to ensure the relevance of the variables to the domain of interest. The sound selection of items is reflected in the reliability coefficients of the KT and KL sections of the questionnaire yielding high levels of Cronbach α coefficients (see section 5.5). Moreover, Fabrigar et al. (1999) suggest comparing the number of extracted factors from the final EFA analysis with the initial variables. The number of extracted factors from the EFA is 4 for KT (containing 23 items) and 3 for KL (containing 17 items) meaning that the number of variables is approximately 5 times the number of extracted factors which is according to Fabrigar et al. (1999) an acceptable ratio.

The size of the sample is another controversial issue discussed in the literature on factor analysis. In terms of the ratio of measured variables to sample size, some recommend a ratio of 3:1 to 6:1 (Cattell, 1978), 10:1 (Everitt, 1975), or 20:1 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). MacCallum et al. (1999) argue that when a minimum of three to four measured variables represent a factor, and the communalities are at least .70, accurate measures can be gained with a sample of 100. Using Kaiser-

Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy in SPSS was the most convenient method for measuring the sufficiency of the sample size in the study. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy for KT is .79 and .82 (see tables 11 and 12) for KL which show that the size of the sample is appropriate for the analysis (Field, 2009). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest using the Bartlett's test to check for multicollinearity among variables especially when the ratio of the cases per variable is fewer than five. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is highly significant for both KT and KL (p. = .000) meaning that there is no multicollinearity among the variables and that the factor analysis is "appropriate" (Field, 2009). The diagonals of the Anti-image Correlation Matrix for both KT and KL were above 0.7 meaning that all items in both KT and KL were retained (See Appendix B) (Field, 2009).

Table 11
KMO and Bartlett's Test for KL

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.826
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	705.335
	Df	136
	Sig.	.000

Table 12
KMO and Bartlett's Test for KT

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.797
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1905.329
	Df	253
	Sig.	.000

The third issue is judgement of the appropriateness of factor analysis (Fabrigar, et al., 1999). The reason for running factor analysis was that, to date, there has been no consensus among the scholars on the composition of ESL teacher knowledge. Hence, the presupposition was that the measured variables under KT and KL can be clustered into groups as the result of the linear function of at least one common variable and one unique factor. In this way, latent variables that make up the composition of teacher

knowledge under KT and KL could be determined (Fabrigar, et al., 1999). Using factor analysis in TESOL studies is not an uncommon approach especially when there is a quest for a sound theory on a given phenomenon (see Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Hsiao, 2002; Loewen et al., 2009; Major & Kim, 1996; Mori, 1999; Nakatani, 2006; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000; Stroller, 1994; Tseng, Dornyei, & Schmitt, 2006; Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari, 2006). Since in the present study, there is little sound theoretical foundation on which to base predictions about the number of factors to be extracted, it was thought that EFA would be the best procedure for it lays no restrictions on the number of factors to be extracted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Last, in regards to the factor extraction method, the teachers' responses on the KT and KL scales were subjected to an EFA using Maximum Likelihood as the factor extraction method. The factorability of KT and KL were examined separately using factor loadings of 0.4 or greater on the orthogonal rotation with no limitation on the number of factors to be extracted (Field, 2009).

5.4.1 Structure of experienced ESL teacher knowledge.

Using Kaiser's criterion, the Total Variance Explained tables for KT and KL indicate that the first four factors in Table 13 and the first three factors in Table 14 have eigenvalues over 1. In KT, the first four components explain %59.2 of the total variance and in KL the first three components explain %51.3 of the total variance. Hence, the analysis yielded four factors for KT and three for KL. Each factor has been given a descriptive name. Tables 15 and 16 reveal the factor loadings for the four factors using orthogonal rotations in KT and KL separately (Field, 2009). The first factor in KT, which is comprised of teaching reading, listening, writing, speaking, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation as well as methodology has been labelled *Knowledge of*

Teaching Methodology. The second factor indicated that curriculum design, syllabus design, curriculum evaluation, and lesson planning had high loadings. As a result, they were named C*urriculum Knowledge*. Learner sensitivities & learning styles, classroom organization, nonverbal communication in L2 learning, language testing, and teaching English in international contexts all make the third factor called *Knowledge of Learners*. Computer assisted language learning, e-learning, material development, designing tasks, and adult language learning which come last are identified as *Knowledge of Resources and Technology*. For KL, English as a global language, world Englishes, bilingualism & multilingualism, intercultural communication, English literature, English for academic purposes & English for specific purposes, discourse analysis, and sociolinguistics create the first factor, *Knowledge of Contextual Factors*. Phonology, morphology, grammar, pragmatics, word meaning & use make the second factor, *Knowledge of Language Components*. The last factor, *Knowledge of Language Learning Theories*, is comprised of. first and second language acquisition theories. Hence, a tentative response to the first research question would be: ESL teacher knowledge consists of knowledge of teaching methodology, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of resources and technology, knowledge of contextual factors, knowledge of language components, and knowledge of language learning theories.

Table 13
Total Variance Explained for KT

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.860	38.522	38.522	7.896	34.330	34.330	4.931	21.439	21.439
2	2.978	12.950	51.471	2.851	12.397	46.727	3.059	13.300	34.738
3	1.724	7.494	58.966	1.592	6.921	53.648	2.865	12.458	47.196
4	1.561	6.786	65.751	1.290	5.610	59.257	2.774	12.061	59.257
5	.934	4.060	69.811						
6	.919	3.996	73.807						
7	.841	3.658	77.465						
8	.727	3.159	80.625						
9	.692	3.008	83.633						
10	.590	2.563	86.196						
11	.575	2.502	88.698						
12	.438	1.906	90.603						
13	.400	1.739	92.342						
14	.333	1.447	93.789						
15	.314	1.365	95.154						
16	.273	1.188	96.342						
17	.200	.871	97.213						
18	.174	.756	97.969						
19	.143	.620	98.589						
20	.118	.511	99.100						
21	.101	.437	99.538						
22	.063	.272	99.810						
23	.044	.190	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Table 14
Total Variance Explained for KL

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Factor	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.578	38.692	38.692	5.939	34.932	34.932	3.868	22.753	22.753
2	2.184	12.846	51.538	1.763	10.369	45.302	2.906	17.093	39.846
3	1.160	6.825	58.362	1.024	6.021	51.323	1.951	11.477	51.323
4	1.093	6.432	64.794						
5	.960	5.645	70.440						
6	.772	4.539	74.979						
7	.734	4.318	79.297						
8	.651	3.827	83.124						
9	.539	3.172	86.296						
10	.469	2.758	89.054						
11	.431	2.533	91.587						
12	.360	2.119	93.707						
13	.283	1.668	95.374						
14	.247	1.452	96.826						
15	.212	1.247	98.073						
16	.184	1.084	99.157						
17	.143	.843	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Table 15
Rotated Factor Matrix[a] for KT

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Teaching reading	.908			
Teaching listening	.906			
Teaching writing	.753			
Teaching speaking	.750			
Teaching vocabulary	.688			
Teaching grammar	.662			
Teaching pronunciation	.651			
Methodology	.401			
CLT				
Curr.Design		.919		
Syllabus design		.866		
Curriculum evaluation		.673	.489	
Lesson planning		.421		
Learner sensitivities & learningstyles			.764	
Classroom organization			.689	
Nonverbal communication in L2 learning			.558	
Language testing			.516	
Teaching English in international contexts			.490	
CALL				.887
E-learning				.864
Designing tasks				.510
Materials		.430		.509
ALL				.408

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table 16
Rotated Factor Matrix[a] for KL

	Factor		
	1	2	3
English as a global language	.866		
WE	.773		
Bilingualism/multilingualism	.659		.497
Intercultural communication	.658		
English literature	.535		
EAP/ESP	.524		
Sociolinguistics	.479	.403	
Language culture	.433		
Discourse analysis	.427		
Literacy			
Phonology		.872	
Morphology		.763	
Grammar		.612	
Word Meaning & use		.536	
Pragmatics		.456	
SLA			.901
First language acquisition theories			.644

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

5.5 Reliability and Construct Validity

Reliability "is the extent to which the scores that are generated from an instrument demonstrate consistency" (Onwuegbuzie, et al., 2000, p. 93). Cronbach α is

an estimate of the internal consistency of the items in a questionnaire (Field, 2009) which was performed on each of the seven subscales to check the construct validity of the questionnaire. Knowledge of Teaching Methodology, Curriculum, Resources, Contextual Factors, Language Components, and Language Learning Theories subscales had high reliabilities, all Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.8$ to 0.83. Knowledge of learners subscale had a lower reliability, Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.74$. The results indicate that the subscales have a high level of internal consistency and measure what they claim to be measuring (see Onwuegbuzie, et al., 2000).

5.6 Summary and Discussion

In this section, the major quantitative findings are discussed in detail.

5.6.1 Knowledge of teaching over knowledge of language?

The ESL teachers in the study gave a significantly higher degree of weight to KT than KL with an emphasis on knowledge of teaching methodology (teaching listening, speaking, writing, reading, grammar, and vocabulary). Knowledge of language components (grammar, word meaning, and phonology) were judged as the most important KL. Clearly, respondents regard knowledge of teaching and especially knowledge of teaching methodology as their primary concern.

To further clarify this finding, I devoted a part of the qualitative data collection, explained in the next chapter, to directly asking teachers about the findings of the quantitative phase. All four teacher participants in the qualitative phase have had many years of teaching experience. Although all teachers agreed that both knowledge types were important, they unanimously emphasized the importance of the know how's of teaching (KT) over the what's and why's of the English language (KL). The teachers

viewed KL as declarative knowledge that one can learn independently whenever the need arises. What is more, since the teachers were all from English speaking backgrounds, using Luke's (one of the teachers) term, they saw KL learning as "re-learning" the knowledge they had acquired throughout the years:

> I'm still not great with the phonemic chart. I'm still learning that. So, you know, that's something that I know I need to do something about. (Ann)[5]

> At my stage of teaching, there are many things that I might still teach for the first time. Because I taught general English for so long and now I'm teaching more EAP [English for Academic Purposes]. Some things are still [new]. I'm learning the language elements or the grammar terminology. (Louise)[6]

> Usually I find that if I'm not good on a language point, I can go to a reference book and look it up. And learn it, re-learn it I think. I'm okay with that. (Luke)[7]

For these teachers, KT is an *ability* that *supports* and *guides* their teaching of KL:

> If you can't impart it [knowledge of language], you might as well not bother [teaching]. You can have knowledge of language as in knowing all the grammar perfectly and all that. I can be the biggest academic on Earth but if I can't walk in there [the classroom] and deliver, I can't teach. (Ann)

> If you don't have the tools to teach something, then you can't teach it. You might have all the knowledge in the world but you might be a terrible teacher. So if you don't have the ability or the approaches to teach clear in your mind and the skills to bring that into the classroom, then all the knowledge you have won't help you, I think. (Luke)

> I think my ability as a teacher is a strength that gets me through perhaps the weakness or the uncertainty in the language element. (Louise)

The excerpts above suggest that the teachers are more concerned with the application of their KL. More precisely, they see it most important to know how to connect language (KL) to pedagogy (KT). This is in line with Shulman's (1999) emphasis on pedagogical content knowledge. However, in terms of KL, given that the

[5] Ann has more than 30 years of experience in teaching French, English, and ESL.

[6] Louise is an ESL teacher, teacher educator, and a PhD candidate in TESOL.

[7] Luke is an ESL teacher, teacher educator, and a student of Masters in applied linguistics.

largest emphasis of the teachers in the quantitative phase was on the knowledge of grammar, knowledge of vocabulary, and knowledge of phonology, for a larger part, the pedagogical content knowledge would most likely mean a combination of grammar, vocabulary, and phonology (i.e., knowledge of language components) plus KT. Hence, a tentative construction of knowledge of language components would be knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and phonology. This is elaborated in Chapter Eight.

The teachers made a distinction between KL as *knowledge* and KT as *skill*. They argued that although KT can come from theories and books (the experts) or discussions with peers (communities of practice), it is situated in practice and developed through experience and reflection:

> So, I think knowledge [KL] can come more easily than ability to teach [KT].... I don't see it [KT] as something that is thought about or talked about. It's something you do. It's a skill. You can discuss things and you can read upon things but until you're actually doing it, and becoming better by doing it, you're not really learning teaching. I've found that the more I teach, the better I become as a teacher. And the more I become aware of the weaknesses that I have and then I can fix them by referring back and getting something and then practicing it in the classroom again. (Luke)

> I should do something about ... my knowledge of the phonemic chart ... so that I would have better knowledge to teach that.... Teaching is a skill not knowledge. Knowing your students, rapport, I mean I would rely a lot on rapport. Because I don't think they'll learn if they don't feel comfortable with the person who is teaching them. That applies for adults as well but it's more so with children. (Ann)

> There's a lot about creating the environment, getting the confidence of the students, getting them to have trust in the teacher and have trust in each other. And that comes from knowledge of teaching. That is not anything to do with the particular language point. I think it's [teaching's] all about creating that trust in the classroom. (Louise)

As a whole, teachers regard both KL and KT as important; nevertheless, due to the special features of KT, it is regarded more important than KL. Teachers develop KT as a result of reflection on their teaching, which serves as a guide for action. It is situated in reflecting on what they are able to do in a given teaching context. KL for them refers more to the ability to describe the rules of language. These are the rules for the language

that, presumably, most of them have been using all their lives, in different situations. In other words, the teachers do not deny the importance of KL. They emphasize that the knowledge can be autonomously gained, developed, and expanded, consistent with their pedagogical needs. What they need support in is the know how's of language teaching and how to combine their KL with KT. For this reason, it can be understood why KT takes more of their attention in classroom teaching than KL.

While the proponents of communicative language teaching have emphasized teaching English literature as a means for intercultural communication (Savignon, 2007), the teachers, in the qualitative and quantitative study, found little merit in teaching English literature. Bill[8], one of the teachers in the qualitative study, who had studied English literature and was following a task-based approach (more on his teaching is provided in Chapter Eight) commented that:

> I'd love to teach it [English literature] but it's not a really practical way of teaching ESL.... teaching ESL through literature is a very roundabout way of doing things.... [Because] it's more the standard or even the technical uses of English that we're looking at here. I do like to give them a sample of what you might call literary writings.... but still it's an academic English course rather than a literary English course. (Bill)

Hence, despite the recommendations of the communicative language teaching proponents, teachers do not find a place for the implementation of literature in ESL teaching firstly because the objectives of ESL courses are not generally in line with these for teaching literature. Second, even in advanced classes, like Bill's class, teaching and learning of English involves providing students the opportunity to learn and practice standard English rather than the English of literature.

[8] Bill has more than 30 years of ESL teaching experience in both Australia and overseas.

Last, the teachers also found little importance in having knowledge of English as a global language (this is discussed further in the qualitative study).

5.6.2 A comparison of the findings with former studies.

There were not exact matches between the clusters of ESL teacher knowledge found in the present study and any from former studies. However, similarities did exist in some respects. Table 17 shows a comparison of the findings with those of previous studies. I should mention that the extracted clusters (categorizations) from the EFA need to be verified in a qualitative study to firstly identify the exact contents of each knowledge type and second to discover the source of each knowledge type. Hence, the findings (categorizations) are open to changes and modifications. Moreover, the naming, definition, and content of each knowledge type is different from one researcher to another. For example, by "Facilitating the Instructional Flow", which seems similar to "Knowledge of Teaching Methodology" in the present study, Gatbonton (1999) is referring to a domain of knowledge which consists of an amalgam of different knowledge types with a stronger weight to practice issues. Hence, here, by similarity, I do not mean exact match but a rather substantive overlap.

Additionally, a given category of teacher knowledge may match with only a part of the findings from the present study or vice versa. For example, Meijer et al.'s (1999) "Knowledge of Purposes" and "Curriculum Knowledge" match only with *Lesson Planning* (Curriculum Knowledge) and *Material Development and Designing Tasks* (Knowledge of Resources) respectively. In another case, Breen et al.'s (2001) "A Concern with the Subject Matter" is about both *language use* and *language usage*. The former is in line with "Knowledge of Language Components" and the latter with "Knowledge of Teaching Methodology". As a result, to make more informed

comparisons, there is a need to first verify the categorizations by other exploration tools, and second to identify the sources of ESL teacher knowledge. Hence, the second step in the study is to use the findings from the EFA as a backdrop to analyse qualitative data on ESL teacher knowledge.

Table 17
A Comparison of the Knowledge Types Found in the Present Study and Former Studies

	Present Study (Knowledge Types)	Former Studies (Knowledge Types)
Knowledge of Teaching	Knowledge of Teaching Methodology: • Teaching Reading • Teaching Writing • Teaching Listening • Teaching Speaking • Teaching Grammar • Teaching Vocabulary	Facilitating the Instructional Flow (Gatbonton, 1999) A Concern with the Subject Matter of Learning—with what is being taught and learned (language usage) (Breen, et al., 2001) Subject Matter Knowledge (Meijer, et al., 1999)
	Curriculum Knowledge: • Curriculum Design • Syllabus Design • Curriculum Evaluation • Lesson Planning	Knowledge of Purposes (Except for *Lesson Planning*) (Meijer, et al., 1999) Knowledge of Instructional Techniques (for *Lesson Planning*) (Meijer, et al., 1999)
	Knowledge of Learners: • Learner Sensitivities & Learning Styles • Classroom Organization • Nonverbal communication in L2 Learning • Language Testing • Teaching English in International Contexts	Factoring Student Contributions, Building Rapport, and Monitoring Student Progress (Gatbonton, 1999) Knowledge of Learners (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000a) Student Knowledge, Knowledge of Student Learning & Understanding (Meijer, et al., 1999)
	Knowledge of Resources: • Computer assisted Language Learning • E-learning • Material Development • Designing Tasks • Adult Language Learning	Curriculum Knowledge (Meijer, et al., 1999)
Knowledge of Language	Knowledge of Contextual Factors: • English as a Global Language • World Englishes • Bilingualism & Multilingualism • Intercultural Communication • English Literature • EAP/ESP • Discourse Analysis • Sociolinguistics	
	Knowledge of Language Components: • Phonology • Morphology • Grammar • Pragmatics • Word Meaning & Use	A Concern with the Subject Matter of Learning—with what is being taught and learned (language use) (Breen, et al., 2001) Content Knowledge (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000a)
	Knowledge of Language Learning Theories: • Second Language Acquisition Theories • First Language Acquisition Theories	A Concern with How the Learner Undertakes the Learning Process (Breen, et al., 2001)

5.6.3 Are the categorizations real?

The findings from the EFA suggest that ESL teacher knowledge is composed of *Knowledge of Teaching Methodology*, *Curriculum Knowledge*, *Knowledge of Learners*, *Knowledge of Resources and Technology*, *Knowledge of Contextual Factors*, *Knowledge of Language Learning Theories*, and *Knowledge of Language Components*. The overarching term for the first four used in the study is *Knowledge of Teaching* and the overarching term used for the last three is *Knowledge of Language*. The Cronbach α reliability coefficients for the factors obtained from the analysis reveal a high degree of consistency and consequently construct-related validity (Field, 2009). This implies that the subscales measure what they claim to be measuring and that the mean scores from each of the seven subscales can be used in further analyses.

The findings are invaluable in helping us construct a theory of ESL teacher knowledge since, to date, the concept has not been investigated in a large-scale study of different teaching contexts. However, to construct a more valid understanding of ESL teacher knowledge and consequently ESL teaching, we need to understand how these categories of teacher knowledge are interrelated in an actual teaching situation.

Moreover, although studies on L2 teacher knowledge have shown that teachers draw upon a variety of knowledge types while teaching, the boundaries between the categories of knowledge are blurred rather than clear-cut. Research suggests that the different types of teacher knowledge seem to be more integrated in nature rather than discrete, not allowing us to draw clear-cut borderlines between them by separating them into distinct categories (Andrews, 1997, 1999, 2003; Borg, 2003a; Elder, 2001; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000a; Mullock, 2006; Sharkey, 2004; Tsui, 2003; Wright & Bolitho, 1993). Johnston and Goettsch (2000a) state that “in reality, these categories [pedagogical

knowledge, content knowledge, and knowledge about the students] are melded together in complex and indeed inextricable ways to produce multifaceted, holistic accounts of, and actions in, language teaching" (p. 461).

Hence, the study is incomplete if ended at this point. While using the categories of knowledge from the quantitative analysis as a backdrop, it would be more illuminating to continue the exploration in a qualitative study to understand the interrelationships between the different categories of teacher knowledge. Additionally, teacher knowledge, as mentioned before, is in close connection with the context (students) and the practice. Therefore, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon, it is important to study it holistically. Thus, the research questions guiding the motive for embarking on a qualitative phase are:

- *What are the sources of experienced ESL teacher knowledge?*
- *What is the structure of the adult ESL teaching context?*
- *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher practice for the purposes of teaching adults?*

It is hoped that by answering the above questions, we are able to find an answer to: *How are experienced ESL teacher knowledge, practice, and classroom context interrelated?*

Chapter 6: Methodology II

6.1 Introduction

The structure of experienced ESL teacher knowledge was the focus of the first phase of the study. The research findings, however, were unable to identify in what manner the key elements of ESL teacher knowledge are interconnected, constructing a unified whole of experienced ESL teacher knowledge. In addition, given that ESL teachers share common teaching and language knowledge, why is the enactment of this knowledge, in the form of practice, so different from one teacher to another? Since teaching is made meaningful in the immediate context of the classroom and the students, how does the context influence teacher knowledge and practice?

Answers to the above questions require a research design investigating ESL teaching in real conditions. Since there is a need to understand the grounds for the diversity in ESL teachers' practice, despite coming from a supposedly shared knowledge repertoire, we need to capture the connection between knowledge and practice by incorporating teachers' views in relation to the practical implementation of these understandings. Studying ESL teaching in real conditions implies the need to consider the immediate contextual conditions of teaching, while remaining open to any possible emergent concepts. Capturing the complexity of ESL teaching, in this manner, calls for different data collection tools and data analysis methods to arrive at an understanding of ESL teaching. For this reason, the pragmatic choice would be a qualitative stance at this phase of the study (see Yin, 2011).

What follows is a presentation of the research methodology used in the second phase of the study. The design, methods, data collection and data analysis procedures are pragmatic decisions made to help in arriving at a better understanding of ESL teaching.

6.2 The Qualitative Research: Case Study

Case studies have been defined in diverse ways reflecting both the backgrounds researchers have come from as well as the myriad of contributions they can make to research (see Creswell, 2007; Gillham, 2000; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009). For the purposes of the present study, I refer to Punch (2005) explaining that

> the case study aims to understand the case in depth, and its natural setting, recognizing its complexity and its context. It also has a holistic focus, aiming to preserve and understand the wholeness and unity of the case. Therefore, the case study is more a strategy than a method.

Cases can be a student, a classroom, and institution, a group of teachers, a proposal, or a program. As Stake (2005, pp. 443-444) states, case study is

> a choice of what is to be studied.... By whatever methods, we choose to study the case.... In any given study, we will concentrate on the one. The time we may spend concentrating our inquiry on the one may be long or short, but while we so concentrate, we are engaged in a case study.

Hence in the present study, the case under investigation is the phenomenon called ESL teaching.

Case studies can be intrinsic (focusing on a peculiar or inordinate case), instrumental (studying an issue using one case), or collective (using a number of cases to study a particular concern) (Stake, 2005). Since ESL teaching can best be understood through ESL teachers, the participants in the study are of "secondary interest" for they are instrumental in our understanding of ESL teaching. In this project, I have attempted to study four participant teachers in depth in connection to their practice, teaching

context of the classroom, and knowledge. The teachers are all experienced ESL teachers. By not limiting the study to one teacher and making an in-depth investigation of the similarities and differences of the teachers, it became possible to come to some preliminary understandings of the structure of ESL teaching (Stake, 2005).

As mentioned above, the findings of the quantitative phase provided a backdrop for investigating teacher knowledge in the qualitative study. The quantitative study also triggered more questions motivating the second study. These quantitative findings and new research questions along with the literature review and the purpose of the study helped me to enter the qualitative phase with a priori specification of the constructs to be studied. However, I remained open to any possible emergent themes (Eisenhardt, 2002; Yin, 2009). Hence, in addition to describing the three constructs of the study, I aimed at exploring the interrelationships between the constructs (Yin, 2009). These constructs were studied in multiple adult education sites (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

The present research is an explanatory multiple-site collective case study focusing on experienced ESL teachers' knowledge, practice and classroom context (three issues of concern) and the interrelationships between these issues.

6.3 Teachers, Lessons, and Students

The selection criteria for research participants was that they should have at least four years of teaching experience, be teaching ESL at the time of data collection, and be working in Neighbourhood Houses, TAFE Colleges, AMES, and ELICOS. Due to procedural difficulties, I was not able to involve teachers at Neighbourhood Houses and AMES in the study. Hence, the only two remaining teaching contexts were TAFE Colleges and ELICOS. In addition to sharing the selection criteria above, the

participants were balanced in terms of the number of males and females (two males and two females), varied extensively in backgrounds (more on this is in the next chapter), and were teaching different levels of students. The sample was both balanced and varied which is a necessary feature of collective case studies (Stake, 2000). The teachers are briefly introduced below along with the lessons and students they were teaching.

1. **Ann:** Ann is a teacher with 32 years of experience in teaching French and English to secondary school students and ESL to adults. Her class was a free of charge Certificate of Spoken and Written English (CSWE) course at the preliminary level comprising of adult Chinese migrants in their 30's to 70's at TAFE. They were educated, most with tertiary qualifications in their own languages, and had worked as professionals in a range of different positions. Based on TAFE's International Second Language Proficiency Rating Scale (ISLPR), they were placed at an elementary level to learn very basic English (i.e., The students were able to recognize the English alphabet and understand basic instructions in the classroom). The students had different purposes for attending the course. Some were retired and others were hoping to develop their English so that they could buy businesses to gain Permanent Residency status in Australia. Some others learned English to be able to speak with their school age children and their teachers. At the time of the observation, they were in the fifteenth week of the twenty-week program. The lesson was on food, containers, and measurements. Some of the words were revisions and others new vocabulary. Ann had also planned for a short practice on using the words in sentences for shopping.

2. **Bill:** Bill has over thirty years of ESL teaching experience. The class I observed was a Certificate IV course in the ESL academic English for further studies program at TAFE. The course was twenty weeks long and at the time of the interview, he had been teaching the class for thirteen weeks. The class consisted of two men and eleven women of Brazilian, Chinese, Iranian, Lebanese, Korean, and Vietnamese backgrounds. The focus of the lesson was giving the students practice to develop the language skills they already had. These skills were discussion, negotiation, problem-solving, and note-taking. Bill attempted to achieve the targeted aims through a series of tasks.
3. **Luke:** Luke has been teaching EFL/ESL for seven years. The group Luke was teaching were doctoral students (with an age range from late 20s to late 50s) from Indonesia who were about to complete their doctoral studies. Their studies were in various fields such as marketing, community co-ops, gender studies, business, and renewable energy. They had been sent to Australia by their universities for a five-week English language program to gain experience and proficiency with English at ELICOS. The main objective of the program was to enable them to present and function at international seminars in their particular field of study. They were also expected to study academic English and research methodology. The students were initially given the college's English language diagnostic test to assess their competency level by examining their four macro-skills and grammar. The test results placed them from beginner to low intermediate levels which was in contradiction to the students' own perception of their English proficiency levels. The lesson taught on the day of my observation was on present

perfect tense and its connection to the simple past tense. Luke's stated purpose was on teaching the mechanics of the present perfect and its connection with the simple past. At the end of the lesson, the students were to write a paragraph of their autobiography using both tenses.

4. **Louise:** Louise has been a teacher of ESL for fourteen years. I observed her writing class in which she aimed to get the students to work on an outline for an argumentative essay. The students were to learn the methods of considering two sides of an argument prior to embarking on one as well as looking at the constituent elements of an argumentative essay. The course was five weeks long with upper-intermediate students taking English courses for further study purposes at ELICOS. The students were six females and six males in their early 20s from China, France, Peru, and The United Arab Emirates. The students, as well as six other upper-intermediate further study classes in the language college, were tested after each genre was taught[9].

6.4 Data Collection

The data collection consisted of a combination of multiple data collection methods: semi-structured pre-observation interview, observation, semi-structured stimulated recall interview, correspondence with teachers, and audio- and video-recordings. The data collection and data analysis started in October 2009 and continued to February 2011.

[9] Teachers' details are outlined in Appendix C.

6.4.1 Pre-observation interviews.

The purpose of this interview was to become familiar with the teachers in terms of their backgrounds and teaching perspectives and goals. It also provided me the opportunity to contextualize the lesson more meaningfully during the non-participant observation, preceding the interview. Hence, the interview questions focused on: the lesson the teacher intended to teach, the teaching goal(s), the connection between the lesson and previous ones, the practice implemented, the materials used, the areas students might experience/not experience difficulty, as well as a background on the teacher's teaching experience, education, and training. The pre-observation interviews ranged from 30 to 45 minutes. The interviews were recorded on a digital audio recorder.

6.4.2 Observation.

Each teacher was observed and video-taped for one classroom teaching session, each for two hours. Two of the teachers (Bill and Ann) nominated a lesson after which they could be immediately available for the stimulated recall interview. Two (Luke and Louise) nominated a late afternoon lesson when they could be available for the stimulated recall interview the next morning.

Creswell (2005) describes observation as "the process of gathering open-ended, firsthand information by observing people and places at a research site" (p. 211). Observation data enables the researcher to tap into what the participants actually do rather than what they claim to do (Bloor & Wood, 2006). The advantage of the observation was that I had the opportunity to make comparisons between what the teachers reported in the pre-observation interviews and what they actually did which were, in my view, initially incompatible. These also added to the themes to be discussed in the next interview.

Patton (2002) and Creswell (2005) refer to some advantages of collecting research data through observation as: recording information as it happens; gaining a good understanding of the research context; relying on a more inductive approach due to accessibility to first-hand data; spotting things that individuals may be unwilling to talk about in interviews; and finally, having the chance to mix one's selective perceptions with those of the interviewees to come up with a more comprehensive picture of the situation.

6.4.2.1 Non-participant observation.

During the observations, I sat at the back of the classroom where I would attract the least attention, taking up the role of a non-participant observer. In this way, I was able to observe the classroom teaching and learning without making changes in its natural patterns as might have occurred had I taken a participant observer role. Remaining as non-participant also provided me the freedom to reflect and take notes as I carefully observed the teacher and the students (see Creswell, 2005; Jones & Somkeh, 2005; Shipman, 1997). Although some believe that in non-participant observation the researcher loses the opportunity to gain a deeper insight into what is going on through involvement in the activities (Creswell, 2005; Shipman, 1997), for the reasons mentioned above, non-participant observation, in general, is more popular in education research (Payne & Payne, 2004).

6.4.2.2 Video recording.

All the observations were directly recorded from a digital camcorder to an adjacent laptop through a connecting wire. The rationale for using video recording technique was to catch ongoing events in their fullest complexity since video recording functions as an additional memory allowing for continuous referrals and analyses

(Corsaro, 1982). During data collection, I arranged the camera on a tripod in a location that had the least possible impact on the physical arrangements of the classroom. Jones and Somekh (2005) state that when the video camera is placed on a tripod, it can capture a wider angle than when mobile. Thus, less activity is screened out and the bias effect of videoing from the perspective of the researcher is reduced. Second, since the camera is still, video-recording becomes less obtrusive and does not attract the attention of the participants.

An advantage of video recording is that I was able to encourage the teachers to contribute to the data analysis by showing them concrete data from their classroom teaching in the stimulated recall interview (Payne & Payne, 2004). Since the video recordings produced denser and more accurate data on the teaching of the teachers, they were used as a reference to validate the analysis of the data obtained through the interviews. In addition, when examining data from the video recordings, I was able to repeatedly go over the recordings to make more detailed and careful analyses of the observation data.

To reduce the hindering effect of video recording, before the actual data collection phase, I made efforts to become acquainted with the participants in the study, both students and teachers, as much as possible. I also attempted to explain the aims and purposes of the study and video recording to reduce the anxiety of both teachers and students (Corsaro, 1982).

A technical point worthy of mention is that since the lessons were two hours long, had I recorded the lessons directly on a film specifically used inside camcorders, I would have been obliged to change the film after 60 or 90 minutes. This would have caused the loss of some of the data and possibly attracted attention of the students and

the teachers by interrupting the normal pattern of the teaching and learning activity. To handle this issue, I directly connected the camcorder, located on a tripod, to a laptop through a wire. In this way, the recording could continue for hours without worrying about changing films. However, prior to making the decision to directly save videos on the computer, I took care to ensure that the hard drive of the laptop had sufficient capacity.

