

Bridging Contexts, Making Connections

Selected Papers from the
Fifth International Conference
on Language Teacher Education

Edited by Michael Anderson & Anne Lazaraton

CARLA Working Paper

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Language Teacher Education**

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**Michael Anderson
Anne Lazaraton**



UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

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Bridging Context, Making Connections: Selected Papers from the Fifth International Conference on Language Teacher Education

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Introduction

In May of 2007, over 250 language teacher educators gathered at the University of Minnesota in Minneapolis for the Fifth International Conference on Language Teacher Education (LTE). This biannual conference was designed to bring together language teacher educators from diverse backgrounds who teach in diverse contexts to discuss and debate the important issues we all encounter when training language teachers. Until the conference began just eight years before, there was really no such forum for teacher educators that focused primarily on the important (and often unique) issues related to language teacher education.

Over the course of the five conferences, ongoing dialogues have developed through conversations with colleagues from around the world, and through the publication of a peer-reviewed, selected proceedings from each conference. With this volume, we hope to continue those dialogues.

The theme of the 2007 conference was “Bridging Contexts, Making Connections.” The planning committee chose this theme to reflect the diversity of voices we felt were important to bring to discussions among language teacher educators, including those who work with teachers at the pre-K, K-12, or postsecondary level as foreign language teachers, English as a second language (ESL) teachers, immersion teachers, and heritage language teachers, just to name a few. Although we teach in different countries around the world, we share is a common interest in promoting ‘best practices’ in LTE, and thus educating the best language teachers; what we learn from our colleagues working in these varied contexts can prove invaluable in understanding and negotiating our own roles and responsibilities in LTE.

This diversity of voices is reflected in this volume through the different contexts in which these language teacher educators work and conduct research, and through the variety of research paradigms adopted. Some of the work addresses the practices of language teacher education in diverse contexts, while other writers challenge us to rethink the knowledge base of language teacher education, to think critically about what this knowledge consists of and why, and to describe classroom and professional tools that will best equip language teachers to help their students achieve their language learning goals.

In the first paper of these proceedings, Elaine Tarone challenges us to examine how we approach training language teachers. Using the metaphor of the explorer preparing to travel through an unfamiliar wilderness, Tarone advocates equipping our student teachers with the skills they will need to analyze their students’ language usage and help guide these students to

their language learning goals. This is a departure from how language teachers are often taught in many courses on topics such as second language acquisition or language structure. Instead of only teaching the facts or familiarizing student teachers with existing theories and research, she advocates incorporating a significant laboratory portion to these classes where ‘teacher-learners’ are aided in analyzing actual learner language and describing for themselves what is occurring with the learner language so that they can make informed decisions on how to best aid the learning process; Tarone lays out some concrete ways for teacher educators to promote engagement in this ‘teacher-as-researcher’ process.

In the second paper, Jo Tyler takes up some of these same themes in a commentary on two foundational concepts in second language acquisition and teaching, namely, input and output and the theoretical models they represent. Tyler takes a more critical stance than Tarone does, by scrutinizing input-based models of SLA (especially Krashen’s input model) in terms of the intellectual, commercial, sociopolitical, and institutional contexts in which they are embedded. She argues that teacher-learners are exposed primarily to input models at the expense of models of comprehensible output, thus limiting their knowledge about SLA and their options for promoting effective language learning. The development of a “more complex and problematized sensibility” in our teacher-learners must involve an inquiry-based approach to the study of linguistics, L1 vs. L2 acquisition, sociolinguistics, and literacy studies; she suggests that “it is also essential to foster an identity of pedagogical professionalism” in our teacher-learners by providing numerous opportunities for critical reflection on issues in language teaching.

One means of engendering the ‘attitude of inquiry’ espoused by Tyler is described in the next paper by Sarah Jourdain, who argues that the application of constructivist principles in language teacher education promotes a more critical and reflective stance of the “received wisdom about best practices” in language teaching. After reviewing five general principles of Constructivism, Jourdain proposes that action research is one way that teacher-learners are able to experience constructivism in practice. The phases of action research are detailed; Jourdain then exemplifies the action research process by describing a collaborative action research project carried out by two teachers of Italian who were enrolled in a foreign language acquisition research course. Jourdain concludes that by the end of the project, the student teachers had successfully bridged the theory-practice divide in their roles as “teacher-researchers”, thus achieving the goal that Tarone details in her chapter that begins these proceedings.