6.4.3 Stimulated recall interview.

Transcriptions of observations per se without the inclusion of the stories, and voices of the teachers are of limited value. For this reason, the teachers were asked their thoughts at the time of teaching in a stimulated recall interview following the observation. The interview started with general descriptive questions about the teachers' views on their teaching. This was important in illuminating the important parts of teaching from the teachers' perspectives. Later, I asked more detailed questions on the portions of the observation or issues not addressed by the teachers to get a more in-depth view on the teachers' thinking (Shekedi, 2005).

During the stimulated recall, I paused the video recording every few minutes and asked the teachers to articulate their thoughts at the time. More on the interview questions is presented in a separate section in the following. Alternatively, the teachers could pause the video when they had something to say about the part they were watching (see Shekedi, 2005). In a study on teacher-librarians, Henderson and Tallman (Henderson & Tallman, 2006, p. 79) found that, when both the teacher and researcher pause the video at the right time, there is a "greater likelihood of obtaining a more thorough recall of what the participants had been thinking".

Gass and Mackey (Gass & Mackey, 2000) describe stimulated recall as a method

> used to prompt participants to recall thoughts they had while performing a task or participating in an event. It is assumed that some tangible (perhaps visual or aural) reminder of an event will stimulate recall of the mental processes in operation during the event itself. (p. 17)

When it is not feasible for the researcher to spend long hours in the field observing the participants, as in many ethnographic studies, it is best to directly ask participants about their perspectives, ideas, and generally their thoughts at the time they are interacting in the field (Shekedi, 2005). Teachers' thoughts about the decisions they make, what they do in the classroom, and the way they see the complex structure of the classroom cannot be identified even with the help of the most carefully designed observation checklists (Wojcik, 1993). The stimulated recall methodology provides access to teachers' interactive cognitions, which are in more direct contact with concurrent classroom situations rather than knowledge and beliefs that are more stable and less dynamic (Schepens, Aelterman, & Van Keer, 2007). On the importance of the stimulated recall in TESOL research, Gass and Mackey (2000) state that the method is a valid means for obtaining information about one's thoughts during an event because people's feelings and ideas during a social interaction can be opened up whereas they may not be uncovered during a simple observation. Additionally, the data collected in interviews that merely rely on memory without the help of any visual or aural prompts cannot be a valid source of information. The most important reason for using stimulated recall in the study was to give the teachers the voice "to bring their own sense-making process to the discussions in order to co-construct a "rich" descriptive picture of their classroom practices" (Bishop, 2005, p. 116).

Although Stough (2001) states that the use of video recording during observation sessions makes it possible for teachers to clearly remember their thought processes while teaching even if interviewed some time after the observation, the teachers were interviewed as soon as possible after each observation. The interviews with Ann and Bill

took place immediately after the observation; for Luke and Louise the interviews were held on the next morning of a late afternoon observation. In this way, the possibility of having more accurate memory of their thought processes, impressions, and perspectives was increased. If the interviews had taken place some time after the observation, there would have been more chance of the teachers' reports being distorted by their past memories of some other events (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Henderson & Tallman, 2006).

The interviews continued for 3.5 hours to 4.5 hours. They took place at a time when the teachers were free from any work obligations, giving them enough time and peace of mind to be interviewed without any interruptions. The verbal retrospections were digitally audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. The verbatim transcriptions served as raw data for subsequent codification and analysis.

6.4.4 Further research issues.

6.4.4.1 Ethical considerations.

Getting informed consent from research participants is the first ethical consideration widely emphasized. Informed consent means that the participants should be informed well enough about the research purpose based upon which they would make the decision to consent (or not) to collaborate in the study. In this case, disclosing too much of the research purposes has the danger of leading the teachers into giving particular answers or practice certain practice. On the other hand, keeping the purposes of the research too covert would have misled them into giving consent based on false information (Kvale, 1996). Being aware of this issue, I briefly and clearly explained the focus of the study to be an investigation of real teaching practices of experienced ESL teachers with no focus on right and wrong teaching. Instead, I attempted to explain in detail the data collection procedures.

In the writing of the research, I have kept the identities of the teachers, the students, and the institutes confidential. The teachers have been given pseudonyms of their choice. In the case of other people in the study (i.e., the students and other teachers) I have given them names of my choice. The research findings are also reported with the teachers' consent (Kvale, 1996).

I am also aware that in any observation, especially this one, in which video-recording was implemented, since the participants may worry about being judged, they may behave differently from when they are not being observed. For this reason, I took advantage of every opportunity to communicate with the teachers to develop a relaxed relationship. The interactions, in my opinion, were beneficial in making the teachers feel comfortable enough not to see a need to change their normal teaching (Patton, 2002). Bloor and Wood (2006) also state that establishing a good relationship with the participants is a key issue in observations. The stronger the relationship, the more participants trust the researcher and will perform more authentically in the context.

6.4.4.2 Questions.

Although prior to data collection the teachers had become thoroughly familiar with the procedures of the observation and interviews, I devoted the beginning of each interview to providing brief but clear explanations of the interview purposes and the type and scope of the questions the teachers would be asked. Also, prior to closing the interviews, I directly stated the end of the interview by saying, "*I think that is all I would like to ask. Is there anything you would like to further talk about or ask at this point?*" Since in most of the interviews the teachers had shared their life stories and personal experiences, I asked about their feelings in the following way: "*I really enjoyed talking*

with you. The chat was very helpful in opening my eyes to things I may not have paid attention to before. How are you feeling about the interview?" (see Kvale, 1996).

At the end of the interviews, the teachers were pleasantly surprised about how much they shared. Holstein and Gubrium (2004) state that "if the interviewer asks questions properly and the interview situation is propitious, the respondent will automatically convey the desired information" (p. 141). The teachers did not ask for any part of the interviews to be excluded from the study, indicating that they were happy with what they had said.

The interview questions were of three main types implemented in both the pre- and post-observation interviews. The first was a list of themes derived from the quantitative investigation of experienced ESL teacher knowledge. Another set of themes were the findings from interviews with one teacher (case), which fed into more investigation of a tentative theme or understanding with another (Eisenhardt, 2002; Kvale, 1996). The last were themes arising from the literature review. These were carefully blended into the interviews. Some examples of the questions are the following:

- *Can you tell me about your teaching experience in Japan?*
- *Can you tell me more about your love of words?*
- *Could you clarify what you mean by "teacher as a facilitator"?*
- *What is the role of the students in language learning?*
- *You mentioned that teachers develop knowledge of language through consulting books. Can't knowledge of teaching be developed in the same way?*

A comprehensive list of interview questions is provided in Kvale (1996).

The second type of questions were of stimulated recall type. My understandings of the teachers' teaching philosophy, methodology, understanding of themselves and their students, and my own understanding of the act of teaching and learning influenced the points at which I stopped the videos to ask teachers about their thought processes. These understandings of the teachers (at the time of the stimulated recall interview) were constructed through interactions prior to data collection, the pre-observation interview, and observation of their classroom teaching. The observation notes were also another source of reference for probing teachers' thoughts at different points in the video. To counter balance the influence of probing into ESL teaching from my lens, the teachers also paused the videos to express their viewpoints as well (Holstein & Gubrium, 2004). Some examples of the questions asked are the following:

- *Could you tell me what you were thinking about at this point?*
- *How did you feel here?*
- *What's coming to your mind?*
- *Why did you pause here?*

When teachers talked (in the recalling part of the interview), I listened carefully and did not attempt to push them into remembering something for I thought this might coerce them to answer as I seemed to expect them to do. Instead of giving feedback to teachers' responses, I tried to remain quiet but warm and friendly at the same time. Giving feedback is thought to interfere with the teachers' thoughts and direct them in a particular direction (see Gass & Mackey, 2000).

There were times in the interviews when the thought processes directed the teachers' attention to their life histories and experiences. At other times, I would explore certain themes, in the form of questions, that I had saved for the end of the interview. In

such instances, through the already established connection and rapport with the teachers, I sequenced questions in a way to gain rich information concerning a given subject. In other words, my interactions in interviews with the teachers gradually moved "through stages ... culminating in" very comfortable "exchanges" (Hermanowicz, 2002).

6.4.4.3 Initial analyses.

Although through the video recordings I was able to endlessly review the classroom teachings after the observations (and I did), I still kept field notes of the naturally occurring data during the observations. I recorded my notes, reflections, ideas, and analyses of the field (Bloor & Wood, 2006). Documenting such reflections ultimately aided the data analysis procedure, which came after the data collection phase (Payne & Payne, 2004). What is more, the notes served as themes in the following interview to examine my interpretations.

At the first opportunity after each interview, I wrote down my ongoing reflections and tentative findings in a logbook containing the field notes. These reflections also came from listening to the recorded interviews and watching the videos of the classroom teachings. Eisenhardt (2002) states that "[o]verlapping data analysis with data collection not only gives the researcher a head start in analysis but, more importantly, allows researchers to take advantage of flexible data collection" (p. 16). In this way, while keeping the chief themes of the study constant, I adjusted and added new themes for further exploration. This helped to "probe emergent themes [and] or take advantage of special opportunities ... present in a given situation" (Eisenhardt, 2002, p. 16).

6.5 Data Analysis

6.5.1 Audio data analysis.

The data analysis was not limited to any particular phase of the study. It started from the beginning of the data collection and continued up to the very last day of writing the thesis. However, handling the data after transcription took the data analysis to a more focused level. Due to the complexity of the data, it was not possible to limit the analysis to one particular method. Connecting different methods has made it possible to tailor the analysis to the specific features of the data in the study (Kvale, 1996).

Since an objective of the present qualitative study was further exploration and examination of the findings from the quantitative phase, the initial coding of the transcriptions started from fitting the investigated items from the questionnaire to the data. Hence, data analysis started from implementing the sub-knowledge types (i.e., teaching grammar, language testing, etc.) from the earlier study as a framework for the first level coding. Although a priori method of coding was implemented, it was important to remain open to emergent codes (Miles & Huberman, 1994) because teacher knowledge was only one construct investigated in the study. Thus, through careful and repeated readings, the data was broken down into labels from the pre-determined framework (on teacher knowledge) and emerging in-vivo codes. This method of coding was “partway between a priori and inductive approaches” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 61). The process of initial coding was accompanied by two other activities, which helped make sense of the data and move to the next level of codification. One was constantly making comparisons between different pieces of the data. The other entailed asking myself questions about what each piece of data represented (Charmaz, 2007).

Next, I used the initial codes that made "the most analytic sense" to group the data into more general categories (Charmaz, 2007, p. 57). The result was a set of general categories whose connections with their sub-categories were identified. In focused coding (the present stage), the researcher goes through the initially coded data and attempts "to determine the adequacy of ... codes" by making "decisions about which initial codes make the most analytical sense to categorize ... data" (Charmaz, 2007, pp. 57-58). The EFA clustered the smaller 44 teacher knowledge variables into 7 general latent variables. The qualitative focused coding also condensed the smaller categories into more general ones. Hence, at this stage, I was able to compare the emergent latent variables from the EFA with those qualitative categories relevant to teacher knowledge. The other emergent categories and their subcategories were also compared with the relevant literature and theories.

Once the categories were identified, I attempted to delve into a deeper level of analysis by "looking [at the data] not through the language, but at language itself". Hence, the focus was on aspects of language such as "the use of pronouns to convey positioning and the use of metaphor in description of others" (Brown, 2003b, p. 78).

At the last level of coding, I looked for connections between the significant categories in how they were able to construct a model of the concepts under investigation (Charmaz, 2007). The model was constantly refined through the process of within-case and cross-case comparisons. The final model was also compared with the relevant literature and theories.

6.5.2 Video data coding and analysis.

Video data, widely used in ethnographic approaches, is generally approached through conversation analysis methods (Flick, 2006). However, since the focus of the

present study is different to many ethnographic studies, a different analytic procedure has been adopted. The video data was used to provide accounts of the teachers' actual teaching. It was used as a stimulant aiding the teachers to recall their thought processes. The video was also used to compare the teachers' methodology with the literature and their accounts of their teaching. For example, Louise's lesson was a process approach to writing argumentative essays. In the analysis of the video data, I studied the different stages of her teaching by constantly comparing the stages with the literature and her stated thoughts in relation to each stage. Through this method of analysis, I initially found discrepancies between teachers' accounts of their teachings and what they actually did. However, a closer examination of the data suggested a different view of their ESL teaching.

6.6. Triangulation

Triangulation for the qualitative part of the study was done through a combination of observations, interviews and field note analyses, and video recordings. For this reason, I combined observation and video recording with the interview component (see Payne & Payne, 2004). Combining observations with interviews means that, initially, I observed what teachers did and later through interviews I attempted to discover why they did so (see Gomm, 2008). In this way, I have been able to use the strengths of each data collection tool to gain a more complete picture of the phenomenon under study. However, I am aware that interviews only uncover "perceptions" of the informants and "not truths" about the phenomenon under study (Patton, 2002, p. 321). Observations, also, may have influenced the natural classroom teaching of the teachers (Patton, 2002).

6.7. Some Reflections

I have always been interested in understanding the manner through which human beings, including myself, perceive and react to the world around us. My background in applied linguistics and my childhood and teenage years, during which I devoured readings on the mind, led me to look for how *in the head factors* interacted with *in the world factors.* I understood that with the help of attentional resources, the salient cognitive cues in the social context help individuals process information. I viewed cognitive factors of primary and social factors of secondary importance. I perceived cognitive resources as the filter through which the relevant information in the social context is detected and taken in for further mental processing. Once this information is processed, it is connected to one's emotional and psychological sides also residing in the mind. Since all these happen in extremely small fractions of a second, we assume that all processes occur simultaneously.

Although I do not refute such positions, my research journey revealed to me a very different side of human understanding. In my analyses of the qualitative data, I would come across sections that did not fit into any category of which I was aware. My interpretations of those sections of data always seemed as if something had been left unexplained. These were in relation to teachers' talk about themselves and their students. In this way, a new theme, i.e. identity, emerged. The emergence of the theme was not simple, however. I had always viewed discussions of identity as being out of my comfort zone, being rather romantic and unrealistic. Although I made every attempt to find other ways to interpret the data, it seemed as if the data had its own voice and would not surrender to my attempts to force it into a particular direction. This was clearly an experience of hearing and consequently listening to the voice of the data; an experience

of realizing how the data interacted with the world view of the researcher. It helped me realize that identity is a higher-level tool for perceiving the world around us.

What follows is the first qualitative chapter of the study presenting the literature review, data, analysis, and discussions on ESL teacher identity, the emergent theme discussed above. There, I discuss the interconnections between the Self and professional identity, how teacher identity evolves through membership in the communities of practice and is represented in the form of teacher roles, and the teachers' construction of the student-Other.

Chapter 7: ESL Teacher Identity

7.1 Introduction

Observing what I understood to be inconsistencies between teachers' theoretical and actual teaching approaches served as the impetus for the present study. I was, and still am, interested in the interconnections between experienced ESL teachers' thinking and practice. My teaching experience and the literature on ESL and mainstream teachers led me to view ESL teacher practice, knowledge, and the social context of the classroom as being closely interwoven and germane to the aims of the study. On the discussion of the classroom context, I reasoned that the classroom is a platform for the manifestation of teacher knowledge.

In my attempt to understand how this platform operates, I found that, during the interviews and later correspondence, teachers would talk about themselves making constant shifts from personal to professional identities and vice versa. They would talk about their various teaching roles. They would directly connect their thinking, teaching, and perceptions of their students to their past teaching experiences, training, field of study, personal interests, experiences of being students, and personal life histories. When intending to increase the authority of their thinking, they would take a step back and compare their thoughts and actions with the thoughts and actions of other (ESL) teachers while simultaneously making references to the traits which they perceived their group of students possessed. They would attribute features to the whole class as a single group or refer to a sub-group within that group such as the Chinese, the stronger ones, the passive ones, and so on. References to individual students served as a verification of their views about a given student group. The teachers perceived themselves as individuals with both personal and professional lives who also shared some features with a larger group of

people (i.e., ESL teachers, Western culture). They perceived their students as groups whose individual members served as examples legitimizing the teachers' definition of the group they were teaching (i.e., students, non-Western, Chinese, the Peruvian). That is, if their existing understanding of Chinese student identity was hard-working, then individual students who demonstrated this characteristic were seen to exemplify this group characteristic. Students who did not do so were not seen to challenge the group identity, but rather regarded as 'different' to the teacher understood norm of group behaviour.

These observations seemed primarily to be about teachers' perceptions of their own and their students' identities. In view of this, I felt the need to explore understandings of ESL teacher identity, as a complimentary next step to explore in more detail the main focus of the study: ESL teaching. Thus, for the present, I wish merely to confine myself explicitly to understanding the structure of experienced ESL teacher identity. At this point, I am tempted to ask: *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher identity? How do teachers construct their students' identities? What is the structure of the ESL classroom context?*[10]

To answer the questions, I blend relevant theories with teachers' accounts of their experiences and thinking. I draw from contextual, cultural, social, and historic factors, which contribute to the teachers' perceptions of themselves and their students. Thus, the present chapter looks at the identity of the four ESL teachers in the qualitative phase of the study as "an important analytic tool for understanding" (Gee, 2000, p. 99) their perception of themselves and their work (Brown, 2003a). Prior to that, I focus on

[10] At this point, the questions are used as guides to assist in exploration of the overarching research question—*How are ESL teacher knowledge, practice, and the classroom context interrelated?*—raised at the end of Chapter 5.

the notion of Self for this is a requisite to understanding of the teachers' professional identities. Rodgers and Scott (2008) define Self as elusive and explicable, dynamically interacting with the outside world and evolving along with professional identity whose construction requires both a person (i.e., teacher) and an external context (i.e., students) (Beijaard, et al., 2004). Within this external context, teacher identity takes up different roles appropriate for a teacher to function effectively in the classroom (Goffman, 1959). Since teacher identity and consequently their roles are in relation to their students, their construction of the Other—their students—depicts their understanding of themselves (Brown, 2003a). This understanding, however, is accompanied by stereotyping (Jenkins, 2004).

The following is a compilation of teachers' accounts of their thinking about themselves and their students as a result of direct interview questions or topics arising during the pre-observation and stimulated recall interviews as well as later correspondences with the teachers. This is preceded by discussion of relevant theories of identity. The aim, here, is to describe and discuss key issues in relation to experienced ESL teacher identity. Throughout this chapter, my purpose has been to adopt those theories that best shed light on the findings of the present study. Nevertheless, I acknowledge that the lens through which I view the data and in turn the theories I have adopted to describe them, are biased for they represent a framework for generating knowledge based on my own world view.

7.2 The Notion of Self

Teaching is a profession that demands active involvement of the teacher as a whole person. Johnson (1992) and Woods (1996) argue the importance of teachers' whole Selves impacting their methodology. Pajak and Blase (1989) contend that

teachers' personal lives and identity have direct influences on their professional life. Ellis (2004) also found that multilingual ESL teachers' personal experiences of language learning informed their teaching whereas monolingual ESL teachers lacked such rich personal resources to draw from while teaching. Nias (1989a) noticed that, in their talk about their profession, teachers talked about themselves. In short, she advanced that "the self is a crucial element in the way teachers themselves construe the nature of their job" (1989a, p. 13).

A problem with Self is that there are an overwhelming number of terms and definitions referring to this notion. Leary (2004) identifies five ways the notion of Self is addressed in behavioural and social sciences. These are Self as: person, personality, knower, known, and agent. Self-as-known is the Self that is of interest in the present study. By this I mean, the "me-Self, or Self-as-object—the perceptions, thoughts, beliefs, evaluations and feelings people have about themselves ... [or] the content of people's thoughts about themselves" (Leary, 2004, p. 2). As Kelchtermans and Vandenberghe (1994, p. 46) put it: "to understand teachers' professional behaviour adequately one needs a thorough analysis of the way teachers see themselves as teachers". The notion of Self is defined in this study as "an organized representation of our theories, attitudes, and beliefs about ourselves" (Beijaard, et al., 2004, p. 108).

Taylor (2006) argues that the Self cannot be studied irrespective of its social surroundings since it is the meanings we attribute to the significant things around us that construct our sense of self. These meanings are constituted through the reflective process of the I-self (the knower) on the object-self (the known) through the medium of language. Mead (1934) conceptualized Self as the product of interactional processes between an individual and others. In this process a part of Self, which Mead calls "me", is constructed by taking in the attitudes of others and reorganizing them in the mind

serving as shared objective frames of reference for individuals and members of the community to act upon. They are what we remember, situated in memory, restricted to a particular situation, and the director of our actions. When we become aware of those shaped attitudes, react against/respond to their occurrences, or reflect on them, the "I" is functioning. Accordingly, the "I" is the subject, thinker, and knower; and the "me" is the object, social, known, and organized set of attitudes of others. Therefore, reflection is a key component in understanding the Self. That is, without reflection, it would be impossible to talk about the Self (Antonek, McCormick, & Donato, 1997).

According to Mead, the "I" and the "me" together constitute the Self. The "me", which carries the accumulated attitudes of others, becomes a basis for "I" to act upon and react to. The action of the "I", in turn, becomes experience and a part of the "me" once it is enacted. We can say that the act of the "I" shapes the "me" or that the "I" is a part of the experiential "me". For the "I" to take action, it needs to be a part of the experiential "me", since "I" responds to social situations based on the repertoire of experience within "me". However, this response is novel and unknown until it is acted out (Mead, 1934). Goffman (1959) similarly uses the terms ‘performer’ ("I") and ‘audience’ ("me"): “the performer comes to be his own audience; he comes to be performer and observer of the same show” (p. 86).

Through constant interactions with different Others, one may take up a variety of attitudes implying the simultaneous existence of multiple "me"s and "I"s, which are amenable to change over time (Mead, 1934). Sidorkin (1999) discusses the existence of multiple and contradictory selves and the necessity for their recognition as “the condition for understanding the self” (p. 43). He further argues that these selves arise at different points in time whose interactions in the social contexts create unique, novel, and unpredicted mergers of Self with the context. In the same vein, Goffman (1959)

theorized that individuals have multiple selves that each take on a different role, executed at its own time and situation. More precisely, within each "presented" Self, lies an inner hidden Self directing and managing the social Self through the different roles it plays (Goffman, 1959). Gee and Crawford (1998) state that in different settings, we take on different identities. What gives our multiple selves a better chorus of voices is the harmony in the relationships between the varied identities. Gee (1999) defines Self—personal identity—as "[B]eing recognized as a certain 'kind of person' in a given context" (p. 99). He explains that individuals have multiple Selves (identities) that are connected "to their performances in society" (p. 99). This core identity refers to "whatever continuous and relatively 'fixed' sense of self underlies our contextually shifting multiple identities" (Gee, 2001, p. 39).

7.2.1 The teachers.

A brief outline of each teacher's work history is presented below highlighting the key points shaping their Selves as experienced teachers of the English language. This is followed by discussion of the ways in which these relate to the literature referred to in the previous section of this chapter.

7.2.1.1 Ann.

Starting her profession as a secondary school French teacher 32 years ago, Ann is now in her 50s. She credits the prevailing culture at the time as the reason for her initial entry into teaching: "In my day girls tended to become nurses, secretaries or teachers". She also considers her love for children and her mother's encouragement as other grounds for becoming a teacher. Another way of putting it would be to say that on becoming a teacher, Ann took on the construction that her mother and the social context of the time had of her as a girl. She is not against it; in fact, she embraces the roles girls

were assumed to take to the extent that she defines the teaching profession as her personal interest.

Having decided to become a primary school teacher, Ann was offered a scholarship to enter the university where she completed a Bachelor's degree in education as well as a postgraduate diploma in LOTE. Since she had found French an interesting course in year seven, she continued learning, and eventually teaching, the language. She describes herself as a person with great interest in learning languages.

> I've had millions of reasons to start learning. I like languages. I love learning verbs and doing grammar. But that's not the case with every student. I just love learning it.... I had an intrinsic motivation, you know. I didn't need some extrinsic reason to be motivated.

Given this, I would suggest that Ann sees a problem with the language learning purposes of her students, more of which we will see in the following. She regards *herself* as having an intrinsic motivation for language learning, while *her students* are extrinsically motivated. Put differently, Ann seems to be comparing an ideal language learner—herself—with the students she teaches. In my later communications with Ann, I learnt that she had started taking Mandarin lessons, which she found difficult but exciting. The pseudonym *Ann* was given to her in the Mandarin class.

Having taught French for some years, Ann went on to teach English from years seven to ten. She explains her interest in the English language and her competence in English as the reasons for making the shift. After long years of working as an English teacher, Ann started teaching ESL at TAFE on a casual basis and found herself intrigued by the new teaching environment. Being drawn to the ESL teaching environment and feeling unhappy with the secondary school where she was teaching, after thirty years of teaching French and English in South Australia and Victoria, Ann made another career change and started teaching ESL. She explained that her choice to teach ESL was "a

flow-on from English". Ann's reasons for making the first career change (from teaching French to teaching English) seem to have been driven by personal interest and perception of her competence while her reasons for teaching ESL were of a different nature; that is, dissatisfaction with her workplace environment acted as an external drive for change.

Ann sees her Self being directly connected to her teaching identity by giving shape and meaning to it. She also deems it essential for practice to support the Self. Hence, to Ann, methodology both influences and is influenced by the Self. It is rejected or abandoned if it does not support the Self. She also talked about a search for those methodologies that are in line with the Self:

> You have to teach in a way that suits you, your personality. You can't do it if it doesn't suit you. You have to find your own style; also one that works, of course. If teachers are not comfortable with what they're doing themselves, they're not going to get the message across as effectively.

There is a point worthy of mention. As we will see in Ann's interviews, she constantly voiced her distress over the behaviour of her students. Nonetheless, she was positive in expressing the fascination she felt for teaching, describing herself as a casual and animated person who likes to have fun with her students and who enjoys teaching.

> I'm a lot casual normally.... I tend to be animated.... We had a big laugh. I draw and they laugh. I leap around then I perform.... I do a lot of drawing, funny drawing. I do a lot of like acting, mime, gesture. I rely a lot on that.... So, I use body language a lot to help get the message across. I guess that's a bit me, too.... They [the students] have told me that even though I don't speak Mandarin, I make up for it because I'm very animated.... They have given that feedback in their own language; and it's come back to me.

7.2.1.2 Bill.

Bill, now in his sixties, has been teaching for over thirty years. His background in teaching goes back to the time he attended primary teachers' college for two years

following which he taught at a primary school for a year. His first ELT experience was in Papua New Guinea, teaching the local soldiers when serving in the Australian army.

> And that [teaching English to local soldiers] was my first experience of ESL. I hadn't been trained for it at all. The army works on the principal if you can teach one thing, you can teach another thing. We're not less the army.

He then graduated from LaTrobe University with a bachelor's degree in English literature. Bill expressed interest in understanding different literary works, especially those of Shakespeare. In one interview, he recited a sonnet of Shakespeare pointing out the depth of its meaning. The following is a brief excerpt on his view about literature:

> I'm personally interested in literature.... literature depends on, to an extent, the concept of meaning, vocabulary, sometimes beauty, but a fairly refined views of the world. And it's difficult to be refined if you haven't gone through the process of refinement....

What seems important to Bill, here, is an understanding of his existence as a human being and his relation with other human beings, which he describes as a refined worldview.

Moving to London after completing his studies at LaTrobe, Bill started work as an ESL teacher. At this time, he took two teacher training courses at International House in London. Having taught in London for several years, he signed up to work for an American oil company in Saudi Arabia. There, Bill taught English to Saudi Arabian men who were preparing to work on oilfields or to travel to America.

> They [Saudi Arabians] were learning English mainly because their masters, the Americans on the oil fields, had decreed that they [the Saudis] should learn English rather than them learning Arabic. It was for their [the Americans'] own convenience, really.

After teaching in Saudi Arabia for five years, Bill returned to Australia. He has been teaching at TAFE ever since.

Bill regards his honesty along with his *soft inside* and *gentle nature as* contributing to his identity as a teacher who thinks highly of his students and praises them at the appropriate time. In other words, he sees his Self influencing the teacher he is.

> I'm very soft inside. I think I'm of quite a gentle nature, really. Yeah, I do enjoy that [praising the students], especially when they deserve it. I can't very easily praise someone who is not worthy of praise.

As a rule, he sees the nature of his career exposing his Self: "You know, teaching brings out your character. And that's what it brings out in me". In this way, Bill's teaching identity is who he is.

When I asked him about his interest in teaching, he responded:

> Whatever road I've followed to get there I'm sure I would have become an ESL teacher. Because first of all, I've been trained as a teacher and enjoy it. And secondly, I really enjoy the English language. I'm not a linguist in the sense of being the master of many languages but I'm really interested in English. I've actually taught grammar and professional writing courses. Grammar is my hobby, strange to say.

This clearly reveals his extensive closeness with his profession. More on his interest in grammar is discussed in the next chapter.

7.2.1.3 Luke.

Luke is an ESL teacher and teacher educator in his early thirties, who started teaching English in Japan following his friends' advice that he should do so. Having completed a combined degree of psychology and biochemistry, Luke decided not to pursue a career in either of the fields and to travel overseas instead, calling it "the Australian rite of passage".

As his friends had informed him about Japan's suitable work and travel circumstances for Australians, he headed off to the country with a plan to stay for a year, save money, and make his way to Europe. But falling "in love with the country and [his] ... wife" kept him in the country "for more than five years and [he] did not travel to Europe".

In Japan, Luke was initially employed in a conversation school where he was introduced to CLT for the first time. Thus, his first CLT training and teaching experience were both in an environment that he believed to have *cultural issues* with the approach.

> Yeah, it's [CLT's] been there for a number of years. There are cultural issues, especially with more traditional older people and also the younger.... It [CLT] is a very Western approach and it does have issues with a number of cultures.

In saying this, I understand Luke to mean that such things as expression of individual opinion, which is a part of CLT, are problematic in countries which have a different approach to education. I should also add that English language teaching in Japan deems students' knowledge of sentence formation rules (knowledge of grammar) as the base and communicative practices as a method in service of bettering that knowledge base (Sakui, 2004).

Luke also managed a number of schools in the area. The courses he taught during his extended stay in Japan were general English, business English, and courses to prepare students for the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) to adults and teenagers as well as English to young learners aged three to twelve years. Luke took great interest in language instruction seeing it as his "calling in life" and visualizing himself an ESL teacher for many years ahead.

Returning home, due to the growth in the Australian TESOL sector, Luke was able to immediately become employed on a full-time basis. He also completed CELTA and DELTA qualifications with a university in Victoria where he taught at its language college. At the time of the interview, he was a CELTA teacher trainer at the language college and had partially completed a Masters qualification in Applied Linguistics by distance.

In contrast to the other teachers, Luke makes little reference to his sense of Self as teacher. His account of the past is one notably lacking in personal descriptions; rather it is a factual recount of past events. Nonetheless, throughout the interviews, as we shall see, he indirectly referred to himself as a mentor type of person who is willing to guide the students in their struggles.

7.2.1.4 Louise.

Louise, in her 50s, works as a teacher and a teacher trainer at a language college. She first lived in Adelaide where she completed her undergraduate degree in communication and started her first work as a nurse at the age of 20. For a total of 20 years as a nurse, she worked for a larger part in aged care centres and for less time at the Children's Hospital.

Growing weary of long years of nursing work in aged care facilities encouraged Louise to consider a career change. Since she had an avid interest in reading and writing, Louise aimed for a career having the "language" element as well as involving "young people from different cultures". Thus, the career best meeting Louise's expectations was ESL teaching.

Louise initially started teaching ESL to adult migrants as a part of a "return to work in Australia" program in Adelaide but later moved to Melbourne when she lost her job as a result of cuts in government funding for such programs. In Melbourne, she spent two years teaching at a community centre before finding a job at a language college at one of the universities in Victoria. Since then, she has been teaching general and academic English at the college as well as CELTA training to both local and overseas teachers.

Louise had been teaching ESL for 14 years at the time of the interview and had succeeded in completing CELTA and DELTA courses as well as a Masters Degree in education. She is currently a PhD candidate researching the identity issues of international students from Saudi Arabia studying in Australia. She has also written and published articles on teacher training and the CLT approach in ELT journals.

Louise describes herself as a mature and peaceful person who respects her students and appreciates their differences.

> I've got a more, perhaps, sensitivity to varying abilities. I just embrace their differences. And I'm there and I do what I can. I don't get frustrated whereas perhaps ten years ago I may have. I can't remember. But I'm a fairly relaxed person. I don't know that I get frustrated anyway.

She sees her personal qualities and years of working as a nurse shaping her teaching identity.

> Going back to those nursing qualities, I suppose, which have to inform more than the language side of what I'm doing now, maturity. It's no good to be frustrated or insensitive to different levels of ability or different cultural views.

Louise's reference to feelings of frustration is elaborated in the next section. Like the other teachers in the study, Louise shows great interest in ESL teaching.

> I've just gone from strength to strength. I've done the academic side of it and I've developed in the practical side of it. And I've never looked back!

In the next section, I suggest that Louise's account of the alignment of her Self and her teaching is characterized with more awareness and sophistication than that demonstrated by the other teachers.

7.2.2 Summary.

The data suggests that, while the teachers may have started to teach for a variety of reasons, they immediately took great and continuing interest in teaching. They talked about their life stories as important elements in constructing the teachers they are. They meaningfully connected seemingly irrelevant episodes from their life stories to illustrate their impact on the teachers and the individuals they were at the time of the interview (Nias, 1989). This happened with all the participants even though I was careful enough not to ask questions that might guide them in this direction.

The teachers connected their practice to their Selves, who they are as a person. In other words, for the teachers in the study, the source of their practice is the Self. They mentioned their personal and professional changes over time and in different classrooms with different student groups. At the same time, they appreciated the existence of a relatively stable core Self (Gee, 2000). For example, Ann constantly compared the successful student in her (with an intrinsic motivation to learn languages) with her own students. She is the French and English teacher who is aware of ways of teaching languages other than the ones normally practiced in ESL. She is an animated, kinaesthetic, and fun loving teacher who finds it easy to convey her messages through body language.

Bill is the literature enthusiast who finds pleasure in understanding the meaning of life and what it feels like to live through different life events as others do. He enjoys studying words and the ways sentences are constructed in the English language. His extensive experience of living, working, and studying in a variety of contexts have constantly challenged him to make the decision to step out of his comfort zone by leaving behind family and friends as well as the meaningful things in his living context. Hence, Bill's Self is directed towards observing and understanding others.

Luke is the smart young man who has one foot in psychology, another in biochemistry, and yet another in applied linguistics. A closer look at his past and current education implies that matters relevant to the classroom language learning and teaching are closer to the individual factor of the continuum rather than the social. Added to this is his Japanese CLT training which gives a heavier weight to the formation of knowledge of language than the practice of authentic communication in the classroom.

Louise, a passionate writer, has a nurse and a teacher trainer within, perhaps more than an ESL teacher. More about Louise is elaborated below.

In their discussions of themselves, the teachers reflected on the "me" as who they are (i.e., Self-as-known or the kind of person they are in the classroom) by pointing to their past memories (Leary, 2004; Mead, 1934). This was demonstrated when Bill referred to himself as *gentle* with a *soft inside* and when Louise talked about her *sensitivity to varying abilities* or being *a fairly relaxed person*. Ann's sense of Self as being an *animated* person was informed by the attitudes of Others (her students) (Mead, 1934). Louise's emphasis on it not being *good to be frustrated or insensitive to different levels of abilities or different cultural views* seemed to be the result of a monitoring internal voice, rather than a description of her reported feelings, even though these

feelings are not made apparent to students. That is, although Louise reports feelings of frustration, she is careful not to allow these to be obvious (Goffman, 1959).

The teachers also talked about their multiple Selves simultaneously functioning while teaching. Luke, for instance, indirectly referred to his Self as multiple and varied when introducing his mentor Self and biochemist-psychologist-applied linguist Self although he seemed able to harmoniously implement them in his teaching. We will see later, in the teacher identity section, Luke talks about assuring his students about him always being next to them and struggling with them when coming across any kind of learning difficulty. In the methodology chapter, this will be further elaborated revealing that what he means by *struggling together* is merely a mental one (Gee & Crawford, 1998; Sidorkin, 1999).

The teachers also showed that there are different and interconnected layers to Self. Louise, for example, connected many of her present personal and professional Selves to her past history. She initially referred to her personal qualities as being shaped during her years of nursing. She then linked the nurse inside with her teacher trainer Self. She viewed her experience as a teacher-trainer as having a profound impact on her as an ESL teacher, an effect stronger than her initial teacher training (Gee, 1991). Since Louise both educates teachers and teaches ESL students, the experiential and the theoretical sides of training have become aligned. This awareness in turn has contributed to her confidence in teaching.

> By reference to the CELTA that I'm doing, there's an idea of loop input. I'm teaching it so I'm very aware of what I demonstrate in the classroom. Even when I'm not teacher training, I bring the aspects of CELTA; so reducing teacher talk, giving students an opportunity, the method of correction, on the spot or delayed correction, focus on accuracy or fluency at different times of the lesson.... I'm always very aware of these things and try to get a balance. But I think with the overall training, it's given me a huge amount of confidence so that I can walk into a classroom and be videoed ... some people don't want to be put in that position.

Thus, the ESL training that initially shaped Louise as a teacher is now overshadowed by the knowledge and confidence of Louise as a teacher trainer. Louise was very clear in describing the interconnections of her different layers of identity. I suggest that her teacher training expertise has given her the opportunity to reflect, perhaps more than the other teachers in the study, on her teaching and her image as a teacher. It is perhaps due to this awareness that Louise has given the most detailed account of the interconnections of her multiple identities.

The literature suggests that teachers involve their whole Selves in the act of teaching (E. Ellis, 2004; Johnson, 1992; Nias, 1989a, 1989b; Pajak & Blase, 1989; Woods, 1996). I suggest that, although the teachers in this study pointed to the connections between their Selves and their teaching profession, they differed in the degree to which they made such links and this can be connected to the extent of their self-awareness (Antonek, et al., 1997). For example, Louise, who was most conscious of the interrelationships between her different layers of identity, directly stated that her nursing experience prohibits her from being willing to involve her whole Self in her teaching (This is further discussed in the ESL teacher identity section).

7.3 Community of ESL Teachers

So far, the notion of Self has been understood as an important aspect of ESL teacher identity. Prior to making connections between teacher identity and the Self, it is important to clarify the manner through which teacher identity is constructed from one's Self. Upon entering the teaching profession, an ESL student-teacher becomes involved in the learning process of ESL teaching by progressively increasing their participation in the community of ESL teachers. This helps them to gradually master the required knowledge and skills for the teaching of the English language. This process of learning

to teach—that is to say, practicing membership of the community of ESL teachers—requires the new teacher to take up particular knowledge and skills that are connected to, and an integral part of, a wider system of meanings within human relationships of the community implying that the teacher is defined by their relationship and engagement with the community (i.e., identification). The teacher, in turn, has the ability to redefine and reshape the meanings in which they are invested (i.e., negotiation of meanings). Hence, teaching and learning how to teach is a constant construction and reconstruction of one's identity through the recursive interaction of the person with the collective (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Flores and Day (2006) found that, for the teachers in their study, their teacher identities were "strongly personally embedded at the beginning of their teaching careers" influencing the "meanings, values, images and ideals of what it meant to be a teacher". They gradually developed their teacher identity from the Self by combining those meanings, values, images, and ideals with their training and the context in which they worked (p. 230). Nias (1989a, p. 14) argues that, "[N]o matter how pervasive particular aspects of a shared social or occupational culture may be or how well individuals are socialized into it, the attitudes and actions of each teacher are rooted in their own ways of perceiving the world". In sum, ESL teacher identity is constructed through a process of learning, which shapes individuals and turns their interactions with their communities into personal histories and a frame of reference.

Three of the participant teachers in the study counted their training as essential in shaping their teacher identities. They also connected themselves to the community of language teachers. For instance, in regards to his training, Bill explained that:

> [In the International House] There was some intense and intensive three-month course and then it was full of practical theories. That's not a contradiction. And then, the practical work. And then, the afternoons with the level of instruction that were given was excellent, and the feedback, and all of these assessment and interpretation of all that was happening, and why. That was very good....The

> London background [the International House] was much more communicative and quite up-to-date.... I still remember a lot from that because of such rich experience from the instructors.

In describing his experience, he uses words such as: *excellent, very good, practical theories, practical work, communicative, quite up-to-date,* and *rich experience* which indicate his strong approval of his supervisors and learning experience.

Bill counted his initial training at the International House as both rich and influential to the extent that he still derives many of his teaching ideas from the training there. As we will see, the teaching materials he developed as well as the task-based language teaching method he used came from his initial ESL teacher training courses.

Luke also refers to "the training approach that" he "received" as the main source encouraging him to be a facilitator and shaper of student learning. As discussed previously, Louise saw her training to have shaped her teacher identity at a point in time. But now, her teacher identity is overshadowed by the teacher educator in her.

In terms of membership in the community of ESL teachers, Bill sees himself, teachers in general, and ESL teachers in particular, as sharing certain features that make them part of the same community.

> I've spoken to Jenny[11], that colleague I introduced you to, we decided that there are such things as teaching types, which we just can't avoid teaching. In a social situation, we know better and we can shut up. But in a classroom, I know you feel this too, there are times when you're observing other people, your instincts tell you to get in there and take over and do something.... [Or] In teaching, I tend to do it [repeating myself in different ways] a lot. I think other teachers do as well. It seems to work.... I'm pretty sure, without having seen a lot of them teach, that most of my colleagues here and by extension most ESL teachers pretty well any where work by encouragement and good humour.

[11] All the names in the excerpts are pseudonyms that I have chosen for the individuals.

These common features among teachers, in Bill's opinion, are also in relation to revealing one's true Self in teaching.

> As it turns out, I find, and I think it's true of most of my colleagues as well, we tend to work with the people that we've got in the way we know that suits us best.

Bill's use of *we* when referring to other teachers indicates that he sees himself and all ESL teachers as belonging to the same community. He goes further and connects himself with all teachers, both ESL and non-ESL. The tendency to *take over* or *work by encouragement and good humour* is a trait, which Bill is confident all teachers share as a pedagogical aspect of teaching. But when it comes to techniques, he presumes [*I think*] *other teachers do as well*.

Luke sees himself and the other language teachers as sharing interest in understanding student learning.

> I think it's [ways of language learning] something that language teachers probably talk about a lot. But they try it themselves on their students but they don't have a way of conceptualizing it or theorizing it.

He divides ESL teachers into *good* and *other teachers* and locates himself in the good teacher category, with regard to student mentorship.

> I think good teachers use it [mentoring students]. And they use it to their advantage because you say, "Yeah, okay, this is difficult, so let's slow down and work on it". "Okay you're doing really well with that so let's move on to the next". They're acknowledging students' abilities.

On another occasion, in talking about pedagogy he stated:

> I think it's something that some teachers do really well and others don't. I try to make a big point of it. A student can't complete a task if they don't know what to do. If they haven't had a chance to check with you, you know, clarifying anything before they begin, then there's no way that they can complete a task which it not only impairs them as students but it impairs the progress of the lesson and often it de-motivates them automatically.

The excerpts suggest that Luke, similar to Bill, sees his connection with other teachers mainly in terms of pedagogy.

Louise sees herself connected to the community of ESL teachers through having a common goal, that of is focusing on the educational aspect of their work. She believes that not all ESL teachers are fortunate enough to work unrestrained by the larger system in which they work. Instead, she sees the system as being profit oriented which negatively affects teachers in implementing the type of teaching in which they believe. The biggest drawback of the particular policies of the institute within which she works is Louise's constant struggle to find enough time to know the students in order to teach well.

> The thing that I am constantly aware of is the commercial nature of what we do. We, as teachers, we think, we're very academically focused. And we think in terms of pedagogy. It doesn't always translate because of the commercial demands of the industry. And that's a bit unfortunate. So one of the big things is the five-week terms that you just start to get to know the students and become aware of their strengths and weaknesses. Week four or the beginning of week five you're doing assessments. And then move on. So you've really got four weeks, four and a half weeks teaching at the most.

Prior to discussion of Ann, I would like to move to a brief discussion of the work of Beijaard, Verloop, and Vermunt (2000, p. 751). Drawing from the work of Bromme (1991), the authors suggest that

> teachers derive their professional identity from (mostly combinations of) the ways they see themselves as subject matter experts, pedagogical experts, and didactical experts. In European studies and teaching practices, these are common concepts to indicate what a teacher should know and be able to do.

They further explain that *subject matter* expertise is about the content knowledge teachers implement in their teaching and involves teachers' deep understanding of the subject area. *Pedagogical* expertise is the ethical and moralistic aspect of teaching which is mainly about teachers' communication and involvement with students, their understanding of students' problems, the management of teaching, and many more. The

didactic side of teaching refers to the theories and approaches to language teaching which are presumed to function as a framework for teachers' methodology. Some examples of these are the CLT approach and emphasis on teachers being facilitators than transmitters of knowledge or having a student-centred method of classroom teaching (ibid). Referring to empirical research, Beijaard et al. (2000) state that teachers deem the pedagogical features of their profession as being more important than the other two.

Thus, at this point, it makes sense to say that Bill, Luke, and Louise see themselves as connected to the community of ESL teachers. These connections are primarily about their pedagogical expertise, which indicates that for these teachers, at this point of their profession, teaching means the recursive interactions of their identities with the students. The story for Ann, however, is somewhat different.

As mentioned earlier, Ann had chosen ESL teaching to provide a relaxed and friendly working atmosphere to replace the less pleasant one at the secondary school at which she was working. Problems arose when Ann took teacher training courses, and found herself struggling to accept and ultimately implement some teaching methodologies and techniques in which she did not believe.

> It [ESL teaching] was nothing like what I had been teaching. I found it a total career change. Obviously, your teaching experience and just teaching, being in the classroom is the same, and just being able to relate to students and being able to deliver isn't a lot different although the methodologies are quite different in terms of the way they teach you to do it in grad cert. Anyway, it's quite different from my teaching style.

Here, Ann is drawing a clear line between the pedagogical and didactic sides of ESL teaching, locating her problem in accepting the didactic part. The phrase *the way they teach you to do it* implies that she sees the teaching methodologies as being imposed on her by Others (her supervisors) with whom she seems not to identify. She

then immediately refers to *my teaching style* as opposed to *the way they teach you to do it*, again reflecting the distance between the two.

As an experienced teacher, Ann believes that teaching requires spontaneous decision-making and constant in-action modifications of the lesson plan in response to emerging student and pedagogical requirements.

> I had some issues with assessed lessons when I was doing the grad cert because you have to have a rigid lesson plan. Stick to the timing, you know. And then, if you don't stick to it, that's a negative. And, that's not my belief. That's not what I think is good teaching. Yes, you need to be organized. You need to know what you're doing. You need to have a lesson plan of some sort. But, look, if I didn't get through everything today, a couple of those hand-outs I didn't give them, were really only if we got there. And we didn't. And it didn't matter. I always make sure that I've got enough material but I don't care whether I get through it or not because I'll do it next time if I don't. And I'm happy to go in another direction with something that the students throw up. As long as I can see a validity in that.

Ann also sees some of her TESOL training, especially that related to response to problematic situations, as not being based on practicalities of a real language teaching situation.

> One of my [TESOL] supervisors said, "Wait twice as length as you feel comfortable before you actually ask the question again rather than repeat". She said, "Wait until you feel uncomfortable with the silence, and then wait that long again". I don't know. You just can't stand there forever. Because if they [students] don't know, they don't know.

Clearly, Ann sees herself a teacher able to question the validity of the TESOL training she had received, finding herself in conflict with some ESL methodologies and approaches and the people promoting them, in this case her trainers. One outcome of this may be that she does not see herself as fully belonging to the community of ESL teachers. The following extract suggests implicit criticism of the ways in which ESL teachers are "supposed" to structure class activities.

> And sometimes I say [to the students], "Work together!" And they don't. And then I'll go back and say, "Work together!" That's the ESL style that we're encouraged to use. I mean it is the practice that we're supposed to promote.

To elaborate on Ann's training experience, Wenger (1998) explains that to enter the practicing community, "newcomers must be granted enough legitimacy to be treated as potential members" (p. 101) which can be done by old-timers "engage[ing] newcomers and provide[ing them with] a sense of how the community operates" (p. 100). In "asymmetrical master-apprentice relations", where the apprentice is prescribed "the proper practice" and is not given the opportunity to practice and negotiate their learning experience, they will develop an identity of marginality (Wenger, 1998).

Accordingly, Ann places great importance on her personal understanding of language teaching shaped during the years of teaching LOTE (French) and English at the secondary level. One outcome is having a teacher-centred approach.

> Well, what you saw me teach this morning was pretty teacher-centred.... But the grad cert method is that the students are at the centre. So, I still get students to do things.

Another effect is transferring her French teaching styles into ELT.

> Khatereh: Were you trained in the audio-visual method[12] when you were learning French?
>
> Ann: Yeah! Yeah! And I was teaching kids that way [using the audio-visual method].

As a result, her present ELT methodology is still strongly based in the audio-visual method.

> I guess the way I teach ESL is more connected to my teaching of French not to my teaching of English to native speakers. Because you're teaching a foreign language rather than first language. I've tried teaching French more teaching for communication.

[12] The audiovisual method is explained in the Practice Chapter.

In summary, Ann, as a student, learned French in the audio-visual method and Ann, as a teacher, taught French in the audio-visual method at the secondary school for some years. She practiced in the same way she was taught. A closer look suggests that the audio-visual method, which is in many respects in stark contrast to CLT, shaped Ann's understanding of language learning and teaching. This seems to be the grounds for her negative reaction to the TESOL training she received instigating a return to her old teaching methods. The story of Ann illustrates how a teacher's background and history can make it difficult to abandon one teaching style and adopt another. It suggests that teaching styles, especially when practiced over the years become integrated into the Self, making them a part of one's belief system.

7.3.1 Summary.

The data implies that training provides direction to and shapes the teachers' Selves. In other words, for the teachers, teacher training is a means to amalgam who they are with their teaching practice (Flores & Day, 2006).

As in the case of Ann, like the other three teachers, she sees similarities between herself and the other teachers in terms of pedagogy (Beijaard, et al., 2000). Despite these similarities, she is not able to fully identify with a part of the community of ESL teachers, or more precisely, with her supervisors (the old-timers) in terms of the didactics of ESL teaching. For this reason, she turns to a teaching method with which she can better resonate, i.e., the audio-visual method. In contrast, the other teachers do not talk about their similarities or differences between themselves and their ESL educators, perhaps because, unlike Ann, they are far beyond the period of negotiating their ESL teacher identities with an external authority. This again points to the importance of the teachers' (private) connections with the practice (Nias, 1989b).

This point takes us back to a part of the findings in Chapter Five. There, it was discussed that the teachers' biggest concern was in terms of finding ways to connect their KT (pedagogical expertise) to KL (subject matter expertise), forming what Shulman (1999) calls pedagogical content knowledge. Connecting the literature with the findings of the present study, I suggest that the more teachers see themselves as experts in the didactics of teaching, the more strongly they feel connected to the community of ESL teachers. In other words, feelings of membership in the community of ESL teachers and the development of didactic expertise have reciprocal influence on one another.

Using Lortie's (1975) words, prior to becoming a teacher, teachers have already formed implicit models of instruction during their "13,000-hour apprentice of observation." One implication is that as teachers, they share some common features in terms of pedagogy by having ideas about what it means to be a teacher. The main impact of teacher education is to didactically induct them into teaching. Perhaps, it is for this reason that Ann feels connected to other teachers in terms of pedagogy but not necessarily in terms of the didactics of the profession.

7.4 ESL Teacher Identity

The central ideas around teacher identity are that first, it is not a fixed and unitary phenomenon but dynamically evolving over time as teachers interact with their internal and external contexts (Beijaard, et al., 2004; Coldron & Smith, 1999; Freeman, 2007; Gee, 2000; Johnson, 2006; Kerby, 1991; Maclure, 1993; Mitchell & Weber, 1999; Norton Peirce, 1995; Wenger, 1998). "[I]dentity should not be seen as a stable entity—something that people have—but as something that they use, to justify, explain and make sense of themselves in relation to other people, and to the contexts in which they operate" (Maclure, 1993, p. 312). Second, it involves both the person and context. The

context prescribes certain professional features or roles, but teachers adopt and enact them in ways that are compatible to their personal Selves (Beijaard, et al., 2004). Goffman (1997) calls roles as “the basic unit of socialization”. He states, “it is through roles that tasks in society are allocated and arrangements made to enforce their performance” (p. 35).

ESL teacher role embracement and role distance introduce the element of agency as the ability to make the choice to accept the role as one’s own or not (Giddens, 1991). Within this role acceptance framework, teachers construct a sense of Self as member of the community of ESL teachers but at the same time they are different from other members of the community (Davies, 1990). Agency in the classroom is also relevant to the freedom the teachers offer the students in making choices of their own (Davies, 1990).

Finally, teachers’ identities are comprised of both varied and multiple as well as “core” identities. The varied identities consist of sub-identities changing and evolving from context to context with some having a more central role than others (Beijaard, et al., 2004). Gee uses the term “core identity” to refer to “whatever continuous and relatively ‘fixed’ sense of self underlies our contextually shifting multiple identities” (2001, p. 39).

7.4.1 ESL teacher roles.

I refer to ESL teacher identity as teachers’ accounts of a body of information grounded in observable truths about themselves as teachers, including their social roles. Accordingly, the teachers in the study viewed their roles as manager of teaching and learning, provider of knowledge, student supporter, and theory builder.

7.4.1.1 Teacher as the manager of teaching and learning.

Bill believes that teaching resembles driving a car in that some parts of both are automatic and require little thought, leaving the individual with the opportunity to focus on the *decision-making* aspect of the task.

> So it's like when you're driving. You're changing gears without realizing really doing it. I was shuffling those papers while I was listening. Putting them in order without really thinking about that, just giving myself something to do. I was listening more to how they [the students] were going.... You can't prevent decision-making and concentrating. It's like driving a car. You can't say just stop concentrating and close your eyes. Your body might let you but when you're teaching, I think your mind won't let you.

He talks more about his role as a *decision maker* and teaching as *a constant process of decision making* in the following:

> Teaching is largely decision making, isn't it? It's a constant process of decision making, more than any other activity I know.... I don't know about you but I find teaching quite exhausting. You might think afterwards, "Why? I'm not doing much". But you are. It's all this decision-making.... You like to think that you've made the right decision and things are in their own place.

Seeing his teaching role as analogous to that of a driver and a decision-maker, indicates that Bill regards it as necessary to be a mindful and responsible teacher who is quick to make spontaneous teaching decisions. The decision-maker role has an element of power and teacher-as-knower in it as well. This is illustrated in the following:

> I vary the pitch and the loudness of my voice and just say something quite loudly for a few seconds or so. And it means don't ignore your teacher. I've got a mind, too. And just to let them know that I'm thinking all the time.

Bill recognizes his power and authority as an informed person, whose role is not that of transferring knowledge to passive students but rather collaboratively constructing knowledge of language.

> As far as possible, I want it [explanations] to come from them. But when I'm teaching formal grammar lessons, I've got that body of knowledge to give them.... I give examples and we discuss whether their examples are good or not

> and they ask me questions. I think of different examples and ask if that's acceptable or not. So, we work on stretching the boundaries of testing the rules.

The power sharing relationship is illustrated through: *we discuss, I ... ask if that's acceptable,* and *we wo*rk *on stretching the boundaries.* Power exertion is illustrated in: *I want it to come from them, I've got that body of knowledge,* and *I give examples.* Bill recognizes his students' need for agency. First, he sees the need for agency in making intellectual decisions. Second, the excerpt and the highlighted extracts reveal that he does not allow the students total agency, but constantly shifts power relations to provide the students with both learning support and the autonomy to make intellectual decisions. Thus, despite suggesting a power imbalance in the teacher-student relationship, he does not regard himself an authoritarian whose input should be accepted without questioning: "But these people [the students], they're working with their intellect. They're intellectually very strong."

In dealing with an unpleasant situation with one student, Luke talks about his flexibility in skilfully managing the situation:

> I've actually had a few battles with students and not like I mean fighting or arguing. When I first started teaching her which is three weeks ago, she would bring her computer in the class. And, she would consistently check that computer and e-mail people during class. So, instead of making a big deal about it, I took it upon myself to get her more on side and make her more engaged in my lessons. But actually, I'm still battling to get her engaged for a full lesson. I find that I can get her for a couple of minutes and then she has to go away and do her own thing and then she comes back. And then, I have her engaged for a few more minutes and then she wanders off into her own world again.

Luke believed the problem with this particular student and the other weaker students was: "because they are all lecturers back in Indonesia, they have their own ideas about learning and about doing things in life". The students were used to having the agency to decide where and how to direct things rather than handing the power to someone else, in this case, Luke. Luke believed that his students felt the lessons were too simple and were not leading them in the direction that they had aimed for. At the

same time, they felt not competent in handling those simple lessons, which made them feel the need to exert control. One response was that of not recognizing Luke's authority as the teacher in charge with the power to direct the lesson. Luke had been able to appreciate the particular circumstances of the group and was providing them with as much space as he could to give them the feeling of being in control. In this way, he hoped they would stop refusing to cooperate in the teaching-learning activity in the classroom.

> It is a little de-motivating, as a teacher. So, with her [one of the students], I find that she engages me on a one to one basis more often than engaging with me and the whole class. So, you'll notice that I wander over a little bit and me and her have a little conversation and a little bit, you know, of a joke about something. And then, I know I have to wander away. Because if I stay there, and keep talking, she'll wander off in her own mind. So, I know how it has to work with her. But I think she gets more learning moments out of that than sitting there and trying to take notice of the whole class. I think she is just one of those people. And it's fine.

Luke is letting this student have access to power in the hope that, by accommodating his approach to the expectations of the student, he may be able to direct her toward learning. He is unhappy with the situation; however, he is also tolerant and open to his students' idiosyncrasies, attempting to be flexible in response to unexpected problems in the classroom.

> But as I get more experienced I find that it's best not to force them, especially adult learners. If you relax yourself to those individual differences, usually you'll find another way to get through to them.

In performing her manager role, Louise expresses willingness to focus on teaching, rather than on sharing aspects of her personal Self with the students. This is, as she mentioned, influenced by her nursing profession, which required her to have compassion for patients while remaining objective and professional by avoiding any impulse to *share personal stories* with them. Hence, she sees objectivity, goal orientedness, and student nurturing to be aspects of her teacher role.

> I used to be a nurse actually. Sometimes, I think my personality doesn't come out but a lot of teachers show a lot more of themselves. They give a lot more of their background. They share stories with the students. Sometimes, I think I'm a little bit too focused on the task and not enough on the sharing of the personality.

7.4.1.2 Teacher as provider of knowledge.

Ann considers functioning in the community at a survival level to be most relevant for her students.

> They [the students] need food; something that's relevant, shopping. And, they're very low level so I just try to give them stuff that's relevant. I just thought they needed it. Just because it's a pretty important part of their lives, shopping, eating, meals.

The sentences: *I just try to give them stuff that's relevant* and *I just thought they needed it* imply that Ann sees her role as the person who both knows and responds to her students' language learning needs. She sees students to be more occupied with the mental aspect of learning rather than the pragmatic side. She demonstrates this by talking about students' interest in learning about things that are *in their own mind* and something they want to *know*. Hence, another side of her provider of knowledge role is catering to her students' desire to know.

> Because if they [the students] are interested in something, they feel the need for it. So if they need to know something in their own mind, I will provide the answer.

Louise's attention to detail and her willingness to plan things ahead (perhaps coming from her nursing experience) by investigating details and predicting possible problems is reflected in the excerpt below. Since she regarded her students as having problems in generating childcare-related ideas prior to the lesson, she searched for a variety of sources to provide the students with ideas if the need arose.

> I thought about it [childcare centres] before, because I had gotten onto the internet and I looked up childcare centres. I was trying to think of ... because ... my first response is that they're good because of what they can provide in terms of career opportunities for women. I was trying to think of some negative things for childcare. So, I looked up a newspaper article. Then, I went to some site that

> had this checklist and I just wanted to give them the heading. So, yes, I'd prepared.

7.4.1.3 Teacher as supporter of student learning.

Ann talks about supporting her students' sense of security in the learning environment by avoiding approaches that she thought might frustrate them. For example, in an incident where a student was unable to look up a word in her electronic dictionary, Ann explained that:

> Yeah, I took the pressure off her. And then, I did something else to give her a little bit of space. So, that's why, yeah, I went away. I was filling in time here while she was trying to come up with the word.

On another occasion, she stated that her students "hate[d] being put in the spotlight" unless they were confident that "they have mastered" the function.

Luke also explains how he supports his students' learning in the following:

> So you give that supportive feeling in the classroom that, "It's okay to check things. It's okay if you don't understand. Because if you don't understand, you need to ask so that you can do what we want you to do." ... It's more of a mentoring and facilitating, you know, a gradual guidance towards the goals. And saying, "Yeah, we're going to struggle but hopefully we'll struggle through it and we'll get you there". I think it's something that, you know, it doesn't come out of teacher training.

Luke's mentor Self is transparently displayed when he says: *we're going to struggle but hopefully we'll struggle through it and we'll get you there*. He is also aware that it is coming from his Self and past experience and not a result of formal training: *it's something that ... doesn't come out of teacher training.* We will see later that what he means by *struggle* is a mental struggle in which students turn inwards to understand language rules rather than a social collaboration of learning. Luke also sees his role as that of the knower when he mentions: *if you don't understand, you need to ask so that you can do what we want you to do.* In Chapter Nine, we will see that although the

syllabus is negotiated between the teacher and the students, Luke implements what he deems to be important for the students to know. Returning to Luke's mentor role and his emphasis on *gradual guidance towards the [teaching]* goals, he is becoming disappointed that he is not able to get the students where he believes they need to go.

> But then, I wasn't sure whether they understood or not, you know. And so I lost the lesson at this point. They were getting confused. I really got them back with this example. But then, after this, they did quite well. I was happier after this.

The excerpt shows that, when not being able to perform his mentor role well (*I wasn't sure whether they understood or not*), Luke is bewildered and *lost the lesson*.

Louise sees it as an important part of her role as a teacher to create a *trusting* learning environment for the students to feel confident enough to participate in classroom activities in the presence of teacher and peers. She explains trust in the classroom as:

> Willingness to take risks, not holding back because you're going to make a mistake grammatically or in pronunciation. And again, that comes from the nursing background. Because I remember reading a book called, it was about people with Alzheimer's, in creating a *climate of trust.* And that expression always stayed with me and I brought it into teaching. And I thought how true it is for the classroom environment. Everyone has to trust each other. Students have to trust the group and take risks together and everyone has to trust the teacher to steer them in the right direction. So, it's one of those transferrable things.

The examples above support the belief that the pedagogical aspect of teachers' identities are influenced by their past experiences, both in terms of communicating with others and in understandings of the moral dimensions of their job (Beijaard, et al., 2000).

7.4.1.4 Teacher as theory builder.

Luke sees himself as a researcher able to analyse student learning and identify gaps in knowledge. He has his own ways of conceptualizing student learning and

believes the insight that he gained through teaching experience has not been conceptualized by other researchers.

> And it's something that language learning, I think any approach to language learning hasn't quite got down. People are relying on feelings for language. They have something inside of them and many people just seem to get it because they've had some experience with those feelings that they can trust them. So, it's a bit of airy fairy area and I don't think any approach has got it down yet.

In the next chapter, I further elaborate on Luke's ideas about language learning by connecting it to his past and current fields of study.

7.4.2 Summary.

So far, what has been discussed is that teachers' histories construct their personal Selves. The Self is amalgamated with the training they receive, shaped, and reshaped through their interactions with the communities of practice and their teaching experience (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). This new form of Self is called ESL teacher identity which is understood through the roles a teacher takes (Goffman, 1959, 1997). When teachers make connections between their profession and themselves, they connect ESL teaching to their Selves. When they talk about themselves as teachers, they refer to their teaching roles. Although the teachers did not refer to the term "professional/teacher identity" at all, they were very much conscious of the sum of their teaching roles making up their teacher identity (Giddens, 1991).

Also, I argue that teacher identity shows itself in the form of the different roles teachers take on (Brown, 2003a). For the teachers in the study, these roles have been: the manager of teaching and learning, the provider of knowledge, supporter of student learning, and teacher as theory builder. These seem to be as a result of the impact of their Selves ("me") which have been shaped, partly at least, as a result of their interactions with the social contexts around them (Beijaard et al., 2004).

7.5 Group Identity and Stereotyping the Other

The multiple and varied Selves within us emphasize our individuality and uniqueness, as well as the commonalities we share with *Others*. This implies that we are simultaneously members of different groups with whom we share certain commonalities; that is, identities. Group identity requires "our understanding of who we are and of who other people are, and, reciprocally, other people's understanding of themselves and of others (which includes us)" making it a "negotiable" notion constructed in social interactions (Jenkins, 2009, p. 32). Group identity

> evokes powerful imagery of people who are in some respect(s) apparently similar to each other. People must have something in common—no matter how vague, apparently unimportant or apparently illusory—before we can talk about their membership of a collectivity (Jenkins, 2004, p. 79).