The next two papers in this volume focus on issues of professional development in language teacher education. Martha Bigelow, Pamela Wesely, and Lora Opsahl report on the

perceptions of teachers in a K-12 modern language department engaged in the implementation of a professional development initiative, the ultimate goal of which was to integrate a multicultural curriculum into disciplines across an entire school. Bigelow et al. contrast the more traditional conception of culture in foreign language teaching with a more critical framing in which ‘differences’ (such as gender, ethnicity, etc.) are viewed within the systems of oppression in American culture. Their qualitative case study focused on six foreign language teachers of Spanish and Chinese who were interviewed and who completed open-ended questionnaires over a period of months. Their findings reveal teacher perceptions on learning and engagement, reflection on departmental goals and the school agenda, and differences between the native speaker and nonnative speaker teacher participants, including that the greatest challenges for these teachers were tracking long-term professional development and continuing the curricular transformation across disciplines at the school.

Ann Mabbott addresses another important issue in language teacher education programs in the following paper, namely, how program evaluation is conducted and how standardized assessments can be incorporated into this evaluation. Mabbott describes the experience of one TESL M.A. and licensure program and the program evaluation the faculty undertook using the NCATE and TESOL teacher education program assessment guidelines as a starting point. Standardized test scores for teachers and students were both analyzed in the process of using data to create a program evaluation which had both formative and summative elements. This paper directly addresses the practices of language teacher education at the programmatic level and provides a glimpse into some of the evaluative measures and systematic data collection procedures that one program adopted to ensure quality in teacher development.

In the following paper, Diana Dudzik also reports on the practices of English language teacher education, but in a very different context: Djibouti. This qualitative study outlines the challenges and successes of language teacher education in a context that has not received enough attention in LTE scholarship, and incorporates the voices of middle school English language teachers, teacher educators, and educational policy makers into the analysis. In many contexts in many countries, educational reform takes place without collaboration with language teacher educators. Dudzik challenges us to consider whether meaningful educational reform can be sustained without ongoing teacher education that supports the reform. Her case study sheds light on the relationship between language teacher education and educational reform and how it can impact teacher practice and student learning by cultivating “professional practitioners with adaptive expertise.”

Next, Elizabeth Harrison investigates the instructional choices of Mississippi foreign language teachers and the influence of pedagogical training and subject area knowledge. The 124 teachers who completed an online survey were asked to rate, on a 1-5 scale, the frequency of various activities in their classrooms in the areas of Communication, Culture, and Language Instruction; these were the three dependent variables in the analysis. Demographic information was also collected to determine the nature of the participants' educational and professional backgrounds. Harrison used a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) procedure to test the effect of two independent variables (hours of foreign language college class work and education college course work) on the dependent variables. Results indicated a significant difference in communication and culture activity ratings for the variable hours of foreign language course work; other comparisons were not statistically significant. Harrison concludes that improved language proficiency of and increased cultural knowledge in foreign language teachers are crucial for "implement[ing] a variety of activities that comprise a foreign language course."

The final paper in this volume addresses a topic that until now has not been adequately recognized by the field, the preparation of teachers who instruct heritage language learners. Cognizant of the numbers of heritage language learners in classrooms across the globe, and drawing on the data we know about these learners, their motivations, their communities, and their backgrounds, Olga Kagan and Kathleen Dillon propose a matrix of considerations that language teacher educators should take into account when designing a teacher education program for instructors of heritage language learners. We feel it is a fitting paper to end the volume, as it looks to the future by proposing a matrix to be tested by others and invites dialogue around this issue. Like Tarone's paper which begins the volume, this work challenges us to rethink how we engage in the multitude of practices of language teacher education.

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Equipping Teachers to be Language Explorers: Exploring Language in the Classroom¹

Elaine Tarone, University of Minnesota

As part of reconceptualizing the knowledge base for language teaching, this paper argues that language teacher educators should equip teacher-learners to be language explorers rather than people who just ‘teach the book’. Language teacher education should continue to provide teachers with **facts** about the structure of language and the process of language learning, but should also provide more opportunities for hands-on experiences that can provide them with **skills** for the analysis of both language and learning. In every course, existing lecture approaches should be supplemented with lab experiences. In this way language teachers will acquire skills to be able to describe for themselves the language produced by learners in their classrooms, and improve their understanding of language and language learning for use in making pedagogical decisions.