Along the same lines, Taylor (1989) states that the Self can only be understood in connection with the people around it. Mead also introduces the notion of "the generalized other" by connecting the individual to the community which defines them. The individual also through a sense of membership arising from interactions with other members, takes up the attitudes of the community—the generalized Other. This process is

> the essential basis and prerequisite of the fullest development of that individual's self: only in so far as he takes the attitudes of the organized social group to which he belongs toward the organized, co-operative social activity or set of such activities in which that group as such is engaged, does he develop a complete self ... only by taking the attitude of the generalized other toward himself, in one or another of these ways, can he think at all; for only thus can thinking—or the internalized conversation of gestures which constitutes thinking—occur. (Mead, 1934, pp. 155-156)

Group identity is grounded in recognition of similarities we share with other members of our group which involves an understanding of our differences to Others who do not belong to the same group. Although Woodward (1997) warns against the dangers

of negatively attributing fixed features to Others and "the marking of 'us' and 'them' (p. 4), a logical process of understanding 'us' "involves defining a range of 'thems' also" (Jenkins, 2004, p. 79).

Hall (2003) presents four grounds for the implementation of 'otherness' and difference. The first explanation, has a linguistic background coming from Saussure on the use of language indicating that difference "is essential to meaning; without it, meaning could not exist" (p. 234). Here, difference refers to opposites. By comparing "black" and "white, "day" and "night", "masculine" and "feminine", although in a "reductionist" manner, one is able to capture "the diversity of the world within their either/or extremes" (p. 235). Hall draws on the philosophy posited by Bakhtin (1981) to explain the second reason. He states that "we need 'difference' because we can only construct meaning through a dialogue with the 'Other'" (p. 235). Using Bakhtin's philosophy, Hall asserts that meaning does not solely belong to one side of the dialogue. It is dialogically constructed in interactions with Others. More elaborately, one person or group cannot have exclusive control over meanings. Being British in the nineteenth century, for example, necessitates knowing "what the British thought of Jamaica, their prize colony in the Caribbean, or Ireland and more disconcertedly what the Jamaicans or the Irish thought of them" (C. Hall, 1994; cited in S. Hall, 2003: 236). The third explanation looks at the maintenance of harmony within culture from an anthropological point of view:

> culture depends on giving things meaning by assigning them to different positions within a classificatory system. The marking of 'difference' is thus the basis of that symbolic order which we call culture. (S. Hall, 2003, p. 236)

Assigning difference via classifications helps groups to maintain order and control over things. Observing difference within a group can, however, raise instabilities causing groups to "expel anything which is defined as impure" (S. Hall, 2003, p. 237).

The last explanation indicates that an individual is able to identify their own Self by being distinct and different from Others. “The argument here is that the ‘Other’ is fundamental to the constitution of the self” (ibid, p. 237).

Thus, for ease of identification with our group(s), we need to ascribe traits to ourselves and Others. These ascriptions, which are generally acts of labelling other groups in a simplified manner, are called stereotyping. Stereotypes can be negative when they refer to disapproving purported traits (Tajfel, 1981). Jenkins (2004) states that due to the complexity of human beings, it is difficult for us to both comprehend and have access to enough information to “explain and anticipate the behaviours of others”, which is an important part of life. As a result, we “need to go beyond the available information” which gives rise “to the use of stereotypical attributions” (p. 128). Stereotyping involves ‘splitting’ traits into “normal” and “deviant”, “acceptable’ and “unacceptable”, “what belongs” and “what is Other”, “outsiders” and “insiders”. “It then excludes or expels everything which does not fit” because it occurs “where there are gross inequalities of power” (S. Hall, 2003, p. 258).

On ‘the deep structure of stereotypes’ Gilman (2003) explains that as a part of the developmental process of human beings, we tend to draw lines between the Self and the Other. In this way, we distance the Self from whatever is bad and unacceptable by projecting it onto the Other which is itself distant. Stereotypes are

> part of our way of dealing with the instabilities of our perception of the world. This is not to say that they are good, only that they are necessary. We can and must make the distinction between pathological stereotyping and the stereotyping all of us need to do to preserve our illusion of control over the self and the world.(Gilman, 2003, pp. 284-285)

In terms of positioning, stereotyping involves a storyline that the speech-act of which helps the speaker to position her-/himself in relation to the object of the

stereotype by drawing from social representations of the object of the given social group (van Langenhove & Harre, 1999). For example, a shared stereotypical representation of Asian learners is that they are rote learners and reluctant to express opinions in class discussions. An ESL teacher is able to imply all that this stereotype embodies in conversation with other ESL teachers without detailing all aspects of the stereotype.

Finally, I argue that a part of the teacher identity is the "me", which is contrasted with the Other, the students. Hence, knowledge of the students is in direct connection with knowledge of oneself. More precisely, the former grows out of the latter implying that one's portrayal of the Other is in essence telling us about the teachers' understanding of their own Self.

7.5.1 Ann, Luke, and Louise.

Three of the teachers, Ann, Luke, and Louise, chiefly described their students negatively, rather than positively. Bill's perceptions of the student-Other was in strong contrast to that held by his colleagues. For ease of comparison, I initially present Ann, Luke, and Louise's constructions of the student-Other; and then, compare these constructions with Bill's construction of his students' identity.

The teachers perceived weakness and lack of motivation as two dominant student characteristics reciprocally affecting each other. Ann, for instance, constantly compared her adult students with secondary level pupils stating that adult ESL learners showed less motivation and initiative than school students. She drew a distinction between them by using the words *adults* and *kids* to show the magnitude of difference between the two types of students.

> If you're talking about teaching secondary kids, they're far more interested if they can see a purpose. Although I find teaching adults, they're not very, there's not many initiatives from the students that you come across.

The excerpt shows that although Ann initially intended to talk about her own experience of lack of motivation in adult students (*Although I find teaching adults ...*), then she shifted her position, making this a general rule about teaching adults as if this were the shared experience of every ESL teacher (*there's not many initiatives from the students that you come across*). Thus, she constructs lack of motivation as being a distinctive feature of all adult ESL learners, implying that there is not much one can do to change it.

Another sign of her students' lack of motivation in studying ESL seems to be their constant use of mobile phones in the classroom, a source of frustration for Ann.

> Jenny's phone always rings. But she's gone anyway. I get sick of it because phones are constantly ringing. A couple of them have got businesses. Their phones go all the time and I'm just starting to get sick of it. I don't usually bother because they are adults. But I've just started to say, "Put them on silent. It is distracting". And they answer the phone and then they start having a conversation they don't even go outside.

Stating that she is *sick of* the unpleasant situation in the class implies that Ann is disproportionally sharing power with the students to the extent that they are exercising more power and she has become unable to ameliorate the unpleasant situation. Another out-of-control situation is that the students are not observing the simplest rules, such as regular class attendance or timely registration.

> And I was aware of the fact that there were three students sitting there whose names I didn't know because they'd just walked in. I had no idea what their language level was. I had no clue whether what I was doing was pitched anywhere near them. The others I know. I wasn't sure that I was meeting their [the new students'] needs at all. And there wasn't anything I could do about it on the day. You know I didn't have the opportunity to find out where they were at. I just had to go ahead with it. I can't sit down with three individually while the others are just sitting there while I try to assess them. But that happens constantly. New students come in. There is five weeks to the end of the classes and this is a 20-week course and three new students come today. This is the

> frustration of teaching migrant students rather than international students. The migrants can come in when they like. They go back to China. They come back. They come to class. They don't come to class. They have other things to do so they're not there. You know, continuity is a real problem.

Ann needs to exercise power in order to perform her teacher roles, one of which is that of addressing students' learning needs: *I wasn't sure that I was meeting their needs at all.* Unbalanced distribution of power is portrayed in Ann's statements: *and there wasn't anything I could do about it on the day.... But that happens constantly.* Not being able to perform her teacher role as she understands it is causing frustration in Ann: *this is the frustration of teaching migrants.*

In his first attempt to describe his students, Luke said, "their university has decided to *shove* [italicised mine] them into this program". He emphasized that his students had an unrealistic understanding of their English competency level when "their language level is a lot lower than what they said it was at the outset". He further explained that:

> We get certain waves of students throughout the year. As each wave comes through, it seems to be getting better and better. The group of learners I have at the moment are Indonesians, don't have that [motivation] so much. Because, I guess they've been picked by their university to come and just do this course. And they're not really learning for their own individual or personal reasons. They're being told to learn. They don't have that [motivation].

A point worthy of mention here is that Luke, similar to Ann, contrasts the ideal learning goal as *learning for ... individual and personal reasons* with his students learning objectives, which are *being told to learn* by Others. This indicates that he considers himself unable to make significant changes to the less than ideal situation, the prime cause of which is lack of motivation in the students.

Louise, in several occasions, pointed out her dissatisfaction with the competency level of her students:

> I asked the students, "What does the first example use? What does the second example use?" And they took ages to answer. I asked weaker students because it was such an obvious question. It was there. I almost had my finger on it.

Students, to Louise, should be investors in the language learning process. She describes student motivation as their *investment* in the lesson. The higher the motivation, the more students will *personally invest* in the teaching and learning activity, something that she did not see much of in her students.

> Well, if they want to get something out of it [the lesson], they have to put something in. It's not just going to be all coming from me. Or, they can't just rely on their classmates. They have to personally invest.

It is interesting to see that the teachers linked the students' lack of motivation and low competence levels to their *different and non-Western education system.* Ann seemed to have a very clear picture of the details of her Chinese students' past education experience, especially the negative side of it, describing the students as: *sitting ... in rows, being fed by the teacher, not ... getting up and moving, not initiate[-ing]*.

> I suppose they [the students] come from backgrounds where they're used to sitting in the classroom in rows I suppose. And being fed by the teacher. And they aren't very good at getting up and moving. Like before you came, I had to get them to get up and move and work together. And sometimes to get them to physically to stand up is difficult. And they won't initiate. You have to do it all the time.

Although this is presented as a supposition—*I suppose*—Ann has created an image of her students' past educational experience which is remote from the one in which Ann sees herself at home. Despite the difference, which Ann sees between her understanding of Chinese education and her own teaching, in Chapter Nine, I suggest that the audiovisual method, which Ann follows is very similar to the features of the Chinese education system she describes as being a hindrance to her teaching style.

Her students' constant note taking habits and attachment to dictionaries in the classroom are two learning styles of which Ann does not approve. She believes these

obsessive habits of *sitting in the classroom, reading and writing*, and *not doing a lot of communicative learning* hinder them from communicative activities in the classroom. In one instance, she talked about their note-taking habit as:

> But they're more obsessed with writing it [the word] down. That's the most important thing for them. I know I have actually gone through that and explained to them why [they should not be obsessed with writing] but still they keep on doing it. Because that's the way they've been taught. It's their background. It's their learning background. They sit in classrooms and they write and write and write, reading and writing. They don't do a lot of communicative learning.

In another instance, she complained about their constant use of electronic dictionaries.

> They didn't get this [her explanations]. They're just blank. Looked at me blank. I don't know if they knew the word "forget" but they should know "remember". I could have put the words on the board and then they'll get their dictionaries out and look them up. Because they are so attached to those electronic dictionaries always. So, they could look up "remember", look up "forget". Then they know what Ann meant. (I have used her pseudonym)

Luke believes that, since ESL students come from educational contexts different from Australia, they have expectations different from the prevalent language teaching objectives in a Western context. One is their expectation that they will learn pure grammar with little or no communicative purpose.

> But the funny thing is that the students want that [teaching grammar for grammar's sake] because they still have that belief in their own head. And that's often English language learners that have that. Because they're coming from environments that maybe don't use the communicative approach as much as we do.

As we will see in the next two chapters, Luke regards grammar as being the core of English language teaching and learning. In his view, learning of the language rules occurs only when students are able to articulate the grammar points of a given exercise and not through practicing grammar in the form of a communicative activity, suggesting that his perception of language learning and teaching is more in line with his description of his students and not necessarily with the way they may be.

Louise perceives students from different nationalities to have different learning styles influencing the manner in which they contribute to the teaching and learning activity in the classroom.

> But it's different students, different learning styles. Some of them are more sociable. For example, these two fellows here, the French and the Peruvian. I think just they're a bit more sociable. They just mix with other nationalities more than perhaps the Chinese students. So, if you look at the Chinese, there is a stereotypical Chinese learning style. It's very much about rote learning and memorization maybe that works for them. And they feel confident with that style. I think they are moving away from a lot of that.... and this is Ahmed, the one from the Emirates who picks up on a lot of casual everyday language and he likes to use it.

Luke adds another dimension to the source of the problem, which is cultural difference. In Luke's opinion, the students' culture makes them unwilling to reveal their weak points by asking questions or participating in classroom activities. This makes it difficult for the teacher to note any potential problems.

> You get the cultures that sit there and they don't show that they don't understand. They might keep it inside and they might feel that showing that shows, you know, they are not as intelligent as others. So you give that supportive feeling in the classroom that, "It's okay to check things. It's okay if you don't understand because if you don't understand you need to ask so that you can do what we want you to do."

7.5.2 Bill.

Bill describes his students as *people* who have formed as *a group of friends* working *absolutely cooperatively ... without complaining* showing his positive response toward the students.

> When you think that these people three months ago, they didn't know each other, most importantly, hadn't met each other. And yet now they are able to work absolutely cooperatively. They work as a group of friends. For the most part, I don't think there's any hostility in this class, any hostility between one student and the other. They're always friendly. They always work well without complaining.

Bill views ESL learners' cultural background as an asset they bring into the language classroom, part of which is respect for the ones who teach them. He sees his students as people who mindfully follow their culture and this puts them in the position of power in that the teacher should earn their respect. Bill both appreciates, and attempts to earn, their respect by performing his teaching duties well.

> The most cultures that these people come from, there's a respect for the teacher, a thing that doesn't occur much in Australia. And the only way to lose the respect is by throwing away if you waste it. If you live up to it by doing a good job, then they are just going to automatically operate that way. It's not something that really needs to be reinforced or thought about.

The second commonality among ESL students is their decision to migrate to a new country, which, in Bill's opinion, requires a great deal of bravery and determination.

> Anybody who travels to another country to work or study has got certain amount of courage. The fact that they as a group, and this is speaking generally for most ESL students they come in, they've got a purpose and they settle down to an Australian way.

Bill appreciates that adult ESL learners come from a background in which their professional and personal identities have already been constructed. He is aware of this and does not see his students as separate from their established identities in their first language. In other words, he sees the whole individual connected to the social, historical, political, cultural, and educational context from which they come. This is elaborated in the following excerpt where he shows his understanding of the challenges his students have had in their personal lives when required to make important decisions and choices making them better people, which, in turn, influences the students they are in the classroom.

> As individuals, there are really admirable people in that group. There are dozens of them from time to time who have proven themselves to be outstanding people. In terms of personality, sheer intelligence, personal determination, cheerfulness, happiness, lots of different qualities. There's a Russian woman, Ekaterina, she's

> one of the quietly composed people I've ever met. She's had a hell of a life. She's had some pretty interesting experiences, dangerous experiences. When she was pregnant she was told if she went and had the baby, there was a very big chance that she would lose both the baby and her own life. She discussed it with her husband and they went ahead and had the baby. Everything was fine but that was still a risk. That's a personal thing. Not something that she told the whole class.

In addition to the challenges of their personal lives, Bill believes that his students' learning background and personal attributes positively influence the students they are in the classroom. Their wide learning experiences as well as their motivation have given them the potential to become disciplined learners taking responsibility for the teaching and learning activity.

> You never have to remind them, it's just unnecessary. They impose that discipline on themselves without even thinking about it. They don't see it as discipline. It's something that is necessary. And certainly I think they enjoy it.... They're very largely self-motivated. And they really don't need any form of motivation at all except an exercise that challenges them.

All this, in Bill's opinion, makes his adult students ideal, mindful language learners, creating a sense of trust in Bill, enabling him to put the learning activity into their hands.

Bill recognizes that his students have specialities in their own fields and based upon this they bring their learning experiences and expectations into the classroom. He regards the experiences to positively contribute to the type of students they are.

> These students know what's required from students. They've had so much experience of studying in so many different places. Mainly different teachers have taught them so many different things and at so many different levels. They're expert students and they know that they are required to work well with other people. It's a part of the classroom.

The last three excerpts show that Bill does not make a distinction between his learning background (a Western one) and that of his students' (non-Western background). He admires their discipline, motivation for language learning, and their

past teachers. More interestingly, he sees his work as a teacher as being a continuation of the work of other teachers (the non-Western ones).

Bill also sees his students as individuals with individual learning styles irrespective of their nationality, a construction of the student-Other which is quite different from the other three teachers. For this reason, Bill familiarizes himself with his students' different personalities and learning styles as much as possible.

> Victoria started off. She's a very composed person. She's a Korean English teacher herself ... Mehrnoosh ... she's quite an exceptional student. She's quite a dominant personality and you might have observed that because she was pretty quick to answer the questions and tell people what to do. She does it nicely. She's one of these rare people who you teach them one thing and they learn two or three things. She puts together lots of different pieces of information into a related framework. She just learns remarkably quickly.

To Bill, "student as learner" and "student as person" are intertwined and this makes him see each student as *a whole person*, rather than only as learners in his class.

> I'm always interested in these people as a group of people just as much as a group of students. It's always really interesting to see how they do work.

7.5.3 Summary.

Ann, Luke and Louise referred to the people they taught as: *they, them, their lives, adults, students, the others, migrants, international students, certain waves of students, [(English) language] learners, Chinese, Indonesians, this group, de-motivated students, weaker students, their classmates,* etc. This suggests that they regard the students as a group distinct from their teachers, a group possessing features with which they do not identify (S. Hall, 2003; K. Woodward, 1997). They attribute stable features to the students and see themselves as being unable to influence those negatively impacting on their teaching. They also look at the students as a group with little attention to their individuality. In some instances, the teachers talked about individual students,

but this was to use the individuals as examples supporting assumptions about the features they believed the students as a group possessed.

Bill, clearly, thinks highly of his students describing them as: *cooperative, friendly, respectful, courageous, purposeful, determined, admirable, outstanding, intelligent, cheerful, composed, exceptional,* and *expert students.* Moreover, when referring to his students, he addresses them as: *people, individuals, group of friends, (ESL) students, they,* and *them*. This suggests that, in contrast to the other teachers in the study, Bill does not see the students as Others, representative of ethnic groups or nationalities different from his own (Tajfel, 1981). Rather, he sees them from the individual and student level, helping him see the totality of the human beings with whom he works. A look back into Bill's teaching experience will remind us that he gained ESL teaching experience initially by teaching a variety of people in different parts of the world. This opportunity, perhaps, challenged him to learn about students, their cultures, and learning styles helping him gain a deeper and a more meaningful insight into people's similarities and differences. Living far from home possibly helped him to understand the meaning of living and studying in a foreign country. His fascination with literature from a young age shows not only his interest in understanding human beings but also his view that humans share universal features with which all can identify.

An implication of the above is that teachers' construction of student identity, i.e., the Other, strongly contributes to identifying instructional boundaries and hence setting teaching objectives. This, as is shown in the next chapter, works more strongly than the teaching objectives identified by the curriculum. A second implication is that, as documented in Chapter Nine, the teachers' negative comments about their students are perhaps more related to their particular teaching styles, which are a reflection of their own identity rather than that of their students (Brown, 2003b).

7.6 Discussion

The purpose of the qualitative study was an in-depth exploration of ESL teacher knowledge and its connections with the classroom context and practice. Although the qualitative data was analysed in light of ESL teacher knowledge categories obtained from the first phase, there were some pieces of data that could not be explained within those categories. When referring to their students (i.e., the classroom context), the teachers would constantly refer to themselves and their own life histories. They would then make connections between themselves and their descriptions of their students. It was in this way that a new category, teacher identity, emerged. An important feature of this category is that it influences teachers' construction of student identity. I call teacher identity, knowledge of oneself and teachers' construction of student identity, knowledge of the students. The word knowledge here, firstly, does not imply that the teachers are fully aware of their constructions of their own and their students' identities. Teachers appear to differ in this level of awareness. Second, it refers to an identity-based concept, rather than a cognitive-based one as the word knowledge may imply.

As a result, in this chapter, I have attempted to answer three major questions. The first is: *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher identity?*

In answering this question, I have drawn on ideas from the notion of Self, communities of practice, ESL teacher identity in the form of teacher roles, and constructions of the Other. This discussion was directed by the information teachers provided in their interviews and correspondences. Thus, I would suggest that the main elements of the experienced ESL teacher identity are: the Self (the "I" and the "me"), the roles they wish to enact as teachers, and the manner they relate their understanding of their own Selves with their understandings of the student-Other. What shapes these

elements are teachers' histories and experiences, their teacher education, and their sense of belongingness to the communities of ESL teachers.

On the interrelationships of these elements, the data suggested that teachers construct and reconstruct their Selves through their different life experiences. Teacher identity, in the form of teacher roles, is developed from the Self as teacher-students interact with the training courses, other teachers, and their teaching experiences to become members of the community of ESL teachers.

As explained earlier, the categories of teacher knowledge were extracted from teachers' responses to a questionnaire designed on the basis of the courses student-teachers take to become ESL teachers. Looking back at the findings of the quantitative phase of the study, the results should allow us to accept that, in teacher education programs, there is little room for teachers to learn about their own Selves even though identity or knowledge of Self seems to play an important role in shaping teachers, what they think, and what they do in the classroom.

The next finding of this chapter is on teachers' construction of the student-Other identity, or *how teachers construct the identity of the student-Other*. As discussed, the Self constitutes the "I" and the "me" (Mead, 1934). Our perception of the Self requires that the "I" constantly make comparisons between the "me" and the Other to reach recognition of the similarities we share with Others as well as differences (Gilman, 2003; Jenkins, 2004). Consequently, a product of the recognition of the Self is the recognition of the Other. This suggests that the source of knowledge of the students (the Other) is the Self. Hence, teachers construct the identity of the student-Other by comparing their Selves and identities with the Other (i.e., students).

The exploratory factor analysis, in Chapter Five, clustered learner sensitivities & learning styles, classroom organization, nonverbal communication in L2 learning, language testing, and teaching English in international contexts closely together forming the knowledge of learners category. The qualitative study suggests that the teachers' knowledge of learners consists of their personal understandings of *learner sensitivities & learning styles* and *nonverbal communication in L2 learning*. The teachers showed interest in making comparisons between their Western and their students' non-Western education systems. This was, again, grounded in their personal interpretations of non-Western education systems rather than knowledge based in facts. Teachers' limited emphasis on *teaching English in international* contexts in the quantitative study suggested that they saw little importance in knowing about education systems in other parts of the world and the potential impact it could have on their instruction. Within these understandings, teachers exert their personal ways of *classroom organization* in order to set the grounds for facilitating student learning. Although *language testing* was not elaborated in this chapter, in the next chapter we will see that teachers' knowledge of students can, in special circumstances, be reduced to their knowledge of language testing.

The chapter suggests that *the structure of ESL classroom context* is composed of the identity teachers possess and those they construct for their students. The notion of the classroom context is constructed through the interaction of these two identities. Hence, the classroom context, from a teaching point of view, is where teachers' understandings of who they are interact with their understandings of who their students are. The findings also imply that teachers' portrayal of the social context of the classroom is dominated by oversimplifications of the actual complexities of student and teacher interactions, i.e., stereotypes (Jenkins, 2004). Since such oversimplifications

cause the teachers to overlook the interconnections between the different key factors constructing the context, they see themselves as being unable to control unpleasant situations. I suggest that critical reflection on one's teaching and Self and the construction of the student-Other can help teachers gain a deeper understanding of the social dynamics at work in the classroom.

I point out that the nature of the knowledge of Self and knowledge of the students is different from the knowledge types discussed in the next chapter in that the latter is cognitive in nature and the former is identity related. The literature discussed in chapters three and five has not made such distinctions between the different knowledge types. The next chapter focuses on the structure of ESL teacher thinking. At the end, the findings of the chapter along with the findings of the quantitative study and those of the present chapter are discussed.

Chapter 8: ESL Teacher Thinking

8.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the key elements of ESL teacher knowledge that play a role in teacher thinking and ultimately practice. These are the teachers' understanding of the nature of language and language learning, the processes of material development, and the stages of lesson planning. We will also see how teacher identity interacts with thinking. Hence, the evolving research question I attempt to answer is: *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher thinking for the purposes of teaching adults?*

8.2 Language and Language Learning

The participant teachers all described themselves as having a communicative language teaching approach. For this reason, examining the similarities and differences between the various descriptions of the CLT in the literature and that of the teachers is taken as a starting point.

Language, from one point of view, is composed of a hierarchy of phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic components which separately become the objective of teaching (J. K. Hall, 1997). In a different manner, language is seen as a tool for expressing meaning at the core of which stand communication and interaction (J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001) meaning that language is a social activity connected to the context or setting in which it takes place (Savignon, 1983). Looking at language from a social and interactional point of view entails linking a cultural aspect to it as well, seeing linguistic and cultural knowledge as closely and discursively intertwined (J. K. Hall, 1997; Watson-Gegeo, 2004). Thus, the components of language, from language as

a cultural artefact perspective, become "the symbolic tools and resources around which our practices are organized" (J. K. Hall, 1997, p. 303). These are the constituent components of what Hymes (1972, 1974) called communicative competence.

Hence, according to Savignon (1983), knowledge of language, from a communicative perspective entails: knowledge of "the *lexical, morphological, syntactic,* and *phonological* features of a language" (p. 37); knowledge of connecting isolated utterances and sentences into "a meaningful whole" (p. 38); an understanding of "*what* to say" and "*how* to say it" (p.37); and the use of "paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style" (p. 41).

Based on the above, it should be expected that the teachers in the study attribute to language features such as communication, collaborative interaction, expression of meaning, context-dependant, and purposeful. It is also presumed that they view language learning as demonstrated through students' manipulation of grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences as involved in purposeful activities. The quantitative findings also allow us to expect teachers' knowledge of language to consist of knowledge of phonology, morphology, grammar, pragmatics, and word meaning & use (i.e., knowledge of language components). Their knowledge of language learning should entail those prevalent theories of first and second language learning taught at the tertiary level (i.e., knowledge of language learning theories).

8.2.1 The Teachers.

8.2.1.1 Luke.

For Luke, grammar is at the very heart of language due to the meaning-carrying property he attributes to it. He believes that only through understanding the structure of a language and the relationships between the structural components can language learners comprehend and ultimately use language. He views language as being composed of smaller discrete elements and components, meaningfully connected through grammar.

> I think grammar is the basis of everything else.... Really it lets you access the meaning and lets you manipulate that to your advantage. So that, if you can understand, say for example with present perfect, that someone is meaning that an action has started in the past and the result is continuing up to the present, if you can't get that from the grammar, then you don't know their real meaning. I mean you can put little bits together but you don't have the whole picture there.

Luke's interpretation of communicative competence is the integration of the four macro skills, rather than the manipulation of grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. A "competent communicator" is therefore one who is able to actively integrate the four language skills.

> To be a competent communicator, like something that Dell Hymes would talk about it, if you want to go down into that, you need all those four areas [of language skills]. And there's no point having one and not the others because it doesn't get you anywhere. You might be a beautiful writer but whenever anyone wants to speak to you about that writing, you have to listen to them. If your listening's not there, then communication doesn't happen.

Hence, grammar has the role of feeding meaning into the four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, each of which are developed separately. What makes one language learner more proficient than others is the skilful connection of the four skills through grammar in actual language use.

Luke holds the view that all human beings are predisposed with *instincts for language*, which he calls "feelings for language". These feelings are always with language learners and are activated and further developed only when learners consciously analyse language and explicitly state its rules. Explicitly articulating or thinking about language rules enhances the development of feelings for language, which results in language production[13].

> And language learners haven't developed that kind of feel aspect to what they understand with language.... It comes with experience but it also comes about, you know, really thinking about it, really going into deep details and set one or two examples and really thinking about why.... But once you start noticing it, that feeling starts developing and the more you notice it the stronger the feeling gets. And then you get to that point where you can actually use that feeling when you are producing your own language. And it's something that language learning ... I think any approach to language learning hasn't quite got down.

A point requiring attention is that language learning, from Luke's point of view, does not take place through interaction or practice of any kind but it takes place through *noticing* language rules. The teacher can help learners notice these rules not by exposing them to diverse examples but by having them *think deeply* about and explicitly state the rules. Looking back at Luke's initial language teaching experience, perhaps we could make connections between his close attention to grammar in the Japanese approach to English language teaching and Luke's emphasis on the centrality of grammar learning and the articulation of grammar rules. In the excerpts above, Luke is referring to cognitive theories of language, proposed by Pinker (1994) and Chomsky (1975, 1986), which describe language as being innately hardwired into the brain. These understandings seem to be connected to his postgraduate study in applied linguistics.

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[13] This was also discussed in Chapter Seven, section 7.4.1.4 Teacher as Theory Builder.

8.2.1.2 Bill.

Language, to Bill, is communication and grammar is the meaning component of language shaping the structure of sentences. Without the help of grammar attempts to comprehend meaning would be hopeless.

> [Grammar is] Not fundamentally [important], but still it is an important element. That's because you can't possibly have English communication, apart from the nonverbal, without grammar. Even if you just make an exclamation or say one word, there's still an implied grammar there. You know, it's the same as photography. If you take the photograph of something black at a dark night, you may not have shape, or form or even colour. So, it's pretty useless. You can't have an English sentence, you can't form one or understand one unless you have some concept of word order and grammar.

Language learning is, in Bill's view, very much a social activity in that he believes that language learning takes place as students interact with one another to solve a problem (i.e., usually a grammar problem) or as they discuss language rules with the teacher. Bill believes that students learn language best in the classroom when immersed in social activities through grammar rule discussions.

> Every day for a lesson, ... I think there's got to be at least some group discussion.... helping each other putting their own minds for the task and with me interrupting from time to time just to direct things in a particular direction if necessary.... but there's still elements of individual learning and teacher control.... If the students can give each other the information, they start learning knowledge. They're thinking things out and they're helping each other with their English language communication.... the main focus ... should be on the students learning new things, practicing new skills all the time.... The teacher's got to ... make sure they're [the students] getting the constant practice whether it's speaking or writing or the more open-ended exercises where they're practicing what they've learnt.

Bill is exerting control when he says: *and with me interrupting from time to time just to direct things in a particular direction, elements of ... teacher control,* and *The teacher's got to make sure they're getting constant practice*. He is also granting the students agency in: *helping each other putting their own minds for the task, elements of ... individual learning, If the students can give each other the information,* and *They're*

thinking things out and they're helping each other. It seems that power is constantly shifted from the teacher to the students and vice versa, making it possible to teach through having the students socially interact with one another and the teacher, which is the manner through which Bill perceives language learning to take place.

Bill also shows great interest in grammar teaching. His interest in grammar started from the time he was a student. At the time Bill went to primary school, grammar teaching did not have a place in the curriculum. Being dissatisfied with his teachers' explanations, Bill had problems in understanding grammar. This problem with grammar became more significant when he attended teachers' college.

> We were given a test at teachers' college and about three quarters of the group failed it. So, they gave us another test a couple of weeks later. And we all failed it again. So, they gave us the first one again a couple of weeks later. Having it being corrected in class, we still failed it. So they passed us all. I think there was a shortage of teachers.

Bill gradually managed to turn this weakness into strength.

> But over the years, I've become more and more interested in grammar and more and more aware of it. And to me, it's a good body of knowledge to have and I like to share that with the students.

Bill views language learning as social activity through which students collaboratively interact and communicate with a purpose. In his opinion, the language classroom is a place with opportunities for students to practice and reflect on language rules with the help of the teacher and their peers. As mentioned in the previous chapter, Bill is very interested in attending to, and observing, individuals. He likes to communicate with his students and focuses on thinking and decision-making in his teaching, which is very much in harmony with his emphasis on language learning through communication and social interaction.

8.2.1.3 Louise.

Language, in Louise's opinion, is a means of expressing concepts, which are best conveyed through words. Hence, the first element of language is words carrying a person's ideas and worldview as well as imposing structure on the meanings one intends to express.

> You need vocabulary before you can manipulate grammar. You need a certain store of words before you could put those words into sentences. You can then create correct sentences with minimal amount of vocabulary.... You need to generate vocabulary apart from generating concepts.... Then, you've got to manipulate the concept.

Knowledge of vocabulary, to Louise, entails an understanding of context and the place of vocabulary and concepts within a given context.

> So there has to be some attention to appropriacy before you've got the confidence and the ability to manipulate on the spot. When I say appropriacy, I mean having the right word for the situation at a very basic level not at a sophisticated level.... Appropriacy probably carries some sense of sophistication and register, which is going to come much later at perhaps a more intermediate level.

Language learning, in Louise's writing class, started with the students being presented with a series of concepts, in the form of a checklist, outlining the negative side of sending one's child to childcare centres. Her purpose was to have the better students take up the concepts and use them in the classroom discussions. This, Louise reasoned, would give the other students reflection time as well as some ideas to use in discussion.

> I put up that checklist there because I anticipated that they may not have a lot of [childcare-related] experience.... So I was thinking of providing ideas.... Some of them [the students] have taken them [the list of ideas] on board, others not. Some of them have more sophisticated, more critical and more analytical thinking processes and they can cope with this variety [variety of ideas in the checklist provided by the teacher].... [I'm asking them to discuss in groups] So that they can support each other.... And some who may have less to contribute or the ones with no ideas can benefit from the others' contribution.... But then the others might be more passive learners or they might need more reflection time.

The concepts provided would be used to demonstrate how the students could use them in an acceptable language pattern. The patterns were also provided in the form of templates. Manipulation of the concepts into the formulaic structures of the discourse was a sign that students had learnt the lesson perfectly. Language, from Louise's stand point, is all about making meaning by having control over the generation of acceptable sentence structures and discourse.

> It's no good me giving it [the structure] to them and saying write this down.... They've got a model or a template to use ... because it's convention; it's what's acceptable in Western discourse.... They need to gain control of their sentence structure and the discourse features ... [because language is] all about making meaning and being understood.

All in all, Louise views vocabulary as the most important part of language. She believes that concepts and ideas are best communicated through the meanings and structures words impose on messages. Her attention to words comes both from being an avid reader—"I suppose it's [love of words] developed from a love of reading."—and from her past experience working with people with hearing loss and dementia:

> But with the elderly you would focus on key words. You wouldn't think about grammar because they are native speakers in most cases. And you may paraphrase because they don't understand it. You don't say it louder, you say it in a different way. You approach it from a different angle.

Language learning, from Louise's point of view, involves students' active thinking about concepts and world knowledge, which can be provided by the teacher. Students also need to practice expressing the concepts provided by the teacher by manipulating them in templates of sentence patterns and discourse structures, which are also provided by the teacher. Hence, language learning is the manipulation of fixed language patterns that can be learned through repeated imitations. It is only then that students can create original pieces of writing. Furthermore, since concepts impose structure, it is even more essential to know the right concepts in order to manipulate

them meaningfully in their corresponding patterns. To make all this happen, collaborative exchange of ideas between the students and the teacher should take place to help the more intellectually sophisticated students shape concepts into discourse structures. The more passive or reflective students can also benefit by observing the collaboration and the process of shaping discourse. Again, we may be tempted to make connections between Louise as a nurse and her tendency to provide everything for her students and to support and control their learning in a process which could be described as 'spoon feeding'.

8.2.1.4 Ann.

The main elements of language, in Ann's opinion, are single items of vocabulary in that she believes words have more real-life utility than grammar. In other words, language communicates meaning which has a purpose. Since people use language in everyday life to carry out everyday tasks, the meaning conveyed through words is primarily of a pragmatic nature. Hence, words, and in turn language, predominantly serve a pragmatic purpose. Similarly, speaking and listening are of primary importance and reading and writing of secondary importance.

> It doesn't matter how much grammar you have if you can't actually do anything with it. You can't necessarily use vocab if you don't know what to do with it either. I think you can get by and make yourself understood if you've got language.... But ... if you go to visit a foreign country, you don't want to be re-writing notes to people, you want to talk to them. So I ... emphasize the need for being able to speak and listen as being more important than reading & writing. In these situations in which they are likely to use a foreign language.

In Ann's opinion, by knowing words, people can make themselves understood and get their message across. Grammar, however, is not of any use if a person does not have the words with which to use the grammar rules. For the students in her class, Ann

also believes that the language they need to know is words and their functions in the form of functional phrases as well as understanding of appropriateness and use.

> Being able to function and do basic everyday things that you need to do to get by. They [the students] need to be able to get around in the community and talk to people and catch buses and buy food. And they don't really need to be able to sit home and read a novel in English if they don't want to. But they need to actually live in a community which involves communication skills of language and culture, appropriateness.

Since words are essential in fulfilling everyday needs, language learning, in Ann's class, focuses on vocabulary teaching. It was essential for her students to see relevance between their needs and the new vocabulary. Learning began with seeing the object, its corresponding word, listening to the pronunciation of the word, and repeating it after the teacher. The purpose was to help the students retain vocabulary so that they could ultimately use it in real life communication. If they could not remember, Ann believed repetition or referring the students to past lessons was helpful.

> And they're very low level so I just try to give them stuff that's relevant.... It's actually good for them [the students] to see it [the word]. Because if I'm teaching the word, I don't want to write it right away.... I wanted them to focus on learning the word and listening to the word.... [There are times that I ask them to repeat] just to say the word, perhaps to reinforce it, to remember.... You got to remember [the word]. You got to get it [the word] somehow from the short-term memory into the long-term. So, I mean, a lot of it's there [pointing to her head] in the lesson; short term memory, short-term memory, but an hour later it's gone.... the repetition might have helped them if they were struggling [to remember the word].... [Or], if I say, "You've learned this", it helps them to reflect and remember [the word].

Remembering individual words was not enough. Students also needed to learn to manipulate the words functionally in context (for example, making requests properly). Ann believed that this could best be done in the form of drills practiced in the class. The drills also helped Ann diagnose any possible problems in the students' language learning. Group-work, according to Ann, could encourage weaker students not to participate and allow them to remain quiet while individual work assisted her in detecting students' weak points. Language learning, to Ann, also entailed a collaborative

effort between the students to support one another to understand the teacher in the social context of the classroom.

> [They need] to practice the vocab and the functions, the expressions [in the drills], and to be able to maybe take that out of the classroom and use it.... they can model it [drills] for the others if they had mastered it.... [I also want to] assess their knowledge. Have they got it? Have they not got it? ... Group-work tends to sometimes encourage some students not to put in. So you have to give them the opportunity to show what they can do on their own as well.... they are very good at helping each other as you've seen. And they will explain it in Mandarin when they need to which I have no problems with.

Ann sees language as a having a utilitarian purpose, that is aiding students in accomplishing tasks. Words, the core of language, carry both meaning and function in a sentence. For lower level students she believes it is best to have them learn language through isolated words using visual prompts so that they automatically associate words with objects. Language learning for Ann's students is an act of information processing; that is, students need to move words from their short-term memory to their long-term memory through repetition and practice. The next level of language learning is being able to memorize the learnt words in functional phrases and ultimately use them in appropriate real-life contexts. However, if as is the case for many of Ann's students, they do not practice the lessons, are constantly missing classes, adhere to "wrong ways" of learning, and are not well motivated, they will have problems in going through these stages of language learning. In the next chapter, where I discuss the main tenets of the audiovisual method, we will see close connections between Ann's thinking about language and language learning and the audiovisual method.

8.2.2 Summary.

The teachers' understandings of the nature of language and its main constituent elements seem to have been shaped in light of their personal experience with language. Their understandings of language learning seem closely connected to a combination of

their particular field of study and/or their previous work experience plus their understanding of the nature of language. As a result, it appears that the various theories of language teaching and learning found in the tertiary courses, referred to earlier, have either had little impact on these understandings, or in the case of Luke (on communicative competence), they have been *adjusted* to the teacher's mindset. This is also in line with the discussion presented in the previous chapter that through teacher training, teachers redefine and give direction to their Selves.

The qualitative and quantitative findings in relation to teachers' knowledge of language and language learning are compared under section "8.5 Discussion" in the present chapter.

8.3. Planning and Designing

As curriculum refers to the general planning and implementation of instruction in an educational setting at the local or government level (J. C. Richards, 2001), it is not appropriate to focus on this level of planning since the participant teachers were not involved in the planning of the curriculum. Rather, I start this section at the level of syllabus. Syllabus is the translation of curriculum objectives into a practical and feasible framework specifying the instructional goals, focus , content, sequence, and level (Breen, 2001; J. C. Richards, 2001). On the role of teachers in relation to syllabuses, Bell (1983) states that most teachers are implementers of other people's plans while very few have the role of designing the teaching syllabus. When teachers are free to design and implement their own plans into classroom teaching, they feel responsible for identifying students' language learning needs, selecting and grading teaching content, developing teaching materials, checking student learning, and the overall evaluation of the course (Nunan, 2002). The teachers in the study, with the exception of Louise, were

not free to design the syllabus but were in the position to implement their own interpretation of the syllabus into their classroom teaching.

All teachers followed either a competency-based (TAFE) or a skills-based (ELICOS) syllabus. Competency-based syllabus is "based on a specification of the competencies learners are expected to master in relation to specific situations and activities" (J. C. Richards, 2001, p. 159). These competencies refer to those successful behaviours individuals carry out in real-life situations, either at work or social life, upon entering a new environment, that is a new country (ibid). A skills-based syllabus "is organized around the different underlying abilities involved in using language for purposes such as reading, writing, listening, or speaking" (J. C. Richards, 2001, p. 159). By identifying the constituent "microskills" that may play a role in carrying out a language related activity such as 'listening for the main idea', a skills syllabus provides "a practical framework for designing courses and teaching materials" (p. 161). A skills-based syllabus is used in programs aiming to prepare non-English speaking individuals to enter English medium universities (ibid).

Materials design, "the interface of syllabus design and methodology" (Nunan, 1991, p. 214) realizes the teacher's beliefs about the nature of language and language learning in a more concrete manner (J. C. Richards & Rodgers, 2001). That is, materials both reveal and actualize the teacher's language and learning ideologies (Nunan, 1991). Jolly and Bolitho (1998) argue that the best materials are learner-centred ones based on the needs, interests, and weaknesses of language learners, rather than materials chiefly derived from the syllabus. Tomlinson (2003) defines instructional materials as any source—i.e. books, videos, cassettes, photocopied exercises, magazines, newspapers, dictionaries, etc.—that teachers or students use to help language learning and the act of material development as "anything which is done by writers, teachers, or learners to

provide sources of language input and to exploit those sources in ways which maximise the likelihood of intake" (p. 2). Bill and Louise both mentioned the internet as a source in addition to the ones named by Tomlinson:

> The first one I've written myself, this exercise. And the second one, I found something on Wikipedia, as usual, and modified that slightly and just altered each version to gather a few words and phrases here and there a couple of paragraphs so that each one is different. (Bill)

Jolly and Bolitho (1998) outline a recursive framework for material development starting from identification of students' language learning needs derived from feedback from the students, needs analysis, course materials, student evaluation, etc. Once the need has been identified, the teacher consults different sources, i.e. dictionary, grammar books, etc., to 'explore' the linguistic form, meaning, function, and skills relevant to the problem. Afterwards, the teacher attempts to figure out the best way(s) of making connections between the students and the problem to maximize learning. This can be done through thinking about the different ways a given problem can be identified. The pedagogical realisation of materials, selection of suitable activities from sources available and planning the order and instructions for the materials, is followed by the writing up of the activity, physical production, and finally using the materials in the classroom. Once the materials have been used in the classroom, or in some cases not used, the teacher considers the degree to which the intended objective has been met. Jolly and Bolitho (1998) emphasize that the material development is a dynamic process requiring the teacher to constantly move back and forth between the stages.

The teachers in this study shared a similar approach to the design of instructional materials. What differed was the content they implemented at each step. At the top of the hierarchy were the teaching objectives. That is, when designing and/or looking for materials, the teachers first considered teaching objectives as determined by the syllabus,

the students, the teachers' own analysis of students' learning needs or a combination of the three.

> And there are certain learning outcomes for each level… The outcomes state what the students will be able to achieve. It's in terms of competency-based outcomes. (Ann)

For the particular class Luke was teaching, the course objectives were derived from the students.

> So, sometimes it [course objectives] would be the syllabus and you need to cover, say, that point. But with this group [of students] there's actually no syllabus and I'm inventing it as I go. And it's coming from them.

Likewise, Bill did not see himself as paying much attention to the course objectives (syllabus):

> They [course objectives] are pretty much standardized and the assessment tasks relate to them but… [I do] not [pay] as much [attention] as other teachers, perhaps experienced teachers would. I tend to see them in some ways as justification for a course taking place rather than the actual product of the course. They're very useful for providing a framework and a structure for a course and what you're going to be achieving or working on each particular week.

Ann talks about the syllabus in relation to her own knowledge of the learning needs of her students (i.e., knowledge of the students):

> But these guys live here. So they need some skills in terms of living in the community as well as speaking… I know where they need to get to… It's [The syllabus is] my own thinking. What do you need to know? What's useful to know?

I see as necessary to refer back to the discussion of teacher construction of the student-Other presented in the previous chapter. The excerpts above indicate that the identity the teachers construct for their students is one strong determinant of the teaching objectives they set for their students.

Course objectives also provide topics for teaching. In the case of Bill, when it came to topics for teaching, he followed the course descriptions outlined by the institute.

But in terms of skill development, he closely examined his students' level and needs to assist them in building those areas that required improvement:

> As well as teaching a skill, we're teaching a body of information that the skill is much more important than the information.... So, I do it based on what I think will develop the skills they've got.... So, it's more bringing them together on skills which I think our students are being useful or necessary but not specifically toward one particular subject or another.

Once the course objectives had been made clear, the teachers set out to find teaching materials. These, as mentioned above, were from a range of different sources. When selecting, altering, or writing material from scratch, three factors come into play. First the students:

> But you keep in mind also that the level of these students and their particular interests. Even the subject "Australian Exploration" I knew that they were interested in that. I knew what they knew and didn't know about it. So, I was able to pitch the handouts. Yeah, a combination of experience and being aware of the particular needs I suppose and interests of this group. (Bill)

Next the features of the material:

> So I thought this would be pretty good. It divides itself neatly into sea exploration and land exploration… You gather valuable information, divide it up and require the students to give a separate reading and answer questions together.... As I wrote it myself, I was in control of the essay. I wanted them to be fairly extended sentences, usually to have an adverbial phrase and a main clause. I wanted them to have variations. Sometimes the conjunctions coming earlier sometimes later. So not exactly the standard structure, but I did want them to be fairly formal in manner. (Bill)

> I think I probably look for resources that are useful for what I want to achieve. And then decide what I'm going to do with them. You get the resource and then what will I do? Will I do jigsaw reading? Will I get them to answer questions? Will I get them to do a piece of group writing in response to this? You then look at the resources and then there's a whole range of things I could do with this. What am I going to do today? What am I going to achieve? What skills do I focus on? What do they need work on? (Ann)

Finally, the teachers' personal response to the material:

> And you think, "I don't like that [material]". And you think, "How am I going to teach that?" I often find myself kind of making my own material to cover that point instead because different teachers choose different materials. Because they think they would be good at teaching and they know ways of teaching it very well.

> I think, you know, because of that choice not everyone's going to choose the same material. If you give teachers a bunch of materials some would look at it and say, "Oh that's great!" and some would go, "What am I going to do with that?" (Luke)

> You know from experience which or what handouts are going to be useful and how you want the lesson to go. (Bill)

At the end of the decision-making stage, the teachers decide upon implementing the material, making changes to it, or writing materials of their own. They were all in favour of having the freedom to devise their own teaching materials despite finding it time-consuming:

> [I find devising my own material] Challenging and time-consuming, but enjoyable. I like it a lot. I mean the ability to choose.... But it can be time-consuming because you have to actually go in and do a little bit of research. And think about what you're going to cover with them. And then go away find something you can develop to become a lesson. That can be quite time-consuming. But it makes lessons more enjoyable for me and I think when I'm enjoying myself and when I'm making a lesson that's hopefully more enjoyable, the students get more out of it. (Luke)

> We are given freedom in what we have or teach and what activities we use for them to reach these particular levels of ability which I think is excellent.... I enjoy constructing it [the reading passage]. Getting the decision-making of how to, how to have the same article appearing similar but actually being different. (Bill)

> I think it's better for the students.... You teach what you want to teach. What you think is best to teach rather than because it's on page 10 and that's where you're up to. (Ann)

One factor that can impact on the process described above is the influence of tests:

> With this group I teach whatever is important because I know they are not going to be tested. Unfortunately, with other groups they get tested and if we don't teach towards what is going to be tested, then they're not going to do so well on the test usually.... It's [teaching and testing] intertwined. It's not really the test it should be the syllabus itself [that teachers are supposed to follow]. You're supposed to follow the syllabus. And then we use the test to see how they're doing on that point. But you know how it ends up. You know you're not trying to teach for the test sometimes. You know how it ends up. But with this class I do have freedom. I don't need to test them. (Luke)

> I don't teach with these guys towards testing… there's a lot of teaching towards testing that goes on at the higher level. We have to, even though in reality we're not supposed to. Because they have to do very specific learning outcomes…

> And the learning outcome material is set out. You don't choose that. That's there for you to use. You access that from online resources… [But with these guys] No one says, "You have to teach this vocabulary or you have to teach them how to buy something in the shop". (Ann)

A test is said to have a washback effect when it causes "teachers and learners do things they would not necessarily otherwise do because of the test" (Alderson & Wall, 1993, p. 117). Washback effect can be positive or negative. If a test causes teachers to better plan and prepare before the lesson or helps them to externally motivate students, it is claimed to have a positive washback effect. Negative washback, on the other hand, occurs when a test pressures teachers to be outcome focused and demand the students to only produce good results and consequently teach to the test (Alderson & Wall, 1993). In the case of Louise, she carefully followed the syllabus designed by the institute. Since her students were regularly assessed on each new lesson, both she and the other teachers teaching the same course were required to adhere to the objectives of the syllabus, rather than teach based on students' immediate needs.

> It's a framework, the essay, the outline around the childcare issue. If I go too far from that I think I'm creating a disadvantage for the students because most of the other teachers will probably use a set format… Also, I know their Friday essay will be on a related topic so I didn't want to take them too far away from that type of issue… Because it could be for example, care of the elderly in nursing homes. I'm not sure. I don't know. I don't determine it.

Teaching and learning outcomes, represented through students' performance on a series of tests, is the most important objective of the institute. Louise explains that they were attempting to "standardize" their teaching and achieve "consistency across the same classes" through a set of consecutive tests. In order to accomplish this goal, it seemed the teachers had limited say in the development of the syllabus and the tests.

Due to the particular objectives of the syllabus, Louise regards it as being essential to direct students' attention to the short-term goals of the course (the tests), to both motivate them and give them insight into the direction in which they were heading.

However, Louise did not entirely agree with the objectives of the institute. She saw the main problem being the syllabus's lack of attention to students' real English proficiency levels.

> Most of the students will go to our foundation diploma where they'll study more content related material and then I think they'll go into second year university which is very alarming considering the level of ability some of them don't have.

Another problem was the connection between the students' writing course and their English language needs upon entering university.

> Some of them will be doing more humanities subjects. If they're going to do business, I don't know what the endpoint is but I think they'll probably be doing lots of accounting subjects. I don't know if they have to write essays arguing for one issue over another.

For Louise, restricted by the objectives of the syllabus through a set of un-negotiated tests, the syllabus by itself did not seem to be accommodating the learning needs of the variety of the students across the six writing classes at the institute. In addition, as a teacher, she felt dissatisfied with both the course objectives and student outcomes since she felt unable to do anything to improve the situation.

Research findings on negative and positive influences of tests are varied and somewhat confusing. Nevertheless, my observations of Louise's teaching is in line with studies investigating the influence of testing on teachers (Burrows, 2004; Cheng, 1999, 2005; Ferman, 2004; Hayes & Read, 2004; Scaramucci, 2002; Wall, 2005) revealing that tests do not exert influence on teachers' practice and beliefs about language learning and teaching although they may influence them to focus more on teaching and learning outcomes.

The planning of the lesson, or the "road map" teachers use to make their way through the lesson taking students with them (Bailey, 1996), is a crucial feature of

successful classroom teaching (J. C. Richards, 1998). The planning process begins from the time teachers start to develop teaching ideas (the material development stage I have already discussed); it is not restricted to "the writing of the pages of notes with headings such as 'Aims' and 'Anticipated Problems' to be given in to an observer before they watch you teach" (T. Woodward, 2001, p. 1). According to Harmer (2007), at the preplanning phase, teachers simultaneously think about a number of factors (i.e., the expectations of the syllabus, students' needs, interests, competency, recent lessons, and the possible teaching materials) influential in shaping the actual lesson. (The teachers referred to the material development stage as the preplanning phase.) While at the planning stage, teachers think about realizing those factors in a cohesively integrated plot with a beginning and an end. In doing so, they need to consider teaching objectives, timing and sequencing of tasks, transitioning from one task/stage to another, and possible learner problems and their solutions (ibid). Based on the teacher's experience and expertise, lesson plans can vary in form—i.e., written or mental—and scope—i.e., specifying every detail or an outline (Harmer, 2007).

> I plan the main parts of the lesson. I have an idea and at what stage of the lesson I'm going to change an activity. But at this stage of my teaching career, I don't plan through every little detail because I know I can handle those little things as they crop up. As we mentioned before, this is decision-making. You've got a little time to do this, to do that. And years ago, when I was a younger teacher, I probably would have made sure that I had these things sorted out, neatly piled. And it probably would save a little bit of time. You keep your concentration for the important things instead of spending all your time concentrating on every little thing. (Bill)
>
> As an inexperienced teacher, you have that plan. You follow a plan. But, after a while you work out quickly that there is often no reason to follow the plan and there are certain points that you get to that. You get to some of those moments in the classroom and you realize they've [the students] got this. Or they [the students] haven't got it. If they got it, you can go on to the next task. (Luke)
>
> So, I have a plan of what I'm going to do and the content, and obviously a photocopy or whatever. I had to prepare that. But then, I tend to let the things go in the direction that the students take it. (Ann)

Good lesson planning helps the teacher to think ahead about ways to involve the students, encourage classroom participation, and arrange opportunities for student interactions, all of which means good management of classroom time and student behaviour with the purpose of making instruction as productive as possible (Hedge, 2000). Nevertheless, due to the complexity of teaching, teachers depart from their "best-laid plans" when realizing the lesson plan in classroom teaching "to maximize teaching and learning opportunities" (Bailey, 1996, p. 38).

> So, I wasn't really today intending to revise "a" and "some" that just came out because when I was walking around, and they were doing that work sheet, one of the students said something. I can't remember what it was. Something that made me think, "Ahhh, okay, I will, I'll go through that again". (Ann)

> Like, the previous task, where I was giving them the drill prompts, I had a lot more [drill prompts] organized. But they [the students] obviously, they weren't having their problems with it. So, I went on to the more personalized ones [drill prompts] straight away. (Luke)

In regards to departing from the lesson plan, I draw your attention to the level and type of the teachers' deviation. Prior to that, it is necessary to look at the sequencing of a lesson. The proper sequencing of the instructional objectives is an important aspect of planning a lesson. First described by Pitman (1963) in the 1960s, the presentation-practice-production (PPP) lesson model is still being used today. The model came under attack in the 1990s for a variety of reasons. Arguments against the PPP model asserted that language is full of "interlocking variables and systems" and cannot be "dissected into discrete, small pieces" to "be isolated, selected, graded and sequenced" (T. Woodward, 1993, p. 3). By the same token, language learning is non-linear meaning that "one structure is not completely mastered before another is attempted" (Larsen-Freeman, 2001, p. 39). Ellis (2003) argues that students, in the process of language learning, gradually develop and restructure interlanguages through different transition stages, which can take months or even years to arrive at the rule of the target language. With

this in mind, since PPP focuses on the form prior to the meaning, there is doubt that students internalize language form and rules through practice (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). And finally, it is a non-humanistic approach for the focus is on the teacher to control students' language learning (Harmer, 2007). It may seem paradoxical that despite these strong criticisms, the approach has been able to remain central to many language classrooms. The experienced teachers in this study were no exception. Three of the four teachers (Ann, Luke, and Louise), two of whom were teacher trainers (Luke and Louise), implemented the PPP procedure in their classroom teaching. It should be remembered that these teachers were all adherents of the communicative approach and, despite this, were practicing a lesson sequence that is not primarily focused on meaning and student-centred communicative instruction.

One alternative to this sequence, as suggested by Johnson (1982), is to centre teaching around production by having the students immediately produce the target language. Based on the students' production, the teacher decides to take the students to the practice or the presentation phase. Some examples of other sequences are Harmer's (2007) Engage, Study, and Activate (ESA) procedure and Scrivener's (1994) Authentic, Restricted, Clarification (ARC) model of classroom interaction.

The fundamental principle of the alternative lesson sequences is that the stages of the lesson can appear in any order based on the aims, level, and focus of the lesson. The teachers were spontaneous in making on-the-spot decisions to change their plans only *within the framework of each stage*. They were, however, unwilling to make any changes to the order of the stages. That is, when at the presentation stage, they would implement a variety of teaching techniques (even ones they had not planned) if there was a need. Or, they might open a mini-presentation (on the subject being taught or a relevant one) in the practice stage. But they would never rearrange the whole teaching

sequence based on the immediate conditions of the class. Instead, they kept to the three stages of PPP and did not see any need to make changes in the order. Important reasons, for the resistance and popularity of the approach, according to Skehan (1996) are its trainability and handing over control of the classroom processes to the teachers which are, perhaps, the reasons why the teachers in the study felt comfortable with the method. The three-stage teaching sequence is discussed and documented in the next chapter.

8.4 Summary

In developing materials for teaching, Ann, Luke, and Bill presented a model similar to that suggested by Jolly and Bolitho (1998). This implies that the thinking stages of material development (pre-lesson planning) and lesson planning may be the same for ESL teachers. The data, however, suggest some new points. First, although there was no mention of knowledge of Self in the study by Jolly and Bolitho (1998), the data suggested that the teachers take into consideration knowledge of Self, knowledge of the students, and the features of the material when making adjustments to teaching materials or writing materials from scratch.

Second, the teaching objectives that the teachers follow, come from a combination of teachers' knowledge of Self, knowledge of the students, the objectives identified by the syllabus, and the test objectives. The strongest factor affecting the goal setting process is the teachers' knowledge of the students, as suggested by the data. In the case that teachers are required to teach to the test, however, it seems that the washback effect of the test causes the teachers to attend more to test objectives than any other aspect of goal setting. Hence, the teacher's focus becomes more strongly weighted towards testing objectives than the other factors mentioned, making teacher thinking more outcome focused than student focused.

At the planning stage, teachers realized teaching objectives and materials into an arranged sequence. As indicated by the literature, the experienced teachers in the study departed from the lesson plan. Nevertheless, a new finding of the present study is that they did not make any spontaneous decisions as to rearrange the sequence of the presentation-practice-produce stages in the event that they faced problems in teaching.

8.5 Discussion

Throughout this chapter, I have looked at those types of ESL teacher knowledge that are cognitive in nature. In the light of this, I have attempted to explore the interrelationships with one another as well as the connections with those aspects that are identity-based in nature. I have also investigated the source of these knowledge types. What follows is a discussion of the findings of the present chapter via the research questions guiding the study.

Hence, the first question to ask is: *What is the structure of experienced ESL teacher thinking for the purposes of teaching adults?* For the teachers in the study, their thinking is composed of the nature of language, the nature of language learning, syllabus and teaching objectives, material development, language testing, and lesson planning.

Table 18
A Comparison of the Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

Knowledge Types (quantitative study)	Knowledge Types (qualitative study)
Curriculum Knowledge: • Curriculum Design (5.92) • Syllabus Design (6.03) • Curriculum Evaluation (5.94) • Lesson Planning (6.50	Curriculum Knowledge: • Syllabus & teaching objectives • Lesson planning
Knowledge of Resources: • Computer assisted Language Learning (5.78) • E-learning (5.45) • Material Development (6.49) • Designing Tasks (6.48) • Adult Language Learning (6.30)	Knowledge of Resources: • Material development & designing tasks
Knowledge of Language Components: • Phonology (6.00) • Morphology (5.40) • Grammar (6.49) • Pragmatics (5.57) • Word Meaning & Use (6.52)	Knowledge of Language Components: • Knowledge of the nature of language (mainly grammar, vocabulary, and phonology)
Knowledge of Language Learning Theories: • Second Language Acquisition Theories (5.73) • First Language Acquisition Theories (4.79)	Knowledge of Language Learning: • Nature of language learning

Comparison of the quantitative and qualitative findings of ESL teacher knowledge (Table 18) reveals that teachers in the second phase of the study qualitatively verified what teachers had quantitatively claimed in the first phase of the study. In other words, attention to the average of each knowledge component (in parenthesis next to each course name) from the quantitative study, shows that the knowledge types found in the qualitative study were the ones that teachers had given the highest degree of importance in the quantitative phase (The courses with highest scores are boldfaced). Nevertheless, the findings suggest that the contents of these knowledge types differ from one teacher to another. Teachers seem to hold understandings of the knowledge types that are more in line with their histories than the contents of teacher education. This is further elaborated in the next chapter.

There is a point worth mentioning in discussion of the relationship between the two stages of the study. Looking at the results of the exploratory factor analysis, I could not understand the reason why ‘language testing’ had shown strong correlations with

teachers' 'knowledge of learners'[14] making it a constituent element of the knowledge type. The qualitative study made it clear that teachers' knowledge of learners and knowledge of language testing interact with one another in that tests implement a strong washback effect. That is, as stated earlier in the chapter, the washback effect causes tests to attract teachers' attention rather than their understanding of their students' needs and proficiency levels. In this way, teachers' knowledge of tests and knowledge of the students can replace and/or interact with one another.

Hence, the findings suggest that the knowledge types that both phases of the study confirm to be important for the teachers have more practicality and use in the language classroom. The categories of ESL teacher knowledge found in chapters Seven and Eight along with the ones found in the quantitative study are merged in Table 19 below.

Table 19
Key Elements of ESL Teacher Knowledge

Knowledge Type	Key Elements
Knowledge of Self	Self (the "I" and the "me"), teacher identity represented in the form of teacher roles
Knowledge of students	(Teacher) Self, teacher identity, learner sensitivities & learning styles, classroom organization, (nonverbal) communication in L2 Learning, and language testing,
Knowledge of the nature of language	Word Meaning & Use , Grammar, Phonology, Pragmatics , Morphology
Knowledge of the nature of language learning	Teachers' understanding of how language(s) is learned
Knowledge of teaching & learning objectives	Syllabus & teaching objectives and lesson planning
Knowledge of teaching resources	Material development & task design

A second question that arises at this point is that: *What are the sources of ESL teacher knowledge?* Table 20, below, summarizes the sources and nature of ESL teacher knowledge as discussed so far.

[14]**Knowledge of Learners:** Learner Sensitivities & Learning Styles, Classroom Organization, Nonverbal communication in L2 Learning, *Language Testing*, Teaching English in International Contexts

Table 20
Sources of ESL teacher knowledge

Knowledge type	Source of knowledge	Nature of knowledge
Knowledge of Self	Teacher training, connection with communities of (ESL) teachers, teaching experience in particular, and life history in general	Identity
Knowledge of students	Self, group identity and understanding of the Other, teacher identity	Identity
Knowledge of the nature of language	Experience with language	Cognition
Knowledge of the nature of language learning	Relevant work and educational experience, and knowledge of language	Cognition
Knowledge of teaching & learning objectives	Objectives identified by the syllabus, knowledge of language, and knowledge of students	Cognition
Knowledge of teaching resources	Knowledge of teaching & learning objectives (objectives identified by the syllabus, knowledge of language, and knowledge of the students), sources for writing/finding the material, features of the material, and knowledge of Self	Cognition

An important point about the 'source of knowledge' is that it depicts the key elements from which the knowledge type is constructed, shaped and reshaped. Hence, it makes sense to say that the source of knowledge also reveals the interrelationships between the knowledge types. For example, teachers' knowledge of the nature of language seems to be primarily derived from their personal experiences with language. Such experiences, in turn, along with their work and educational background construct their knowledge of the nature of language and learning.

I see it relevant to take the rest of this discussion to the next chapter where the practice of the teachers, in light of their thinking and identity, is discussed in detail. There, I turn the findings of table 15, combined with the findings of Chapter Nine into a model of ESL teaching. This is preceded by one-by-one presentation of the teachers' practice (documented with interviews, excerpts and video snippets of their classroom teaching), the relevant literature, and discussions.

Chapter 9: ESL Teacher Practice

9.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the ways in which the teachers' teaching practice is interwoven with their thinking and identity. I have, in the previous chapters, argued that much of the teachers' thinking is shaped by the identities they construct for themselves and for their students. Based upon excerpts of videos from the teachers' classroom teaching as well as interviews and subsequent contact and correspondence with the teachers, I have attempted to document the practice and thinking of four experienced ESL teachers in connection with CLT. The rationale for this connection is that the teachers believed themselves to be following CLT in their practice. In order to achieve this, I have compared their practice and thinking with the main tenets of CLT extracted from the literature. I have then investigated the relevance of their practice and thinking, in light of CLT, to the identities they have constructed for themselves and their students.

What follows is an exploration of the knowledge types and practices of the teachers participating in the study documented by snippets of video data on their classroom practice[15]. A fundamental feature of this exploration is simultaneous comparisons of the interviews and videos with the main tenets of CLT. I further include analyses of the identities the teachers construct for themselves and their students to elaborate on the mismatch between the

[15] The accompanying CD contains the relevant segments of the lesson. For the hardcopy of the thesis, when reaching the name of a given teacher followed by an underscore and a number all on a separate line, the corresponding video on the CD should be played. For example, when seeing "Ann_01" in the text, the video "Ann_01" in the CD should be played. For the soft copy, simply by clicking on the relevant hyper link in the text, for example Ann_01, the video will automatically pop up and play.

principles of CLT and the teachers' practice. The intent is to argue that these mismatches are associated with the teachers' individual interpretations and experiences as well as the identities they construct for themselves and their students.

In short, I have attempted to examine the teaching methodologies of the four experienced teachers in the context of the main tenets of the CLT approach. These tenets are connected to the teachers' parallel and diverse interpretations of the communicative approach to teaching. The interrelationships between practice and teacher thinking are then further explored in light of their identities. Another way of putting this would be to ask:

How are experienced ESL teacher identity, thinking, and practice interrelated while teaching adult learners?

I appreciate that the data presented in this study represents my own perspectives on the teachers' practice. I have, however, attempted to present those excerpts that best represent the teachers' viewpoints and practice. I also point out that the purpose is not to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction. I have found that, comparing the teachers' practice with the principles of the communicative approach (i.e., their claimed-to-be-practiced methodology) in light of their thinking and identity construction to be a useful method of better understanding factors contributing to their varying interpretations of communicative language teaching and, consequently, practice.

9.2 Louise's Teaching Practice

As mentioned elsewhere, Louise's focus lesson was the development of an argumentative essay on the topic of *childcare*. The students were to argue issues in favour

and against childcare centres from the positions of both the child and the mother. Louise had divided the lesson into brainstorming, pre-task, and on-task. There was no post-task stage for the aim was to focus on the elements of writing.

> The focus was the structure and the language necessary for them [the students] to manage the essay. So, I wanted to put two hours into that and guide them through.

Louise had stated that she would be taking a process approach to the writing instruction with a strong focus on communication. Process writing is regarded as predominantly an approach where students "with ample time and minimal interference, can work through their composing processes" (Silva, 1990, p. 15). ESL writing, in this approach, is conceptualized as a dynamic process of thinking and developing thoughts to text, akin to the stages writers go through (i.e., planning, drafting, revising, and the like) to produce a piece of writing in their first language (Applebee, 1986). This suggests that ideas can be produced once ESL students are able to actively relate the writing topic to their personal experiences. The next step, which requires abundant time and resources (i.e., peer and teacher support, books, internet, etc.), is expanding the ideas and putting them in a written format. Hence, it is expected that adherents of the process approach, such as Louise, through exposing students to a series of planned learning experiences, endeavour to teach students strategies (i.e., personalizing the topic, expanding ideas, turning thoughts into text, etc.) to solve their composition problems on their own (Seow, 2002).

9.2.1 Planning.

Although brainstorming is generally considered a part of the pre-writing or planning process, Louise views it a stage distinct from pre-writing. For ease of discussion, I have put brainstorming and pre-writing under the same heading, *planning*. Prior to looking at Louise's

practice and knowledge on brainstorming and pre-task activities, I point out that teachers' knowledge of the planning process is of utmost importance in making students *aware* of the processes involved in writing at different levels (Susser, 1994). When planning, according to Flower and Hayes (1981), writers generate ideas by activating relevant background information. Subsequently, based on relevance, they organize the ideas into groups, which involves creativity and discovery. They then set goals to clarify the purpose and the audience to which the writing is addressed. Once objectives and audience become clear, the generated ideas and consequently their arrangements may change. This recursive process continues until the writer reaches a level where they are able to turn the contemplated ideas into text (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Process writing teachers need to be aware of both the processes and the fact that writing is highly recursive and non-linear. It is a messy process of construction and expansion of ideas rather than going straight from point A to B (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Susser, 1994). On the importance of teachers' knowledge of the writing processes, Raimes (1991, p. 422) calls attention to the fact that

> there is widespread acceptance of the notion that language teachers need to know about and to take into account the process of how learners learn a language and how writers produce a written product. Such a notion of process underlies a great deal of current communicative, task-based, and collaborative instruction and curriculum development.

Therefore, to be aware of the processes involved in writing, to assist students throughout their writing, and to identify their thinking processes and address those problematic areas requiring assistance, it is expected that teachers develop a dynamic and close relationship with students (Susser, 1994). The teachers' act of making students aware of their thinking processes is what Susser (1994) calls intervention. At the planning phase, intervention, for example, can be done through brainstorming and small group activities

(Applebee, 1986) which are the two activities Louise used in her teaching. All in all, it is expected that Louise's feedback throughout the planning would be to facilitate the students' attempts to relate the topic of childcare to their background knowledge and to rearrange ideas while being mindful of the audience and the style of prose required.

9.2.1.1 Brainstorming.

As the aim of brainstorming is to get the students to generate ideas for writing (Hedge, 2000; Seow, 2002), Louise used two pictures to help them to start thinking about childcare by answering wh-questions.

Louise_01

Following that, she referred the students to a series of questions on childcare issues in their textbook to discuss in groups. We should bear in mind that Louise perceived her students' inexperience in parenthood to be a hindrance to relating to the topic. For this reason, at the end of the group discussion, she made minimal attempts to have the students personally relate to the topic.

Louise_02

The purpose of brainstorming for Louise was twofold. One was to check the students' world and word knowledge.

> I'm seeing what vocabulary they are using and what general world concepts or social concepts they have.... For me to see what they know. So I start at an appropriate level and then for them to come to the next level with me which is thinking, "Okay, this is a childcare. What are the points for it and against this situation?"

In addition to being a platform for generating ideas, Louise views brainstorming as a diagnostic technique to detect the word range students are able to produce in response to the concepts. Louise tends to rephrase the student-generated concepts to exemplify the *correct* structure for expressing those concepts. Hence, it seems that, her focus is on generating both correct concepts and correct forms from the very beginning. Louise challenges the students to provide reasons or examples in support of their claims. She does not, however, encourage them to argue with their peers, questioning their expressed views. Having students defend their views in arguments with peers is seen to encourage the development of ideas, help establish connections between their views, and build strategies to convince the audience, which in this case would be both peers and the teacher. In addition to this, getting the students to discuss their views with one another would have promoted authentic communication, a condition also in line with Louise's communicative teaching approach. In the same vein, Hedge (2000), states that brainstorming activities should promote communicative interaction among students leading to the production of audience-related ideas. The outcome is students' involvement with the writing task at a more engaged and independent level.

The second reason Louise uses brainstorming is to make the task relevant to the students by reminding them of the test they were to have on argumentative writing.

> Why would they come in at three o'clock in the afternoon and be interested in childcare? I have to create that interest. I have to give them a reason to be invested in the topic. And continually making reference to the Friday essay because it has to have immediacy and relevance. It's not just, "Well, let's think about childcare it's a pretty interesting topic and one day you might be parents." No! It's got to have a short-term goal I think and be relevant because we're thinking in these five-week blocks. They've got to see what the endpoint is.

Clearly, Louise has a different interpretation of *relevance* than other advocates of the process writing and the communicative approach. To her, relevance is making connections between the task and an external outcome, which is, in this case, the Friday assessment task. This interpretation of relevance is remote from the widely accepted belief that relevance is the act of the writer's meaningful connection of the writing topic with one's personal experiences leading to the production of ideas, which are *relevant to the audience* in mind (Hedge, 2000). These clearly illustrate how the washback effect of the test can turn into teaching and learning goals, replacing teachers' knowledge of the students. A second point is that while Louise sees a direct connection between setting up product-related goals (i.e., Friday test) and the development of *interest* in students, in contrast, Zamel (1982) argues students' ability to clarify their ideas at the planning stage, through ample classroom discussions, is essential in developing interest in them.

Chastain (1988) states that the rationale behind brainstorming

> is to get the students to recall related information and emotions from their past, to share them with their classmates to stimulate additional thinking on the topic, to activate their imaginations beyond their experiences, and to motivate their classmates to do the same. (p. 255)

I conclude that Louise's interpretation of brainstorming is a platform for students' initial activation of ideas, which are then developed through the teacher's supply of the appropriate vocabulary and structure. In addition, relevance, in Louise's terms, is the act of connecting the product of the writing to an external, short-term goal.

9.2.1.2 Pre-task.

During this phase, Louise had the students write down the ideas already discussed during brainstorming. She then proceeds to the next activity without checking on their notes. Since Louise believes that the topic of "childcare" is "unrelated to their [the students'] experience", she provides ideas in the form of a list for the students to implement in their writing.

Louise_03

> And when I put up that checklist there because I anticipated that they may not have a lot of experience and as I said I didn't want to spend too much time on the content or the concept of this particular situation because they had to get to the essay. So, I was thinking of providing ideas when I put up the checklist.... before they try and pull something out of their minds, they need to use actually what's provided for them. And some of them don't work at that level!

Louise appears to be devaluing the importance of the planning process and putting more emphasis on the act of writing. This has led her to make efforts to provide more input and fewer opportunities for the students to expand and develop their ideas. By presenting the students with a list of ideas on the topic, she is seeing them as passive recipients of ideas rather than people who are able to *think* and *discover* ideas by connecting to their inner selves. In contrast, proponents of the process approach emphasize giving students the "opportunity to immerse themselves totally in the topic to the extent that they have something important to say" (B. P. Taylor, 1981, p. 9). That is to say, at the planning stage, the teacher should teach students "how to explore topics, develop ideas, and discover relationships" (Zamel, 1982, p. 204). Referring to Louise's construction of her students' image discussed in Chapter Seven, it is not surprising to see that she provides limited opportunity for them to express their thoughts.

Time restrictions were another reason for Louise's directly feeding the students with the necessary word and world knowledge.

> [I am not eliciting the points from the students because] they don't have the experience and the time constraint [does not allow me to]. I could have elicited but again if you look and see where we are in the lesson, I just wanted to put these points out. Some of them have taken them on board, others not. Some of them have more sophisticated, more critical and more analytical thinking process and they can cope with this variety [the presentation of ideas from the checklist]. It's more just to throw at them, "Okay childcare centres aren't always the glossy fantastic institutions that they're promoted as".

Time is an essential requirement of the process approach (Harmer, 2007; Hedge, 2000; Seow, 2002). Sufficient time is required for students to extend and refine their ideas (Zamel, 1982). They need time to think because "[G]ood thinking can produce good writing; and, conversely, without good thinking, good writing is impossible" (Rohman, 1965, p. 106). Adequate thinking time can cause students to become personally involved in writing (Perl, 1980) which is what Louise, in her interviews, constantly referred to as students' *investment* in the class activities. Being given enough time to expand ideas and personally invest in the topic would perhaps lead the students to see the issue from the reader's point of view when communicating ideas (Zamel, 1982) which, I believe, is the ultimate purpose of teaching process writing. However, in a five-week course period where Louise needs to cover a variety of writing genres, it is understandable for her to focus more on the product (i.e., getting the job done), rather than spending time and effort in developing good thinking and writing habits.

Additionally, due to the restrictions imposed from the institute as well as Louise's own perception of students' background knowledge, Louise's methodology is in paradox with her having "a communicative focus" where teaching is focused around sharing information through creative and unpredictable classroom activities involving negotiation of

meaning (Breen & Candlin, 1980; Savignon, 1991, 2007). In the next section, time restrictions and the manner in which Louise views her students thinking and contributing abilities are further discussed.

In short, Louise's understanding of the pre-task stage, I would suggest, is a stage during which the teacher directly feeds the students with ideas. The first reason for this is that students should be able to manipulate the presented ideas prior to using their own. The "more sophisticated ones" would be able to adopt the ideas in their writing while the others may require some processing time. And second, this approach is more practical in time restricted instructions.

9.2.2 On-task.

The purpose of the on-task or drafting stage is to transform the generated ideas from the previous stage into the form of a composition (Seow, 2002). Flower and Hayes (1981, p. 373) describe this stage as "the process of putting ideas into visible language". The writer's task at this level is to deal with complexities in relation to ideas as well as complexities of lexical, syntactic, and spelling types, which makes the drafting a more arduous task in the case of writing in a second language (Flower and Hayes, 1981). For this reason, the initial focus of drafting is on fluency (creating meaning through writing) and not accuracy (Seow, 2002). The readership of the composition is another element to consider because drafting is when writers, in a concrete manner, appeal to the needs and interests of the audience, which ultimately moves them from producing "writer-based" prose to "reader-based" prose (Flower, 1979). This type of development in writing does not regularly happen in the first draft; it develops over time and after several attempts (Chastain, 1988). The role of teachers at this

stage is to intervene in the production of the writing (Susser, 1994) through conferences, or having peers review written work (Applebee, 1986). In the ESL classroom, the meaning produced at the drafting stage is centred around one or more main idea(s), which can best start from the production of the introductory paragraph (Seow, 2002). In view of the points mentioned above, it would be expected that Louise, at this stage, direct students to produce a tentative piece of writing, which may start from the introduction, without emphasizing accuracy. She would also be expected to provide regular feedback on the ongoing work of the students to assist them in developing their ideas in a more logical manner that would convincingly communicate to the audience.

Louise initially had the students write down the pros and cons of childcare centres, which had come from the teacher's input as well as the students' discussion, in a table in their textbook.

> I think it's a bit redundant in that they've already discussed pros and cons of childcare but some didn't make any notes so I didn't spend much time on this.... So I just wanted them to take a few minutes so everyone had something written down so when it came to the outline of the essay, they had some points to refer to.

Louise intended to have the students use the notes for an outline, which would then assist them in creating the initial draft (Raimes, 1991). However, due to time constraints, she decided not to have the students formulate an outline but rather to start writing the introduction. Again, Louise focuses more on the product than the process. Outlining would have been beneficial in providing the students with a framework to think about what meaning to convey, how to convincingly convey it to the reader, and how each sentence contributed to the overall meaning (Clarke, 1984).

Following note taking, Louise asked the students to write an introduction for the topic. Moving around and checking students' works, she provided one-to-one feedback to the students. This type of feedback on students' work in progress (i.e., student-teacher conferencing) is one type of intervention (Applebee, 1986), which assists individual students in organizing their ideas into a meaningful piece of writing (Hedge, 2002). It is an essential part of process writing, because it enables students to "rediscover meanings and facilitate the revision of initial drafts" (Seow, 2002, p. 317). However, Louise's feedback was on accuracy rather than on students' thinking patterns. This means that she again directed students to the product of writing rather than to the process of developing efficient writing strategies. This is in contrast to the view of writing as a process where multiple drafts are encouraged because writing is perceived as a messy process of gradually creating and refining ideas through several attempts (Chastain, 1988; Shaughnessy, 1977; Zamel, 1982).

Noticing that students were having problems in writing the introduction, Louise reminded them of the structure of an introduction by referring them to the examples and explanations in their textbooks.

> I wanted them to produce something which they did. They actually produced the introduction. But we had to go back and refer to the model essay because they weren't putting in two points of view.
>
> Louise_04

> They've forgotten the model they need to refer back to it.... So here I'm going back and doing some revision of the introductory paragraph ... because I know they would know if I drew it out of them but I just wanted to get to the point quickly.

This attention to structure suggests that Louise views writing as the application of fixed patterns of language that can be learned through repeated manipulations and only from that point can they be creatively manipulated (Pincas, 1962).

> If we don't teach them the standard first then they can't deviate. They can deviate and be creative when they've got mastery of the language. That's why I said, "I don't care if all their essays say follow a blue print". If they all start, "In this essay, I will argue blah, blah, blah". I don't care if I'm reading that 14 times over. As long as each student can show me that they have control rather than trying to venture off and be a bit more creative for that. So give them the standard first, get them to follow the blueprint and then they can move beyond that.... In getting back with the 5-week time constraint, we can't. We haven't got time to take that on board and develop and accept different styles. They've got to be able to show that they can manage something at a certain level.

Again, when Louise has the students re-write the introduction (after revising its structure with the students), she provides one-to-one feedback to individual students addressing their structural and accuracy problems with limited attention to their ideas.

Louise_05

Next, Louise writes a blackboard composition, "a group effort at writing in which a topic is selected and developed in an energetic, loosely controlled jam session" (Clarke, 1984, p. 578). To show the students how an argumentative body paragraph could be developed from a thesis statement, Louise referred the students to the second body paragraph, the counter argument. She had the class develop the counterargument together.

> Here I'm wondering how much of the counterargument we've got time to actually work on and whether they should do it individually or as a class. And they've just done the individual work on the introductory paragraph so I thought we've got to work through this. Because I knew, I was fairly sure that they didn't have the counterargument really developed in their mind. So, I thought, "Okay we'll go through this as a class and just make it a general contribution".

Her main purpose in doing this was to provide a model for the students to be used when writing their own paragraphs (Radford, 1969). More precisely, through blackboard composition, Louise intended to remove the obstacle of getting started with the task of writing a body paragraph (Clarke, 1984).

Louise_06

An advantage of this technique was that the class used the group task of developing the composition to discuss and expand their ideas and to focus on the process of developing a paragraph (Clarke, 1984; Radford, 1969). Since Louise's attention is more drawn to the product of writing, she was also able to emphasize the accuracy aspect of paragraph writing (Clarke, 1984).

Aware that not all the students were contributing to the paragraph development, Louise attributed this lack of participation to their individual learning styles.

> So here I'm using their contribution because they have to do it on Friday. It's no good me giving it to them and saying write this down. They've already seen a model. They've really got to be able to come up with something even if it's a group effort. And as you can see most of it is coming from the stronger students. But then the others might be more passive learners or they might need more reflection time. So hopefully by the time we revisit this on Wednesday, they will have more of a sense of where to go with the outline of the essay.

To expose the "less capable students" to the body paragraph, Louise developed another argumentative paragraph with the help of the class.

> So here they're doing another counterargument paragraph but for the other side. So there's a lot of reflection referring to the model essay again ... I was just glad they came together reasonably quickly. And hope that I left the students particularly the less capable students with enough guidance and enough modelling to be able to produce something themselves.

At the end Louise stated that:

> It's a shame that I had to do so much of the work for this but we'd already done one with more contribution. I really just wanted to get another one up on the board so that they could see working on both sides cause I am quite aware of, well, it's not teacher talking time, it's me doing it instead of them.

To sum up, Louise's strong emphasis on accuracy became even more evident at the drafting stage. This was the stage where the students could be referred to the supplied ideas in pre-fabricated language patterns of the argumentative genre. Hence, Louise primarily intended to help the students to gain control over manipulating the fixed structures to which meaning, as important as it was, came second.

9.2.3 Summary.

A summary of Louise's practice in the context of process writing is provided in the table below.

Table 21
A Comparison of Louise's Practice with Standard Process Writing

		Louise	Process Writing
Planning	*Brainstorming*	Activating background knowledge to access relevant vocabulary and information Activating background knowledge to help the teacher detect deficient world- and word-related areas	Activating background knowledge to find personal connections with the topic
		Relevance means: relating the writing product to an external outcome	Relevance means: relating the writing topic to one's own Self
		Interest is developed through external motivation.	Interest is developed through internal motivation.
	Pre-task	Manipulating ideas provided by the teacher	Discussing and exploring ideas through discovery and creativity
On-task		Using ones notes to develop paragraphs	Using an outline to develop paragraphs
		Accuracy primary; fluency secondary	Fluency primary; accuracy secondary
		Audience: the teacher	Audience: the teacher & peers
		Get it right from the beginning	Multiple drafts

Looking at her teaching, it seems that Louise tends to apply a rather teacher-controlled practice within the stages of the process approach, an approach in which normally control and decision-making is handed over to the students. Simultaneous examination of the interviews and videos also suggest that Louise has personal understandings of the process

approach principles that appear to be divergent from the prescriptions of scholars. Prior to making further comparisons, let us go back to Louise's understanding of language as well as the nursing qualities she has developed as a nurse working at aged-care centres. As mentioned before, Louise perceives language to be a means for expressing concepts, which are best communicated through the meanings and structures words impose on messages. Since concepts impose structure, knowledge of language entails knowing the relevant concepts their corresponding structures.

Going back to Louise's nursing experience, nurse-patient work conditions required Louise to constantly make decisions she perceived to be the best on behalf of the patients. Due to the nature of this work, she was obliged to work precisely for mistakes could have disastrous consequences. As a result, it is likely that she may be both outcome-focused in her teaching and inclined towards spoon-feeding her students. Added to this previous experience is the pressure Louise feels from the importance her current work context places on testing. These are reflected in her teaching in the form of providing the students with both the concepts and structure to manipulate in a controlled manner. In sum, Louise's identity and thinking are contributing to her interpretations, and consequently practice, of the process approach to writing.

9.3 Ann's Teaching Practice

Ann's focus was a vocabulary lesson, which she divided into the three phases of warm-up, presentation, and practice. Before exploring Ann's teaching in depth, I briefly present an overview of the audio-visual method because of the connections this approach has with Ann's vocabulary instruction.

The audio-visual method was the dominant method for teaching foreign languages, especially French, during the 60s and 70s (Saunders, 1997). As its name suggests, "the combination of sound and image" (Saunders, 1997, p. 493), it is based on the connection of sounds in a foreign language to mental images (Mueller, 1955). The method is grounded in the pattern by which young children were assumed to learn language; that is, making associations between images/objects and sounds through repeated exposures (Mueller, 1955). Hence, language learning, in this method, is viewed chiefly as a neuromuscular process requiring much repetition and practice (i.e., drilling) leading to habit-formation (Mueller, 1955). Vocabulary teaching is of paramount importance in teaching elementary level learners because it acts as a tool to provide sufficient resources for learners to *think* and *communicate* in the foreign language without making connections to first language (Mueller, 1955). Visual materials and realia not only provide a link between sound and image, they also represent the culture of the foreign language. Moreover, images provide students with the experience of being in the foreign country (usually France), which is regarded as essential for good vocabulary learning (Butts, 1968; Ford, 1972). The procedure of teaching vocabulary would start with the visual presentation of the object or action, immediately followed by the teacher pronouncing the new word several times and writing it on the board. The teacher would then pronounce the word again and ask the students to repeat after her (Ford, 1972). In this teacher-centred method, the teacher carefully plans and directs student learning while students imitate, and form new behaviour through repetition of controlled activities (Hempel & Mueller, 1959; Mueller, 1955).

As already stated, Ann has a degree in French and has taught French for many years at the secondary level. She refers repeatedly to her ESL teaching as being similar to her

teaching of French to secondary level students since she sees them both as teaching a language to non-native speakers.

9.3.1 Warm-up.

As a recapitulation of the previous lesson, Ann had the students recall the previously learned words by using visual prompts. The application of visual materials for review of previous lessons is one of the four ways Girard (1946) recommends for using visual material in the audio-visual method.

> I need visual prompts… because it's actually good for them to see it with either realia or cards. Because if I'm teaching the word, I don't want to write it on the board straight away. Especially when I'm supposedly revising. And I want them to give it to me. So the easiest way is to show them.

If Ann's students were not able to remember a word with the help of visual prompts, she wrote the word with some missing letters on the board to help them recall.

> But I often do this at this level. I actually do this with other levels too, where I give them the letters just to help them. So at least they've got an idea how many letters, what some of the letters are. It just gives them something to work from.

If they were unable to remember the word with this assistance, Ann hoped they would recall and retain the words more effectively by listening to those peers who knew the words.

> I'm hoping that they would remember but it took a long time, didn't it? Something that I taught them already ... and then I was asking the ones I knew had been in class.
>
> Ann_01

Ann was constantly disappointed by her students' failure to remember the often repeated words. This disappointment, most importantly, was present from the very beginning

of the teaching session when she believed herself to be working on the *easy* part of teaching. A point I draw attention to is that, according to Schouten-van Parreren (1989), when words are presented in isolation, "there is no point of support, no 'cognitive hold' for them in the learners' memory". As a result, regardless of their efforts, learners will easily forget (p. 76). "Isolated words or words in isolated sentences do not present a psychological reality" and "cannot evoke emotions or involvement in the learner" which is an important factor influencing the recall of words (Schouten-van Parreren, 1989, p. 77). As can be seen from the video, frustration was not limited to Ann; her students were also frustrated by not being able to remember the isolated words.

Ann's rationale for focusing on isolated words was that she saw her students as very low level learners whose learning required a great deal of background work.

> You have to teach them much before you can actually get them to practice ordering food or whatever I was practicing this morning. So anything they do requires a lot [of background work].

Ann repeated the words until she was sure the students could remember and pronounce the words correctly before she started teaching the new lesson. Repetition of isolated words (i.e., whether new or old ones) is of great importance in the audio-visual method because it is believed to reinforce the words and increase retention in long-term memory (Ford, 1972). Overall, the purpose of this stage, for Ann, was to refresh students' memory of the previously taught isolated but relevant vocabulary.

9.3.2 Present.

Once the previously taught food and container words had been revised, Ann attempted to teach some new vocabulary. She began by showing a number of items (i.e., a

tub of margarine and a tube of toothpaste) to the students and asking them to guess their names in English. The new words and phrases were taught through question and answer as well as through direct input. Ann would then ask the students to repeat after her while emphasizing the stress and counting the syllables. Then she would write the word on the board and repeat the word/phrase several times with the students repeating after her. Ann often repeated in the interviews that, although elicitation is time consuming and sometimes futile, (which could become frustrating at times), she applies this in her teaching a great deal, because ESL teaching requires teachers to do so.

Ann_02

> This is funny with Ellen. She got tooth and then someone else got brush. I was interested with that guy. He had no idea that was toothbrush. Perhaps he doesn't clean his teeth.... You see, this is frustrating because they're not going to tell me. They don't know what toothpaste is. They don't know the word. So I should have just given it to them rather than trying to elicit, elicit, elicit. It's not going to come out. It's not going to come out. But he gave me brush.... You know, they're not going to tell me. So I shouldn't keep asking.

Elicitation is a common technique used by ESL teachers to evaluate students' existing knowledge or to draw their attention to a new topic. It is usually implemented in situations where teachers have, in some ways, already provided the information (Mercer, 2004). When introducing a new lesson, teachers might also use elicitation to assess students' knowledge in order to make pedagogical decisions (Harmer, 2007). In the case of Ann, she is using elicitation to check students' knowledge of a word, which has not been yet taught, "toothpaste"[16], to evaluate their knowledge, rather than make pedagogical decisions. This incident adds to her frustration reinforcing the image she has already portrayed of the

[16] I have not included the particular incident in the video.

students. Needless to say, students would also be influenced by this incident. Note the negative interpretation placed on the student's failure to 'know' the word 'toothbrush'. Ann elicited the new words/phrases from several individual students to ensure they had learned them properly before continuing to teach the new lesson.

Ann moved on to teaching quantities—an entirely new lesson—from a listening phase by picking up different items and telling the students their quantities in kilo, gram, litre, and millilitre. The students automatically repeated the words they heard. Ann explains her reasons for asking the students to immediately repeat after her as reinforcing the pronunciation (Hempel & Mueller, 1959) and retention of the newly learned words (Butts, 1968; Ford, 1972).

> Oh, just pronunciation. Just to say the word. Perhaps to reinforce it. To remember. Rather than just listening to me say it.

Ann_03

Ann put the words kilo and litre on the board and asked the students how much they were in grams and millilitres. The students could see the actual quantity words on the board, an attempt to accommodate to their learning style, which Ann described as being visual. One premise of the audio-visual method is based on the importance of visual perception as the primary sense in learning new things (Ford, 1972). Mueller argues that "the mental picture seems to stimulate the speech muscles and bring the muscular sensation back to memory" (1955, p. 238). Hence, it is of no surprise that Ann emphasizes the visual-orientedness side of her students and is willing to accommodate it.

Ann_04

Ann explained her reason for teaching quantity as:

> Just, I wanted them to be able to read labels and say, "Ah, this is a litre, 500 mils!" It's just the terminology, the difference between solid and liquid and that's what I was trying to get out of them here. And they got it. Litre was liquid and grams was solid. Yeah. They figured that out.

Harmer (2007) explains that, at elementary levels, it is advantageous for teachers to bring in actual items for teaching vocabulary to intrinsically motivate students to participate in communicative activities. As mentioned previously, my intention is not to evaluate the effectiveness of the teachers' practice. The use of realia and flashcards to present new vocabulary is common practice and not limited to the audio-visual method. Hence, teaching concrete, isolated vocabulary at the elementary level with the help of visual prompts does not make any teacher more or less a follower of a certain teaching method/approach. When studying teachers, one should attend to the practice as well as the rationale for implementing teaching methods. In short, we should pay attention to how teacher identity (background), thinking, and practice interact to shape ESL teaching.

Teaching new vocabulary in a pattern—i.e., an object along with its container word—was first introduced in a teaching approach prevalent in Australia starting from the 60s (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). New vocabulary was introduced in patterns such as: "There's a bottle of ink in the box." or, "There's a jar of rice in the box." Hence, interviews with Ann and her classroom teaching imply that she is following a classic approach to language teaching, i.e., audio visual method.

Although Ann had already stated her reason for introducing food vocabulary along with their containers as being the result of her understanding of her students' immediate life

needs, at one point in the interview she agreed that container words would not be that helpful for them.

> I guess the way they go shopping is that they all go shopping getting off the shelf. They don't actually ask anyone much, do they?

The presentation stage, in short, involved teaching new vocabulary and checking students' retention of the new lesson. Ann began teaching by holding up an item while repeating its name; the students repeated after her; and she wrote the word on the board followed by students' repetition. Her intention in doing this was to teach the vocabulary she understood to be practical in their daily lives.

9.3.3 Practice.

An important rationale behind the practice phase is to provide variety by having the students encounter the newly taught vocabulary in different contexts and activities rather than merely repeating them (Nation, 1990). For example, by having the students do exercises containing a blend of familiar food and container vocabulary—i.e., their already existing schemata—and the new words, the students will be able to make connections between the new vocabulary and their existing network of vocabulary (Nation, 1990). However, the exercises at this phase were very much controlled, allowing little creativity and giving little room for thinking of a more active nature.

To direct the focus of the lesson to a more student-centred teaching as well as to give the students some practice in the new lesson, Ann attempted to involve the students as in the following:

Ann_05

> But it also involves the students. Let them read it. Let them say it. Let them say what is written on the box.

Next was a controlled written exercise, where students were to match container pictures (jar, bottle, etc.) with their corresponding words (jam, water, etc.) from a list provided. Ann checked their responses to the exercises by eliciting answers from individual students.

Ann_06

Hence, the practice started with an oral (speaking activity) and ended in a visual (writing) phase.

9.3.4 Produce.

Ann had the students use the new and old vocabulary in a functional phrase through a drilling activity in the form of a role-play. The purpose was to help the students learn to use the phrase in real-life situations.

> So I'm trying to give them the vocab to actually ask for properly. Rather than just go eggs, milk, apple.... They need the whole phrase if they are going to go shopping.

Ann did the role-play first with a student as a model for the others. Then, she asked several students to do the role-play with her.

> They weren't really looking as they were coping with it [doing role-plays] as much as I would have hoped. And that's why when I got them doing a little shopping I didn't pursue it as much as I might have because ... some of them weren't too good. They weren't coping with it.... I wanted them to be doing a lot of more independent stuff rather than me, me, me. But they weren't there.

Seeing that the students were not ready, Ann gave them time to practice the role-play in pairs while she monitored them. Her reason for this was that pair work afforded students

the opportunity to learn language from one another. Long and Porter (1985) state that shy and less confident students see pair and group work activities as opportunities to practice their language skills in a safer and more supportive setting, helping them develop language skills and prepare for classroom activities.

> Use it the way students can use it. Use it in groups, use it individually; groups so that they can help each other because it's good for them to work together and learn from each other. So it's for the sake of learning from each other.

Once the students finished practicing in pairs, Ann asked individual students to interact with her in the buying and selling conversations.

Ann_07

As can be seen, the role-play, which seemed to be more like an exercise, was to a great extent mechanical and controlled focusing on language form rather than content with teacher intervention, all of which make it a non-communicative activity (Harmer, 2007). Also, Ann's purpose was evaluative rather than communicative, in that she was primarily interested in the students' ability to produce the target language accuracy.

> To assess their knowledge. Have they got it? Have they not got it? Do I need to do more? Can they remember what I've taught them? Can they reproduce it? I guess it's sort of the active use rather than just the passive learning. Passive learning, they can have it. They can understand it. But they need to be able to produce it.

Getting the students to practice vocabulary by asking and answering questions based on a fixed pattern to practice vocabulary is another technique used in the methods of a bygone period (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Ann described an extension of the last phase that could have involved having the better students role-play the lesson already taught. This would have given all the students the

chance to attend to the lesson taught once more and hopefully apply it out of the classroom. The weaker ones would also have the opportunity to observe and re-learn the points about which they needed clarification.

> To practice the vocab and the functions, the expressions, and to be able to maybe take that out of the classroom and use it. They were okay, but they weren't fully able to do it. I could have got them to come at the front and do it so they can model it for the others if they had mastered it. And they like doing it when they're comfortable with it.

To sum up, the lesson ended with the practice stage where the students practiced the vocabulary in fixed sentences as controlled role-plays. Ann's purpose was to help the students to implement both old and new vocabulary in functional phrases. She also intended to assess their learning of the day's lesson.

9.3.5 Summary.

The table below summarizing the main points of Ann's practice suggests that her teaching parallels the audio-visual method of language instruction. It should be remembered that Ann experienced the audio-visual method first as a student and later as a teacher. Her scepticism with regard to the training offered by her TESOL supervisors seems to be another factor contributing to her tendency to implement the audiovisual method in her ESL practice.

Table 22
A Comparison of Ann's Practice with Standard Audio-Visual Method and CLT

	Ann	Audio-visual method	CLT
Warm-up	Revision: recalling context-less vocabulary	Revision: recalling context-less vocabulary	Revision: utilizing past lessons in context
Present	Visuals help better learning.	Visuals present culture; stimulate speech muscles.	Visuals are motivating.
	Phases: visual, aural, repetition, visual, and written	Phases: visual, aural, repetition, visual, and written	Consciousness-raising methods: teacher's explanations, guessing from context, lexical inferencing, visuals, dictionary, etc.
Practice	Eliciting responses using fixed sentence patterns	Drilling fixed sentence patterns (questions and answers).	Information gap activities, games, etc.
Produce	Practicing role-plays with fixed sentence patterns to make requests	Reciting dialogues	Fluency development by engaging in meaningful & authentic communication

Ann's description of her students as being visually oriented and not willing to initiate in learning or communicative activities seems to align with the audio visual method that places great emphasis on visual orientation and teacher-centeredness in language teaching rather than the presumably particular methods of education in China as she mentioned in the interviews. This indicates that the social context of the classroom does not exist separate from the teacher, but derived from teachers' construction of their own and their students' identities. The intersection where the understanding of teachers' own and their students' identities meet is what I believe to be teachers' perception.

9.4 Bill's Teaching Practice

Bill's approach to teaching was task-based. Materials were carefully designed to encourage the students to use language meaningfully in discussion and negotiation to solve problems. Bill took on the role of monitor, intervening from time to time to ensure any errors or misunderstandings would not impede the flow of the lesson (D. Willis & Willis, 2007). From among the many definitions of task in the literature, Ellis (2003, p. 16) best represents Bill's knowledge and methodology in relation to tasks:

> A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive processes.

Bill used the tasks to provide students with the opportunity to take into account the everyday use of language, attend to the outcome, assess their performance, focus on meaning and structure of language, use language for communicative interaction, integrate different language skills, and become involved in different levels of cognitive processing at different stages of the lesson. These points are elaborated and discussed below.

9.4.1 Pre-task.

The purpose of this stage, which Willis and Willis call *priming*, is to prepare the students for the task. It usually entails familiarizing students with the topic and troublesome words and phrases (2007). Bill did not allocate a distinct pre-task or priming stage for he believed the students knew the majority of the words and were familiar with the task. Instead, he clearly explained the task content and gave instructions on the task rules (i.e., the strategies to be used and the dos and don'ts). He drew students' attention to the type and level of outcome they were to expect upon successful completion of the task. Willis and Willis (2007) state that, by looking at students' level and task complexity, teachers make decisions about the type of priming.

> To my knowledge, they hadn't seen some of those words before apart from "navigated" and "set foot on". I think everything else they were familiar with. There might have been three items that were difficult for them. Otherwise, it was pretty standard.... They had done exercises of this nature before so it wasn't new to them although previous ones, much earlier in the course they were simpler. So they did this one as more challenging.

> And I wanted to explain to them as briefly but as clearly as possible what I was going to do. What they had to do.

9.4.2 Task Cycle.

Students were given a strip of paper with a sentence typed on each. The sentences came from a story about the sea exploration of Australia. The students were to read out their sentences one by one while their peers listened carefully without taking notes. When the first round of reading out was completed, they were to decide upon the order of the sentences (i.e., the organization of the story) through discussion and negotiation. Once they reached an agreement, the students were to, once more, read out the sentences one by one in the correct, that is the negotiated, order.

9.4.2.1 Task.

Students took turns in reading out a sentence from a strip of paper they had been given while their peers listened. Since it was their first encounter with the sentences, this phase played an important role in getting the students to listen and think carefully about the sentences.

Bill_01

> Yeah, this phase they are just reading out the sentences. They are not negotiating yet. This is where their listening and their thinking is most important.... because this was the first contact that they were having with those sentences and each sentence added something new so that they are getting the structure of the story and some of them are already putting them in order, which is pretty smart.

Bill regards the phase as serving two purposes. One, the reading out prepared the students for the argument and discussion that would follow. Two, students attended to both meaning and structure of the input to get their ideas together and form the structure of the

story (D. Willis & Willis, 2007). Bill considered his role at this stage as monitor who would not impose control on students' thinking (Harmer, 2007).

> I kept out of it right at the beginning I just go from the basic information. I gave them the lead where they could read the sentences over and over again if they like. All they had to do was to decide who spoke first and who took control it was entirely up to them.

9.4.2.2 Planning.

It was now time for the students to articulate their thinking on the sequence of the sentences. They were to come up with an agreed upon sentence order to re-construct the story. To accomplish this, they were to communicate their ideas with the class as a group, through negotiation and interaction. It was also necessary for them to implement their listening, speaking, and reading skills, as well as grammar and vocabulary knowledge, and logic and memory.

> It was a simple exercise but it seemed to me to be a good combination of a little bit of everything. A bit of reading, a bit of writing, certainly listening and speaking, pronunciation, grammar.... And because they were thinking about another task, they weren't aware that the actual point of the lesson was for them to use this language quite functionally. They thought that they were solving an English problem, put them in order because of the grammar, because of the links themselves. That's certainly true but there is an underlying point as well.

Hence, Bill regards tasks as a framework promoting the integration of different language skills, attention to meaning and structure, and authentic, interactive communication. Bill views tasks occupying a middle ground between the two extremes of controlled and uncontrolled as best.

> Well, there are two aspects to classroom teaching. They are the two ends of the scale. I think they are the two extremes. The ideal is to bring them together. One is a very controlled situation.... And the second one is the almost uncontrolled where they're given a task and expected to use their language abilities to solve those [problems] and to me, the biggest problem in a successful course is trying to integrate the two.

These understandings of task are supported by Skehan (1998, p. 121) referring to structure-oriented and communicatively oriented approaches as the two ends of the extreme. Skehan argues for an intermediate approach "in which the central feature is a balance between form and meaning, and an alteration of attention between them".

Bill followed the students' discussions, monitored their task performance, and was ready to intervene if there was a need for correction or assistance.

> [I was] keeping in mind what the students were doing. In this case while I was shuffling the papers, I was listening pretty intently to everything they were saying. [I was looking] for pronunciation, for errors if they made a mistake. They didn't make many but I picked them up whenever they did. I was listening more to how they were going.

Bill_02

9.4.2.3 Reporting.

When consensus on the sequence of sentences was reached, the students started reading out their sentences in the order they deemed to be correct, shaping the story. When this was complete, Bill acknowledged the correctness of their report (Willis & Willis, 2007).

As well as introducing each task by providing clear instructions and setting goals for task fulfilment, Bill marked the end of each task by indicating the outcome and quality of students' performance. Using such techniques prior to, and at the end of, tasks "are likely to increase learners' confidence in their ability to do the task, stimulate richer use of English, maximize student participation, and less likely to allow minimal response" (D. Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 159).

Bill_03

Bill nominates three reasons for the technique (marking the end of the lesson) above:

> It's good to indicate clearly that, "Okay, this is the end of stage one, now we go to stage two". And secondly, they had done very well, and I wasn't surprised but I was pleased, especially the last seven sentences they just went boom! boom! boom! They really didn't bother to stop and think. It was so obvious. And so, they achieved the task. And thirdly, it's always nice to be able to praise and congratulate people.

The excerpt shows that Bill views outcomes as characteristics of tasks (J. Willis, 1996). He also deems it important to direct students' attention to the quality of their performance, raising awareness of their competency level (Tomlinson, 2003). Finally, Bill intended to motivate the students since he believed they were performing up to his high expectations (Dornyei, 2001).

9.4.3 Text recycling.

Willis and Willis (2007) suggest using an already used text in a different task to direct students' attention towards the linguistic aspects of the text. Bill re-used the text on Australian exploration in a mutual dictation. Students took turns in dictating their sentences to their peers. Peers could ask for clarification, spelling, pronunciation, and repetition of the words, phrases, and sentences. The aim was to get students to produce a close transcription of the original text by concentrating on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, as well as the four language skills. Bill's goal was, more importantly, to involve the students at a deeper level of communication in a more authentic interaction. Additionally, despite the previous task where students could get feedback from their peers on the soundness of their decisions, they were to make independent decisions in the dictation task.

> Yeah, you could finish the exercise there. But this part, which actually takes a deal longer, it's a bit hard to justify because most teachers don't give dictations, which regards being a fairly useless exercise. In this case, again it's negotiation. They have

> to decide whether they've heard the word and spelled it properly or not. They've got to identify their own mistake or if they can't do that, it's tricky because there's not much feedback at this stage. They've got to at least identify their doubt. And having done that, then do something about it and ask each other how to spell it. Or ask the person next to them. And as the exercise went on, I think it did justify that because it's quite a lot of backwards and forwards questioning, and sideways questioning. It was quite a busy sort of a session and again, it was all coming from them and the exercise but not directly from the teacher.

Bill moved around and checked the students' dictations, marking any missing or problematic areas on the spot. He rationalized this as a technique to both give students individual attention and to assess their progress.

> First, involve yourself personally with every student at least once even if it's acknowledging them and saying their name. But if you get into the whole two-hour lesson ignoring a student if you don't mean to, if you fail to acknowledge their presence, it's pretty grim sort of a day for them. And it's not a lecture, it's a lesson. So even though I was pretty swift, I didn't stop and chat with them but at least I was looking at their work. Second, I was reinforcing them, seeing in the quality of different students. And there were no surprises all the students whom I knew were doing well. And one or two weren't.

Bill_04

9.4.4 Language Focus.

The task, planning, and reporting stages are generally designed in a way that requires students to attend to both meaning and form. The priming stage is to familiarize students with possible problematic vocabulary. At the end of the task cycle, the teacher has the opportunity to draw students' attention to language form (Willis & Willis, 2007). Bill projected the sentences onto the whiteboard where the students were able to identify their spelling mistakes from the dictation by seeing the correct spelling of the words in sentences. He also had them articulate their reasons for making decisions on the order of the sentences in task I (consciousness-raising). In this way, Bill checked their understandings and offered feedback (Willis & Willis, 2007), by either acknowledging their thinking or correcting it. The main

focus was on grammar with a lesser degree of attention to the meaning and pronunciation of problematic words. That Bill tended to provide grammar explanations himself and elicited vocabulary related responses from the students can be indicative of his special attention to grammar.

Bill_05

9.4.5 Summary.

The table below shows great agreement between Bill's teaching and the task- based approach. At the heart of humanistic approaches to teaching is situating human beings at the centre of instruction. For a teacher to implement such approaches takes deep and sympathetic understanding of their students; that is to say, they need to see students as human beings connected to the contexts from which they come. Interviews with Bill made clear that he sees his students as unique individuals whose individuality is also shaped by their history. His attempts to know his students in their totality are important in implementing the humanistic approach he follows in teaching.

Table 23
A Comparison of Bill's Practice with Standard CLT

		Bill	Task-based approach
Pre-task		No priming required	Priming: focus on problematic lexis
Task Cycle	*Task*	Preparation for planning Language skills & cognitive resources involved Attend to meaning & structure No teacher intervention	Preparation for planning Language skills & cognitive resources involved Attend to meaning & structure No teacher intervention
	Planning	Meaningful communication Negotiation & discussion Language skills, cognitive resources, and logic involved Teacher monitoring, possible intervention if required	Meaningful communication Negotiation & discussion Language skills, cognitive resources, and logic involved Teacher monitoring, possible intervention if required
	reporting	Teacher commenting on quality of task performance Teacher signifying outcome	Teacher commenting on quality of task performance Teacher signifying outcome
Text recycling		Deeper level learning Attention to linguistic aspects	Deeper level learning Attention to linguistic aspects
Language focus		Focus on form Consciousness-raising	Focus on form Consciousness-raising (one technique among many)

Like the other teachers in the study, Bill's practice is greatly influenced by his identity and thinking about the nature of language and language learning. Overcoming the difficulty of understanding grammar during the years seems to have been influential in Bill's viewing of language mainly to be grammar. This is evident in videos four and five (Bill_04 and Bill_05), especially in video five (Bill_05), showing that when it comes to grammar rules, he tends to provide explanations rather than merely elicit from the students, which is the technique he uses for the vocabulary related problems.

Bill's personal life experiences such as many years of living overseas and his interest in English literature have given him awareness and attention to see the world from the eyes of the others. Understanding of other human beings, which he mainly obtains through communication, fascinates him. Hence, it is no surprise to see that language learning in his view is communicative activities for the purposes of mastering grammar. He best translates all this in the form of task-based classroom teaching.

9.5 Luke's Teaching Practice

Luke's class was a group of Indonesian PhD students who were near the end of their studies. They were taking the English course in preparation for presenting at international conferences and publishing journal articles. The students had told Luke that they found the present perfect tense problematic in that they were not confident of its appropriate usage, especially in connection with the simple past tense. For this reason, Luke intended to devote a session to instruction in the correct use of the present perfect tense.

The grammar lesson, I observed, was divided into four stages of brainstorming, presentation, practice, and production. Each phase is presented in detail below.

9.5.1 Brainstorming.

At the beginning of the lesson, the students moved around the classroom to interact with classmates asking open-ended questions on personal experiences. The interaction was controlled in terms of structure (i.e., the questions and answers were in present perfect tense) but un-controlled in terms of answers (i.e., information-gap type questions). In other words, the activity required the students to communicate meaningfully, which is the core of CLT (Savignon, 1983). The students were to write down their partners' name and responses to use in an activity later in the lesson. Luke's stated reasons for brainstorming was to help students to start exploring language, activate their background knowledge, personalize language learning, and to detect students' competency level in relation to the new lesson. However, with the exception of one student, Luke did not communicate with the students at all to explore their knowledge of the present perfect tense.

> And it [question and answering] gives them that opportunity to explore this language. Before they [students] even know what they're learning, they'll all be exploring.... It's really like, "Okay, you've been talking about this and this is actually what we're going to be doing today".... So, life experience. You know when you do that you can use this grammar.... So, they're already starting to link in other things they can talk about and other functions or reasons why they might have been talking about that. And it also gives them a chance, gives you a chance to pick up any information that you can bring into the lesson later.

Senior (2006) maintains that teachers use brainstorming prior to starting a new lesson to "make some kind of connection for the students", "pool prior knowledge", "share personal knowledge", and "establish where the class is at in terms of its overall collective knowledge" (pp. 188-189).

Luke_01

The focus, at this stage, was more on meaning than form because the grammar lesson had not yet been presented. Luke also regarded communicating with a potential partner to start a conversation as a real-life activity.

> It [moving around and asking questions] also gives them that experience about, you know, negotiating a conversation with different people, which is the true sense of communicating.... They have to go up to someone and say, "Hi, can we work together now?" I mean that's a great thing as well, approaching someone and you know, opening conversation. Or like, "Hey thanks! I'm going to talk to someone else"; closing a conversation. These are communicative skills that they need for a lot of different situations in life.

In sum, Luke used the warm-up to activate students' background knowledge, have students personally connect to the lesson, and encourage meaningful communication. He did not, however, assess their competency level.

9.5.2 Presentation.

Putting visual prompts on the board, Luke had the students make a sentence for each pair in the present perfect. He then focused on the form and usage of the tense.

Luke_02

> Yeah, characters are good. Characters always make things more, I guess, meaningful and deeper. And the visuals as well. I mean, because I don't want to give them the sentence, I need to draw it out of them. Visuals are often a great idea.

Luke intended to contextualize his instruction by using visual prompts. His view of contextualization, at least at this point, seemed to be the use of visual prompts to elicit present perfect sentences from the students. Hedge (2000) defines contextualization as making the choice of visuals, example sentences, and students' needs all relevant to assist

students in personalizing the lesson. The students' language need was practical use of present perfect in academic contexts. However, the visuals and their corresponding sentences were about mountain climbing and learning the Indonesian language.

One feature of an optimal grammar lesson is presenting a context with ample clues for students to notice grammar points by actively attending to the context. Such lessons are regarded as being high in elaboration (Sharwood Smith, 1991). Grammar lessons that help students figure out the rules on their own require limited explicit instruction by teachers, which is another quality of good grammar instruction (Sharwood Smith, 1991). Although Luke believed CLT to be against explicit grammar teaching, his grammar lesson was high in explicitness and low in elaboration.

> So this is where the grammar component of the lesson becomes more explicit. We're illustrating the form of present perfect. So, it's a really difficult area in the communicative approach. You don't want to make the focus of the grammar strong, however, you still have to illustrate the form. Otherwise they [students] can't know it. Or they don't know how to use it. So it's a part of the lesson you want to do but you want to keep it quite short.
>
> Luke_03

In sum, contextualization, to Luke, is supplying realia at the start of presentation stage to make the lesson more meaningful. Despite Luke's belief that communicative grammar teaching is against explicit instruction, he thought it necessary to teach grammar explicitly. As mentioned earlier, explicit grammar instruction seems to be more in agreement with Luke's idea about thinking deeply and noticing grammar rules to develop feelings for language.

9.5.3 Practice.

To direct attention to language form, Luke had the students collectively practice drilling present perfect sentences. Such activities where the structure is emphasized over meaning are known as pre-communicative language practices (Littlewood, 1992). They give the students time to reflect on the structure while the meaning component is controlled.

> This is where they start playing around with the language. And if they don't have this opportunity, I think there's no way they are going to have that chance of producing later on.

Luke_04

Luke views this activity as an opportunity for the students to establish connections between form and meaning, preparing them for implementation in later communicative activities (Littlewood, 1993).

Luke next drilled individual students by having them respond to real-life situation prompts. In communicative language practice of this type (Littlewood, 1993), the structure is fixed, leaving space for students to reflect on combining form and meaning (Littlewood, 1993).

> They're not just practicing one form, only the positive form. You can see the negative form coming in. And it's their chance to begin personalizing what they are going to produce. So because I'm giving them that chance to talk about what would be the true information for themselves, hopefully engaging them more. But also, it's making it more authentic in the fact that they are producing language about themselves that should be true. So the idea is that hopefully that's going to lead them to what they are going to produce later. So if they can practice with language that is personalized now, what they produce later is obviously going to be natural, personalized language.

Luke_05

This activity was followed by a return to pre-communicative practice where each group of students was given academic vocabulary from which to construct an academic sentence. It seems that, to Luke, personalization means making connections to one's everyday life events, a matter different from personal needs (i.e., academic English); hence, requiring a different type of attention.

> What I'm trying to show is that this grammar is not, you know, "I have climbed Mount Everest"! Something that's, you know, someone would say in a casual conversation. Some of that can actually also appear in academic situations and contexts.... A lot of times you got to bring that to the front a little bit more and show them, "Yeah! Look! It can be used in those situations". They weren't great at this I thought. They had a little bit of trouble with it. But that's okay because it shows them that on a basic level they can understand this but maybe when it gets to that more academic type situation, they start to lose it a little bit. But hopefully, showing them that they can pull that ability with a basic form into the academic form a little bit.

The students were able to provide the correct answers to the written exercises; however, they were not able to explicitly relate each exercise to its corresponding function (i.e., the three functions Luke explained at the start of his explicit grammar teaching documented in Luke_03). Luke attributed this to them not having "conceptualized" the reasons for using the present perfect. So, he thought it was best to "start exploring it together" as well as "giving more input" to make the points "more salient". As a result, Luke took the students one step back to the "non-communicative learning" phase to focus on form (Littlewood, 1992).

Luke_06

SLA is essentially devoted to providing the right situations for language learners to turn what is explicit and declarative into what is implicit and procedural and ultimately into automatized knowledge. Luke's students have shown that they are able to apply their

knowledge in somewhat mechanical exercises. In other words, they appear to possess some degree of procedural (implicit) knowledge of the present perfect tense. Luke is attempting to have them turn their implicit knowledge into explicit. He wants to achieve this by directing the students to articulate the different functions of present perfect in exercises, putting them in touch with their "feelings for language". He believes that only through activating such instincts can learners produce language. There is more discussion on this in the knowledge of language and language learning section in Chapter Eight.

Luke, next, briefly explained the differences between present perfect and simple past as an introduction to another set of exercises requiring the application of the tenses. The objective was to have the students practice using present perfect in a more realistic situation where they would need to use different tenses to convey different meanings.

> You can learn a grammar point on its own, and they usually get it. But when you put that back into the midst of all the different grammar points that the world uses, that's when it really gets tricky there. So, to teach them a grammar point on its own is great. To then start contrasting it with some others is a very valuable thing I presume. Because it shows you some side-by-side things. How you have to be careful about your choices. The contrast is a safer environment than I think that total freedom in the world.

This suggests that Luke sees it beneficial for students to discretely focus on present perfect (i.e., one language item) before studying the target language in connection with other language forms. This may explain Luke's hesitation in initially presenting the tense in a meaningful context.

Overall, Luke considers it as essential that students practice language by thinking about, and articulating, grammar rules to make implicit grammar knowledge explicit. Although the students' language needs had an academic focus, Luke saw this as separate

from the students, making him start from everyday English topics prior to having them practice language through academic topics.

9.5.4 Production.

The production stage started with a writing practice relevant to the students' real life experiences. Using the present perfect tense, the students were to write sentences about their peers' life experiences, which they had discovered during the brainstorming stage.

> The following practice task would have a lot more freedom. So it's something that gives them a chance to produce on their own because I'm not giving them prompts. They are taking prompts from their real world.

Luke asked the students to write one sentence of their choice on the board. Then, with the help of the class, he went over the sentences to correct any errors.

> It [writing their sentences on the board] gives them a chance to look at what they've done. And some of them did quite well with it. And for others it's a chance to work on any errors that they might be having trouble with. It gives them a chance to try and then see what they've tried with. And often they're great and sometimes they're not. And you can fix any trouble. So I think out of the 4-5 sentences I had I think only 2 or 3 needed corrections so it was actually a couple that were perfect. Good to see.
>
> Luke_07

Finally, Luke asked the students to write an academic autobiography of themselves in a short paragraph using both present perfect and simple past verbs. Since there was not enough time to check their paragraphs, Luke looked at them later the same day. This free writing task was, in Luke's opinion, not completed at a satisfactory standard.

> I think after this they did the free writing. You didn't see it but I had a look at it later on. Out of the five, the two strong ones had done well with it. And the other ones had avoided it. So it still shows that some of them were clear and more confident with it.

Providing the right opportunities for students to practice production of the newly learnt (or troublesome) grammar points in a meaningful and contextualized manner is of great importance in CLT (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). The rationale for this is argued as freeing up students' attentional resources due to automatisation of certain grammar rules, which in turn gives enough space for students to focus on other aspects of language (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 1988). Students' satisfactory performance of the first production activity was not related to Luke's grammar lesson since it was produced at the warm-up stage, prior to his teaching. The second production practice, to which enough time was not devoted, was important to the students because it required them to write an academic autobiography using a mix of simple past and present perfect tenses (i.e., their stated problem and the reason for the lesson). In this final task, the students still seemed to have the problem, which initiated the lesson, indicating a need for more instruction and/or more practice.

9.5.5 Summary.

The summary table shows that Luke's interpretation of CLT originates from his personal theory of the nature of language and language learning.

Table 24
A Comparison of Luke's Practice with Standard CLT

	Luke	CLT
Brainstorming	Activating background knowledge Personalizing language learning Communicating in authentic language	Activating background knowledge Personalizing language learning Communicating in authentic language Identifying students' competency level
Presentation	Contextualization: using visual prompts, eliciting from students	Contextualization: connecting visual prompts & example sentences to students' language needs
	High explicitness Low elaboration	Low explicitness High elaboration
Practice	Taking students from implicit knowledge to explicit knowledge	Taking students from explicit knowledge to implicit knowledge
Produce	Reflection time required to remove production deficiencies	Abundant practice required to remove production deficiencies

He seems to have a more grammar-oriented view, focusing on direction and control from the teacher to provide students with sufficient time and resources to process information. While the social and collaborative aspects of language learning are important to Luke, personal and private reflection in order to consciously activate language learning instincts is of greater importance. Perhaps such views can be traced back to Luke's undergraduate training in psychology, his graduate studies in applied linguistics, and his teaching experience (with a focus on grammar) and training in Japan.

9.6 Discussion

The data analysed in this chapter were the tasks and activities teachers exerted in the classroom to make teaching and learning happen, which is in line with the definition of teaching methodology or practice by Richards (2004). I traced the teachers' practice and their varied interpretations and justifications of their practice back to their identities (i.e., histories), their construction of their students' identities, and thinking (those related to the nature of language and language learning).

In the three qualitative chapters, we have seen how teachers' identities and the ones they construct for their students are both closely intertwined and present in their thinking and practice. The findings should allow us to accept that the body of knowledge guiding ESL teaching appears to be identity, cognitive, and practice based functioning at different levels of teaching.

Teacher thinking about the nature of language and language learning, the cognitive side of teaching, (respectively, knowledge of language components and knowledge of

language learning theories from the quantitative study) is strongly influenced by teachers' identities (histories) and the identities they construct for their students. These provide the content for the thinking stages that occur prior to the actual lesson planning, which is the development of the teaching material. The thinking stages seem to be similar for all teachers.

The teachers in the study claimed that teaching objectives are identified through the interaction of their knowledge of Self, knowledge of teaching and learning objectives (as identified by the syllabus), knowledge of students, knowledge of language components, and knowledge of language learning. Once teaching objectives have been set out, their knowledge of teaching resources aid them in finding the right material, modifying it, or devising a completely new one. The act of material development is also guided by the teachers' knowledge of Self, knowledge of students, and their knowledge of the features of the material itself. In the case that tests exert a negative washback effect, the language testing element within the knowledge of students category (as identified in the quantitative phase) is attended to more than other elements to the extent that it tends to replace the other elements of the knowledge category.

The preplanning phase begins from the phase in which teachers think about the teaching objectives and continues up to the time they actually develop the materials. Most of the thinking about the lesson plan is done at the pre-planning stage. When planning the lesson, they mainly focus on the timing, sequence, beginning and the end of their teaching. However, they do not appear to think actively about the methods of implementing their plan (practice).

As a result, the lesson plan functions as a framework within which teachers teach. The present study showed that the experienced teachers do not make spontaneous decisions to change the order of the main stages of their lesson plan (i.e., the PPP stages) although they may consider modifying or rearranging the steps within a given stage. Hence, I suggest that the stages of the lesson that are planned prior to teaching, which are fixed and do not seem to be subject to change in terms of sequence, function as an advance organizer. This advance organizer, or what I prefer to call framework for teaching, determines the teaching stages and steps, objectives, and the relevance of the teaching material.

For the moment, I wish to refer to a part of the findings in Chapter Seven. There, I suggested that teachers' pedagogical expertise (Beijaard et al., 2000) partly develops throughout years of being a student and observing others teach which shapes their understandings of what it means to be a teacher (Lortie, 1975). The teachers in the study revealed that their understandings of how (language) learning takes place and consequently how language should be taught to have been shaped by their histories. Hence, I conclude that their pedagogical expertise is constructed through the interaction of their knowledge of Self, knowledge of the student-Other, and knowledge of how languages are learnt. The teachers' knowledge of language, what Beijaard et al. (2000) call subject matter expertise, seems to have been shaped by their personal experience with language and formal education (i.e., histories). The findings suggest that when teaching, teachers' subject matter expertise interacts with their knowledge of students. Last, as discussed elsewhere, teachers' understandings and consequently learning of language teaching methodologies, what Beijaard et al. (2000) call the didactics of teaching, again, is the result of a blend of their

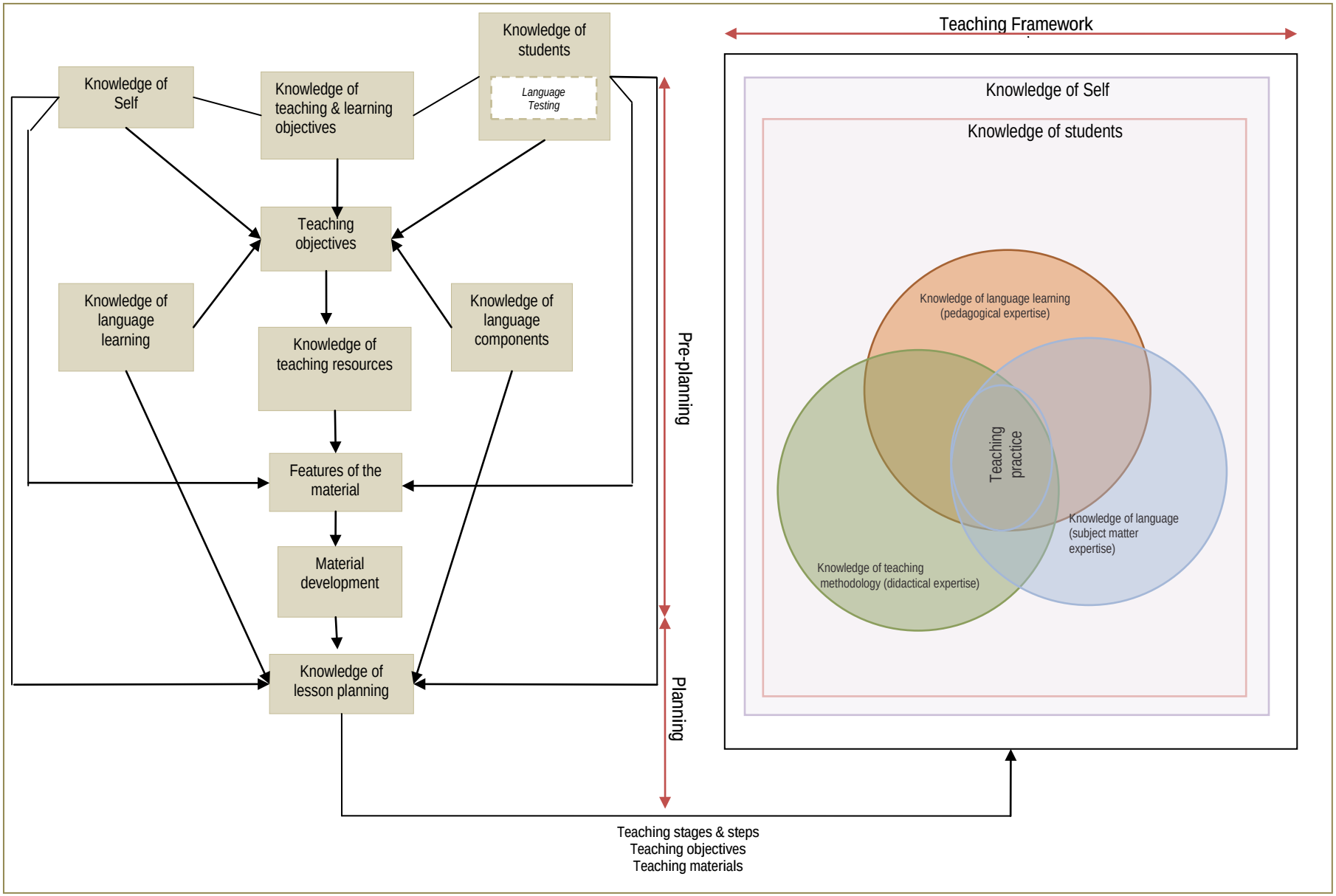
Selves with the teacher education courses, and further developed as they interact with the student-Other in teaching.

Hence, in a given lesson, teaching practice is where teachers' subject matter, pedagogical, and didactical expertise meet against a background of their knowledge of Self and knowledge of the students (i.e., teachers' identity and their construction of the student-Other identities).

The findings of the present and previous chapters on *the interrelationships between the identity, thinking, and practice of experienced ESL teachers for the purposes of teaching adults*, as explained above, are presented in the model on the next page. The points I attempt to establish about the model is that by separating different knowledge types (into boxes and circles) I do not intend to imply that the borderlines between them is clear and one operates at a given stage without the interference of the others. The model is an attempt to illustrate which knowledge types the teachers give more emphasis and attention than the others at a given stage. The one-sided arrows, in the same vein, indicate the direction in which the interaction is stronger rather than implying a merely one-sided interaction direction.

As a very last point of the present chapter, I would like to conclude that the teaching practice of ESL, in addition to being the act of connecting one's content and pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 1999), is also where teachers' knowledge of teaching methodology come into play. Hence, ESL adult teaching practice is the amalgam of teachers' content, pedagogical, and teaching methodology knowledge.

Figure 2
Model of ESL Teaching



Chapter 10: Putting It All Together

10.1 Introduction

The purpose of this mixed methods research study was to explore the teaching of experienced ESL teachers of adult learners in Australia in an attempt to first identify the various elements of ESL teacher knowledge and then to understand the ways in which these are both understood by practitioners and the manner in which they interact in practice. In the following, I present discussion on the findings and conclusions of the study followed by recommendations and some reflections. These are preceded by a recapitulation of the previous chapters.

10.2 Looking Back at the Chapters

In Chapter one, I explained that the motivations for embarking on the study come first from my observations of teachers and later from study of the relevant literature. The research questions and the research approach derived from the purposes of the study were presented. There, I also defined the three concepts of teacher knowledge, practice, and classroom context which are used as a platform for embarking on the thesis.

Chapter Two provided the context of the study, adult ESL students and experienced ESL teachers in Australia. In the chapter, I argued that for adult students, English language learning is of vital importance in that it provides them with career opportunities to support themselves and their families in the new English speaking country. Then, I briefly highlighted the complexities of teaching adults which call for the need to construct teacher education programs that address those complexities in an

efficient manner. I also explain that from among the providers of adult ESL teaching services in Australia AMES, TAFE, ELICOS, were studied in the first phase and only TAFE and ELICOS in the second phase. Finally, I argued that experienced ESL teachers best serve the purposes of the study since they possess a rich repertoire of knowledge and practice (Fogarty, et al., 1983; Gatbonton, 2008; John D. Lange & Sue G. Burroughs-Lange, 1994), are more stable in their knowledge and teaching compared to novice teachers (Gatbonton, 2008), and are presumed to be the practical realization of the theoretical courses teacher trainees take.

In Chapter Three, comparing a series of studies on ESL teacher knowledge, and what guides teaching (Breen et al., 2001), I argue for the need to understand ESL teacher knowledge from a more comprehensive and pragmatic perspective. I contend that studies, of which I am aware, have, so far, either given more weight to the investigation of the nature and sources of teacher knowledge or the connections between knowledge and practice. None have simultaneously investigated teacher knowledge, classroom context, and practice with balanced attention to all three concepts. The result has been identifying varied categorizations and specifications for the construct of ESL teacher knowledge. Furthermore, although the results of the investigations have implications for teacher education programs, none of the studies have used the courses teachers study at the tertiary level as a frame of reference with which to compare their findings. Rather, all studies have referred to self-made or other-made theories of teacher knowledge. Moreover, the majority of the studies have investigated the learning and teaching of student-teachers rather than that of experienced ESL teachers. Last, the studies have not investigated teacher knowledge with a large number of teachers in different teaching contexts.

In Chapter Four, I explained that I see qualitative and quantitative methods of investigation merely as tools in service of the research purpose(s). Therefore, I subscribe to the pragmatic theoretical perspective. The research purpose of the present study, in my view, required looking at teachers and their work using both quantitative and qualitative methods of enquiry. The purpose of the quantitative investigation was to map ESL teachers' knowledge in a large-scale study with diverse experienced teachers from different states in Australia. This had not been done before. The most effective way to investigate teacher knowledge was to ask teachers, themselves, about the phenomenon. Since the study was intended to cover a large number of teachers teaching adults in different states in Australia, the option chosen was an online questionnaire. The content of the questionnaire was derived from teacher education programs (in Australia) since it was reasoned that those programs have translated the presumed knowledge-base that would-be teachers need to implement in their classroom teaching in the form of a series of theoretical courses. In addition, the courses were thought to be a useful starting point since they were common grounds in terms of the theoretical education of ESL teachers. One hundred and eight experienced ESL teachers in TAFE, ELICOS, and AMES participated in the study by responding to an online (likert-scale) questionnaire.

The findings and discussions of the quantitative study are found in Chapter Five. The exploratory factor analysis yielded four categories for Knowledge of Teaching (KT) (i.e., knowledge of practice, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners, and knowledge of resources) and three categories for Knowledge of Language (KL) (i.e., knowledge of contextual factors, knowledge of language components, and knowledge of language learning theories). The survey study also revealed that teachers give significantly more weight to KT than KL in their actual classroom teaching. This difference was gender-based. That is, females saw KT as more important than KL in

ESL teaching. Knowledge of language components (grammar, vocabulary, and phonology) were regarded as the most important of the KL. Knowledge of teaching methodology (teaching the four macro language skills plus the teaching of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) were considered as the most important KT. Qualitative investigation into the findings revealed that it is the translation of their KL (i.e., knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and phonology) into KT (i.e., knowledge of teaching reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, vocabulary, and grammar) that teachers see as most important. In other words, these elements constitute their pedagogical content knowledge. The findings of the study were efficient in providing a framework for a subsequent qualitative investigation of teacher knowledge studying its interaction with the classroom context and practice, which was the purpose of the second phase of the study.

Chapter Six is devoted to clarifying the steps and procedures of the qualitative research, which followed the quantitative phase. There, I present the four participant teachers (along with their students and lessons), the data collection methods, data analysis, triangulation, validation, reflexivity, and ethical considerations in the study.

In Chapter Seven, I looked at teacher identity and teachers' construction of the student-Other. The qualitative study suggested that ESL teachers' Selves (their perception of the "me" within) provide a general framework within which their ESL teacher identities function. ESL teacher identity manifests itself through the roles teachers take on as they teach. Teachers' construction of the student-Other seemed to be influenced by the "me" inside. Teachers who connected with the students more strongly from the professional side seemed to view the students as groups—rather than individuals—and had a stronger tendency to negatively stereotype these groups. The teacher who was both personally and professionally involved with the students, viewed

them from a more individual perspective, and did not negatively stereotype the students. Despite "knowledge of Self" (teacher identity) playing a pivotal part in shaping teacher knowledge and guiding one's practice, there seems to be no place for the theoretical or practical exploration of such knowledge in teacher education programs as identified in the quantitative study. This also implies that teachers' theoretical understanding of their "knowledge of students" is minimally connected to their awareness of their own Selves.

Chapter Eight examined those teacher knowledge-types that were cognitive-based. First, I found not all elements of knowledge from the quantitative phase to be present in the qualitative study. Rather those that the 108 teachers quantitatively emphasized most were also those about which the four teachers qualitatively talked. Most important of all, the four teachers were the same in terms of their thinking and decision-making stages in relation to material development and lesson planning. However, what went into each stage differed from one teacher to another. Moreover, teachers' understanding of the nature of language and language learning seemed to be more directly influenced by their identities, rather than by theories of language and language learning studied at the tertiary level. In the case they referred to any theory, the teachers seemed to have arrived at an individual understanding of the theory which sat within their personal 'self-based' approach to language teaching and learning.

Chapter Nine was the stage where the interrelationships between ESL teacher cognition, identity, and teaching were explored. The teachers' practice was documented in the form of video snippets revealing that what they do in their teaching is more strongly influenced by their identities and their constructions of the student-Other than their training. It seems that their training and interpretation of their roles (teacher identity) are most influenced by the meanings they personally embed in those roles and trainings. For example, teachers all claimed to be supporters of student learning but they

differed in the manner they interpreted the role. The differences were manifested in the enactments of those roles. At the end, I present a synthesis of the findings of the whole thesis in a model illustrating the interrelationships between the three constructs of teacher knowledge, identity, practice, and classroom context (and their structures) as investigated in the study.

10.3 Reflections, Conclusions, and Recommendations

I started this research journey to gain understanding of ESL teaching. My presupposition was that experienced teachers have a repertoire of knowledge from which they can spontaneously draw to accommodate their students' learning needs. I reasoned that the variety of the knowledge types provides such teachers with a variety of cognitive resources to look at the teaching-learning activity from different angles. In addition, I associated the differences between the teachers to their cognitive styles. That is, I assumed teachers to be different due to their different cognitive and thinking styles. While I do not reject this notion, teachers' narrations of their backgrounds and life stories opened a new dimension, suggesting that an element, beyond cognitive styles and even beyond beliefs, was involved. This element seemed to be connected to their being as people and as teachers. In addition, I noticed that while the teachers' perceptions of their students were different from one another and from my own, they appeared to be closely related to the teachers' own identities.

When analysing the classroom context, I found that it is not an entity existing separately from the teachers. It is a part of who teachers are for it is constructed through constant interactions and comparisons of the teachers' understandings of themselves with their understandings of their students. These understandings, which I call knowledge of Self and knowledge of students, are derived from personal history,

education and training, teaching experience, and connections with other teachers. Since teaching is a profession requiring teachers to involve their whole Selves, and the teachers in this study were no exceptions, teachers' knowledge of Self and knowledge of students (especially the interactions between these knowledge types) significantly influenced their thinking and practice.

Moreover, I found that, while in theory, we may share similar ideas about teaching, learning, and students we may dramatically differ in the translation of these ideas into practice. From an outsider's point of view, listening to a teacher and observing their teaching might suggest that there is discrepancy between the teacher's words and actions. Looking more closely, I found that close connections could be found between the teachers' theoretical understandings and their identities. In other words, we may use the same terms to express different ideas.

That teacher identity is present in every aspect of what teachers do but not present in teacher education programs suggests that the greatest challenge in learning to teach is located in this area. I argue that there is great need for enabling student-teachers to make connections between those relevant aspects of their identities and the theoretical and practical sides of ESL teaching. By making constant comparisons between themselves, their students, their understandings of the components of language, their understandings of how languages are learnt, and how these understandings are translated into teaching methodology, student-teachers can actively connect the pedagogical, subject matter, and didactical sides of their teaching. In this manner, the act of teaching is more strongly based on informed choices rather than a less thoughtful reaction to the dynamics at work at a given time.

The main tenet of CLT is its emphasis on teachers helping learners to connect the lesson to their own selves. This cannot be possible unless teachers have already experienced the process of making such connections. While a myriad of methods for connecting ESL lessons to students' personal sides have been suggested, teacher training courses lack such methods for student-teachers making the same type of connections between the courses and themselves.

Merely being conscious of the connections between different aspects of one's identity and one's teaching is not enough. As we saw, in the case of Louise, she was able to make those connections. However, she did not see the influences, both negative and positive, that her history was having on Louise as a teacher. Therefore, I propose that teacher education should help student-teachers to also become critical thinkers. By having a critical perspective, teachers and student-teachers can learn to see the impact of their past on their teaching, aiding them to think about ways to creatively ameliorate or improve their work. Observing oneself teach is one of the most effective means to start this process of reflection. This can best be accomplished by having the teachers and/or student-teachers critically observe their classroom practice. To raise more consciousness, video-recorded teaching can become the topic of a non-threatening group discussion.

The findings are the result of an investigation of ESL teaching at a microscopic level. Since teachers are also connected to the contexts in which they teach (although the quantitative study did not identify significant differences between teachers working in different teaching contexts) it is necessary to qualitatively investigate the influence of the teaching context on ESL teaching. As we saw in the case of Ann and Louise, there were instances where they were attributing issues in their teaching to the larger context (i.e., the institute and its particular policies) in which they teach.

The findings of the study are relevant to ESL teachers from English speaking backgrounds. I suggest that, had the teacher participants been from non-English speaking backgrounds, the results may have been different. Thus, it would be appropriate to suggest that there is a need to replicate the study in a different context where the teacher participants are from non-English speaking backgrounds.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire

A STUDY OF ESL TEACHER KNOWLEDGE IN THE AUSTRALIAN

1. The aims of the questionnaire

My name is Khatereh Yazdanpanah and I am conducting a research project in the Faculty of Education towards a PhD Degree at Monash University. This means that I will be writing a thesis. The results of the study may also be used for publishing journal articles and/or presenting papers at conferences.
The aim of the study is to map ESL teachers' knowledge of the English language system and knowledge of teaching & learning in the context of teaching adults. Teacher education programs offer a wide range of courses which they deem essential for TESOL teachers to know prior to teaching. There is a need for understanding the extent to which teachers benefit from the subject matters learned in their formal education when teaching adults. The study has the potential to contribute to teacher education programs by increased understanding of the knowledge base teachers draw upon when teaching, thus contributing to the professional development of ESL teachers.
I should also mention that the data is collected in the form of an anonymous questionnaire, so your identities will remain confidential.If you would like to be informed of the summary of the research finding, please contact Khatereh Yazdanpanah on (W) 990 52885 (Please allow 3 months from the time you respond for the data to be gathered and analyzed).

Thank you for your cooperation.

A STUDY OF ESL TEACHER KNOWLEDGE IN THE AUSTRALIAN

2. Default Section

1. Gender

- ◯ Male
- ◯ Female

2. Please write your age

Age

3. Please write your TESOL qualification

4. Please write your years of ESL teaching experience

Enter number of years here

5. Please write your current teaching context

- ☐ a. Neighbourhood House
- ☐ b. TAFE
- ☐ c. university language courses
- ☐ d. AMES
- ☐ e. other

Other (please specify)

A STUDY OF ESL TEACHER KNOWLEDGE IN THE AUSTRALIAN

6. Below is a list of TESOL subject matters offered at universities Australia-wide. The universities identify them as important for TESOL teachers. How important do you think they are when teaching ESL adults in your classrooms?

Rate the usefulness of each of type of knowledge from 1 for 'extremely useful' to 7 for 'not at all useful'. If you are unfamiliar with a term or uncertain of its meaning, please tick 0.

Knowledge of the English language system

	1 (extremely useful)	2	3	4	5	6	7 (not at all useful)	Not Familiar with the term
Grammar	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Word Meaning & use	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Phonology	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Morphology	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Pragmatics	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sociolinguistics	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
English for academic/specific purposes	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Language & culture	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
English literature	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Discourse analysis	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
World Englishes	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
First language acquisition theories	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Second language acquisition theories	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Bilingualism/multilingualism	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Intercultural communication	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
English as a global language	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Literacy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

A STUDY OF ESL TEACHER KNOWLEDGE IN THE AUSTRALIAN

7. Enter and rate the usefulness of any other knowledge of the English language system here. Give a score of 1 to 7 where 1 is extremely useful and 7 is not useful at all.

Other (Please Specify and give a score) _____

Other (Please Specify and give a score) _____

Other (Please Specify and give a score) _____

8. Knowledge of language teaching & learning

	1 (Extremely useful)	2	3	4	5	6	7 (Not at all useful)	Not familiar with the term
Teaching reading	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching writing	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching speaking	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching listening	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching pronunciation	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching grammar	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching vocabulary	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
English language teaching methodology	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Developing language teaching materials	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Communicative language teaching	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Designing tasks	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Computer-assisted language learning	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
E-learning	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Adult learning	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Classroom organization	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Learner sensitivities & learning styles	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Nonverbal communication in L2 learning	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching English in international contexts	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Curriculum design	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Syllabus design	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Lesson planning	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Curriculum evaluation	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

A STUDY OF ESL TEACHER KNOWLEDGE IN THE AUSTRALIAN

Language testing ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

9. Enter and rate the usefulness of any other knowledge of teaching & learning here. Give a score of 1 to 7 where 1 is extremely useful and 7 is not useful at all.

Other (Please specify and give a score

Other (Please specify and give a score)

Other (Please specify and give a score)

10. Do you have any comments?

Appendix B: Anti-Image Matrices for KT and KL

Anti-image Matrices for KT

		Teaching reading	Teaching writing	Teaching speaking	Teaching listening	Teaching pronunciation	Teaching grammar	Teaching vocabulary	Methodology	Materials	CLT	Designing tasks	CALL	E-learning	ALL	Classroom organization	Learner sensitivities & learning	Nonverbal communication in L2 learning	Teaching English in international	Curriculum Design	Syllabus design	Lesson planning	Curriculum evaluation	Language testing
Anti-image Covariance	Teaching reading	.105	-.078	.046	-.071	-.015	-.054	.010	-.018	-.009	.031	.028	-.041	.010	.010	-.009	-.016	.025	-.048	.002	.007	.015	-.002	-.020
	Teaching writing	-.078	.212	-.117	.059	.044	.011	-.080	-.026	.002	-.071	-.026	.042	-.007	-.016	.011	-.012	-.025	.023	.024	-.009	-.018	-.020	.011
	Teaching speaking	.046	-.117	.199	-.089	-.015	-.016	.048	-.007	.003	.086	.005	-.010	-.019	.041	-.044	.009	.032	-.004	-.035	.035	-.051	.012	.011
	Teaching listening	-.071	.059	-.089	.095	-.014	.024	-.042	.017	.011	-.049	-.029	.034	-.004	-.036	.047	-.017	-.027	.052	.007	-.014	-.009	.010	.001
	Teaching pronunciation	-.015	.044	-.015	-.014	.302	-.066	-.072	-.032	.034	-.093	.004	.005	.012	-.069	-.067	.060	-.115	.042	.019	-.001	.032	-.002	-.059
	Teaching grammar	-.054	.011	-.016	.024	-.066	.396	-.062	-.067	.012	.017	-.043	.002	.052	-.059	.040	.010	-.025	.028	-.031	.016	-.013	-.034	.076
	Teaching vocabulary	.010	-.080	.048	-.042	-.072	-.062	.299	-.013	-.031	.008	.058	-.060	.026	.056	-.039	.084	.006	-.097	.000	-.032	.066	.013	-.029
	Methodology	-.018	-.026	-.007	.017	-.032	-.067	-.013	.432	-.147	-.015	.084	-.004	-.029	.112	-.080	-.024	.051	.058	-.019	.038	-.009	-.003	-.040
	Materials	-.009	.002	.003	.011	.034	.012	-.031	-.147	.211	.004	-.136	.001	.003	-.098	.069	.015	-.082	.022	-.014	-.028	.004	.029	.101
	CLT	.031	-.071	.086	-.049	-.093	.017	.008	-.015	.004	.403	-.077	.012	-.025	.093	-.057	.044	.013	-.036	-.027	.040	-.100	-.008	.011
	Designing tasks	.028	-.026	.005	-.029	.004	-.043	.058	.084	-.136	-.077	.197	-.051	.007	.064	-.058	-.020	.080	-.053	.006	.001	.033	-.001	-.104
	CALL	-.041	.042	-.010	.034	.005	.002	-.060	-.004	.001	.012	-.051	.199	-.156	-.006	.006	-.037	.012	.079	-.009	.019	-.076	.009	.000
	E-learning	.010	-.007	-.019	-.004	.012	.052	.026	-.029	.003	-.025	.007	-.156	.225	-.087	-.011	.046	-.042	-.070	.003	-.016	.062	-.005	.029
	ALL	.010	-.016	.041	-.036	-.069	-.059	.056	.112	-.098	.093	.064	-.006	-.087	.512	-.095	-.006	.074	-.074	.025	-.005	-.016	-.031	-.064
	Classroom organization	-.009	.011	-.044	.047	-.067	.040	-.039	-.080	.069	-.057	-.058	.006	-.011	-.095	.262	-.139	.021	-.014	-.004	-.018	-.053	.005	.043
	Learner sensitivities & learning styles	-.016	-.012	.009	-.017	.060	.010	.084	-.024	.015	.044	-.020	-.037	.046	-.006	-.139	.299	-.138	-.043	.025	-.026	.100	-.046	-.051
	Nonverbal communication in L2 learning	.025	-.025	.032	-.027	-.115	-.025	.006	.051	-.082	.013	.080	.012	-.042	.074	.021	-.138	.417	-.123	.027	-.007	-.037	-.047	-.038
	Teaching English in international contexts	-.048	.023	-.004	.052	.042	.028	-.097	.058	.022	-.036	-.053	.079	-.070	-.074	-.014	-.043	-.123	.493	-.067	.071	-.060	.009	.008
	Curriculum Design	.002	.024	-.035	.007	.019	-.031	.000	-.019	-.014	-.027	.006	-.009	.003	.025	-.004	.025	.027	-.067	.114	-.092	.057	-.070	-.038
	Syllabus design	.007	-.009	.035	-.014	-.001	.016	-.032	.038	-.028	.040	.001	.019	-.016	-.005	-.018	-.026	-.007	.071	-.092	.134	-.094	-.001	.016
	Lesson planning	.015	-.018	-.051	-.009	.032	-.013	.066	-.009	.004	-.100	.033	-.076	.062	-.016	-.053	.100	-.037	-.060	.057	-.094	.468	-.080	-.024
	Curriculum evaluation	-.002	-.020	.012	.010	-.002	-.034	.013	-.003	.029	-.008	-.001	.009	-.005	-.031	.005	-.046	-.047	.009	-.070	-.001	-.080	.269	-.051
	Language testing	-.020	.011	.011	.001	-.059	.076	-.029	-.040	.101	.011	-.104	.000	.029	-.064	.043	-.051	-.038	.008	-.038	.016	-.024	-.051	.456
Anti-image Correlation	Teaching reading	.798	-.520	.319	-.711	-.084	-.267	.055	-.085	-.061	.153	.191	-.281	.064	.042	-.057	-.088	.118	-.210	.018	.058	.069	-.012	-.092
	Teaching writing	-.520	.791	-.567	.417	.174	.039	-.318	-.088	.010	-.244	-.129	.204	-.034	-.047	.048	-.047	-.085	.071	.154	-.054	-.059	-.082	.036
	Teaching speaking	.319	-.567	.743	-.649	-.060	-.059	.195	-.024	.017	.303	.024	-.052	-.090	.127	-.194	.036	.110	-.011	-.230	.217	-.166	.051	.038
	Teaching listening	-.711	.417	-.649	.716	-.085	.123	-.251	.083	.078	-.253	-.213	.245	-.029	-.164	.299	-.102	-.138	.243	.065	-.126	-.042	.060	.004
	Teaching pronunciation	-.084	.174	-.060	-.085	.862	-.191	-.240	-.088	.136	-.268	.017	.021	.048	-.176	-.238	.200	-.325	.109	.101	-.006	.086	-.009	-.158
	Teaching grammar	-.267	.039	-.059	.123	-.191	.904	-.179	-.161	.041	.044	-.153	.007	.174	-.131	.125	.028	-.061	.064	-.145	.069	-.031	-.104	.178
	Teaching vocabulary	.055	-.318	.195	-.251	-.240	-.179	.843	-.035	-.124	.023	.240	-.244	.101	.144	-.141	.282	.017	-.254	-.001	-.160	.176	.045	-.079
	Methodology	-.085	-.088	-.024	.083	-.088	-.161	-.035	.822	-.487	-.035	.286	-.013	-.092	.238	-.237	-.068	.121	.125	-.086	.157	-.019	-.009	-.090
	Materials	-.061	.010	.017	.078	.136	.041	-.124	-.487	.722	.015	-.668	.007	.014	-.298	.294	.061	-.278	.068	-.088	-.164	.014	.122	.326
	CLT	.153	-.244	.303	-.253	-.268	.044	.023	-.035	.015	.839	-.273	.042	-.082	.204	-.176	.127	.031	-.080	-.125	.170	-.229	-.025	.024
	Designing tasks	.191	-.129	.024	-.213	.017	-.153	.240	.286	-.668	-.273	.757	-.256	.032	.200	-.253	-.083	.280	-.171	.042	.006	.108	-.005	-.345
	CALL	-.281	.204	-.052	.245	.021	.007	-.244	-.013	.007	.042	-.256	.747	-.737	-.019	.028	-.153	.043	.253	-.059	.117	-.249	.038	-.001
	E-learning	.064	-.034	-.090	-.029	.048	.174	.101	-.092	.014	-.082	.032	-.737	.753	-.257	-.045	.176	-.136	-.209	.020	-.094	.191	-.022	.091
	Adult Language Learning	.042	-.047	.127	-.164	-.176	-.131	.144	.238	-.298	.204	.200	-.019	-.257	.784	-.260	-.016	.160	-.147	.104	-.018	-.032	-.084	-.132
	Classroom organization	-.057	.048	-.194	.299	-.238	.125	-.141	-.237	.294	-.176	-.253	.028	-.045	-.260	.818	-.497	.062	-.039	-.024	-.095	-.150	.018	.124
	Learner sensitivities & learning styles	-.088	-.047	.036	-.102	.200	.028	.282	-.068	.061	.127	-.083	-.153	.176	-.016	-.497	.775	-.390	-.113	.135	-.130	.268	-.162	-.139
	Nonverbal communication in L2 learning	.118	-.085	.110	-.138	-.325	-.061	.017	.121	-.278	.031	.280	.043	-.136	.160	.062	-.390	.794	-.271	.123	-.030	-.085	-.140	-.087
	Teaching English in international contexts	-.210	.071	-.011	.243	.109	.064	-.254	.125	.068	-.080	-.171	.253	-.209	-.147	-.039	-.113	-.271	.763	-.283	.276	-.126	.026	.016
	Curriculum .Design	.018	.154	-.230	.065	.101	-.145	-.001	-.086	-.088	-.125	.042	-.059	.020	.104	-.024	.135	.123	-.283	.783	-.747	.249	-.402	-.168
	Syllabus design	.058	-.054	.217	-.126	-.006	.069	-.160	.157	-.164	.170	.006	.117	-.094	-.018	-.095	-.130	-.030	.276	-.747	.782	-.377	-.003	.064
	Lesson planning	.069	-.059	-.166	-.042	.086	-.031	.176	-.019	.014	-.229	.108	-.249	.191	-.032	-.150	.268	-.085	-.126	.249	-.377	.800	-.225	-.052
	Curriculum evaluation	-.012	-.082	.051	.060	-.009	-.104	.045	-.009	.122	-.025	-.005	.038	-.022	-.084	.018	-.162	-.140	.026	-.402	-.003	-.225	.923	-.146
	Language testing	-.092	.036	.038	.004	-.158	.178	-.079	-.090	.326	.024	-.345	-.001	.091	-.132	.124	-.139	-.087	.016	-.168	.064	-.052	-.146	.868

Anti-image Matrices for KL

		Grammar	Word Meaning & use	Phonology	Morphology	Pragmatics	Sociolinguistics	EAP/ESP	Language culture	English literature	Discourse analysis	WE	First language acquisition theories	SLA	Bilingualism/multilingualism	Intercultural communication	English as a global language	Literacy
Anti-image Covariance	Grammar	.516	-.221	-.113	.028	-.074	.082	.006	-.024	-.034	-.121	.015	.013	-.058	.027	.058	-.010	-.029
	Word Meaning & use	-.221	.590	-.052	-.038	.011	-.023	-.088	-.028	-.026	.110	.003	-.074	.088	.029	-.053	.005	.034
	Phonology	-.113	-.052	.336	-.169	.026	-.015	.008	-.025	-.042	-.050	-.035	.013	-.032	.006	.057	.044	-.012
	Morphology	.028	-.038	-.169	.299	-.141	-.019	-.041	.057	-.017	.015	.034	-.050	.042	-.003	.045	-.046	-.148
	Pragmatics	-.074	.011	.026	-.141	.361	-.125	.023	-.014	-.003	.036	-.049	.070	-.097	.037	-.118	.021	.193
	Sociolinguistics	.082	-.023	-.015	-.019	-.125	.356	.034	-.186	-.008	-.141	-.050	.034	.006	-.067	.029	.042	-.050
	EAP/ESP	.006	-.088	.008	-.041	.023	.034	.602	-.074	-.050	-.147	-.040	.042	-.009	-.054	-.055	-.022	.095
	Language culture	-.024	-.028	-.025	.057	-.014	-.186	-.074	.586	-.052	.051	.031	-.047	.013	-.013	-.019	-.031	-.009
	English literature	-.034	-.026	-.042	-.017	-.003	-.008	-.050	-.052	.563	-.020	-.106	.001	.022	-.010	-.004	-.020	-.039
	Discourse analysis	-.121	.110	-.050	.015	.036	-.141	-.147	.051	-.020	.539	.016	-.077	.006	.022	-.030	-.042	-.019
	WE	.015	.003	-.035	.034	-.049	-.050	-.040	.031	-.106	.016	.316	-.074	.008	-.044	.017	-.139	-.010
	First language acquisition theories	.013	-.074	.013	-.050	.070	.034	.042	-.047	.001	-.077	-.074	.395	-.187	-.057	-.066	.048	.042
	SLA	-.058	.088	-.032	.042	-.097	.006	-.009	.013	.022	.006	.008	-.187	.374	-.126	-.034	.063	-.012
	Bilingualism/multilingualism	.027	.029	.006	-.003	.037	-.067	-.054	-.013	-.010	.022	-.044	-.057	-.126	.333	.020	-.107	-.023
	Intercultural communication	.058	-.053	.057	.045	-.118	.029	-.055	-.019	-.004	-.030	.017	-.066	-.034	.020	.385	-.139	-.216
	English as a global language	-.010	.005	.044	-.046	.021	.042	-.022	-.031	-.020	-.042	-.139	.048	.063	-.107	-.139	.322	.049
	Literacy	-.029	.034	-.012	-.148	.193	-.050	.095	-.009	-.039	-.019	-.010	.042	-.012	-.023	-.216	.049	.556
Anti-image Correlation	Grammar	.752	-.401	-.271	.071	-.172	.191	.010	-.044	-.063	-.229	.037	.029	-.133	.066	.131	-.024	-.055
	Word Meaning & use	-.401	.764	-.116	-.091	.023	-.050	-.147	-.047	-.044	.194	.008	-.152	.187	.065	-.111	.012	.059
	Phonology	-.271	-.116	.820	-.533	.076	-.045	.017	-.056	-.097	-.117	-.108	.036	-.089	.019	.159	.134	-.028
	Morphology	.071	-.091	-.533	.776	-.431	-.059	-.096	.137	-.040	.037	.112	-.146	.127	-.008	.132	-.148	-.363
	Pragmatics	-.172	.023	.076	-.431	.750	-.350	.049	-.030	-.006	.081	-.145	.185	-.263	.106	-.315	.061	.432
	Sociolinguistics	.191	-.050	-.045	-.059	-.350	.840	.073	-.408	-.017	-.321	-.150	.090	.018	-.195	.079	.124	-.113
	EAP/ESP	.010	-.147	.017	-.096	.049	.073	.906	-.125	-.086	-.258	-.091	.087	-.018	-.120	-.115	-.050	.165
	Language culture	-.044	-.047	-.056	.137	-.030	-.408	-.125	.882	-.090	.091	.071	-.097	.028	-.030	-.040	-.072	-.016
	English literature	-.063	-.044	-.097	-.040	-.006	-.017	-.086	-.090	.957	-.036	-.251	.003	.047	-.024	-.008	-.046	-.070
	Discourse analysis	-.229	.194	-.117	.037	.081	-.321	-.258	.091	-.036	.866	.040	-.167	.013	.051	-.067	-.102	-.035
	WE	.037	.008	-.108	.112	-.145	-.150	-.091	.071	-.251	.040	.894	-.210	.022	-.135	.049	-.435	-.023
	First language acquisition theories	.029	-.152	.036	-.146	.185	.090	.087	-.097	.003	-.167	-.210	.829	-.487	-.158	-.169	.135	.090
	SLA	-.133	.187	-.089	.127	-.263	.018	-.018	.028	.047	.013	.022	-.487	.793	-.358	-.091	.182	-.027
	Bilingualism/multilingualism	.066	.065	.019	-.008	.106	-.195	-.120	-.030	-.024	.051	-.135	-.158	-.358	.894	.055	-.327	-.054
	Intercultural communication	.131	-.111	.159	.132	-.315	.079	-.115	-.040	-.008	-.067	.049	-.169	-.091	.055	.783	-.396	-.468
	English as a global language	-.024	.012	.134	-.148	.061	.124	-.050	-.072	-.046	-.102	-.435	.135	.182	-.327	-.396	.807	.117
	Literacy	-.055	.059	-.028	-.363	.432	-.113	.165	-.016	-.070	-.035	-.023	.090	-.027	-.054	-.468	.117	.580

Appendix C: Summary of the Four Teachers' Details

Teachers	Background	Education	Teaching Context	Students	Lesson
Ann	Teacher of French & English at the secondary level in Perth and Melbourne	Bachelor of Education, Postgraduate Diploma in LOTE, graduate certificate in TESOL	TAFE	Free of charge Certificate of Spoken English course at the preliminary level comprising of adult chinese migrants in their 30's to 70's	Food, container, and measurement vocabulary
Bill	Teacher of ESL in Papua New Guinea, England, and Saudi Arabia	Bachelor in English Literature, Two Certificates in TESOL	TAFE	Certificate IV in ESL academic English for further studies, two men and eleven women of Brazilian, Chinese, Iranian, Lebanese, Korean, and Vietnamese backgrounds	Practice in discussion, negotiation, problem-solving, and note-taking
Luke	Teacher of ESL in Japan	Bachelor of psychology and biochemestry, Currently a student of Masters of applied linguistics	ELICOS	Dorctoral studetns from Indonesia with varied educational backgrounds	Present perfect tense and its connection to the simple past tense
Louise	Nurse in the Royal Children's Hospital in Adelaide	Nursing degree, Msters of TESOL, currently PhD student in TESOL (education)	ELICOS	Upper-intermediate students taking English for further study courses, six males and six females in their early 20s from China, france, Peru, and Saudi Arabia	Argumentative essay on the topic of child care centres