Introduction

Many years ago, when I was beginning my first real full-time job (teaching Spanish and English in a California public high school), I asked someone in the teacher’s lounge, “What do you teach?” I was expecting her to say something like “I teach first and second year English.” I was astonished when she said, “I teach Prentice Hall.” It was my first encounter with an orientation to teaching that all of us, as language teacher educators, probably continue to strive mightily to combat on an ongoing basis as we work with professional development for language teachers – namely, the idea that teaching language simply involves “teaching the book.” As language teacher educators, we strive instead to get language teachers to teach learners -- not books, or curricula, or tests, or parents. We work hard to get language teachers to learn how to figure out who their students are, what they know of the language, what aspects of the language they still need to learn, and finally to figure out how to teach them those aspects in ways that really work for those students. Teaching learners requires a complex knowledge base and a full set of finely honed skills.

In some ways, teaching a language is rather like taking a trip. There are two general approaches one can take. In the first approach to teaching, you “teach the book.” You teach students who may all be from the same linguistic and cultural background, in programs where someone else has ordered the book, planned the calendar, the activities, and the tests; such language classes are based on some professional’s global assumptions about the average student

who takes the class. Pretty much all you need to do is show up in class on time and do what the book says. Being such a language teacher is rather like being a tour group member. You travel in groups of people like yourself on pre-planned tours, where someone else has selected popular routes, schedules, hotels, restaurants, and activities; all these decisions have been made based on the trip organizer's global assumptions about the average interests and needs of people like them. All you really need to do as a "tour traveler" is show up on time and do what you're told. It isn't clear to me that it requires a whole lot of language teacher education to prepare this kind of "teacher."

In the second approach to language teaching, you teach what your students *need to learn*. You teach a language to students who may come from different native language and cultural backgrounds, in a class where on an ongoing basis you have to choose: activities, teaching materials, schedule, and tests. You make these choices based on a deep understanding of your particular students' diverse and ongoing language learning needs, an understanding achieved through a continuing analysis you carry out yourself. Being such a language teacher is like being a language explorer. You travel on your own, pretty much, getting off the beaten track, choosing your own route, schedule, housing, food, and activities. You make these choices based on the very local, unfolding conditions of the trip. This second approach, both to language teaching and travel, is hard; it requires special training, equipment, skills, sensitivity to changing contexts, and the wisdom to use the right skills in the right context. Language teacher education that prepares this kind of language teacher is both challenging and rewarding, and, I assume, is what language teacher educators strive for. (For a very persuasive new articulation of this approach to language teacher development, see Allwright & Hanks, 2009). Of course, in using this approach, all of us must constantly ask ourselves, as part of our own ongoing needs analysis, "How well prepared are the language teachers we educate? Do they have the skills they need to do accurate analyses of the needs of their students, and then to adapt their teaching to address those needs?"

It seems clear that there is a huge need for teacher education in general. Adger, Snow and Christian (2002) argue that U.S. mainstream teachers are ill-equipped to teach students from diverse languages and cultures, precisely when multicultural and multilingual classes are the norm. They remind us that students' discourse and learning patterns are always affected by their cultures and language backgrounds, and assert that mainstream teachers must know more about language and culture in order to teach **any** content effectively. If this is the case for mainstream teachers, how much more is it the case for language teachers? Teaching world languages in such a linguistically and culturally diverse school system requires a deep and explicit knowledge of

the facts about language (analogous to a map of the territory through which we must journey), and the skills to analyze language on an ongoing basis (analogous to map-reading skills required to use the map wisely). Like it or not, language teachers are likely to be the most well-informed and well-prepared members of the school staff in the area of language and culture learning, and so for this reason, mainstream teachers increasingly turn to their language teacher colleagues (e.g., in ESL, world language, and English) for the knowledge they need to cope with increasing linguistic and cultural diversity in the school. Do these world language teachers themselves have the expert knowledge about language that is needed? Are they equipped with the skills they need for exploration in this new territory of language and culture?

In this, I am really asking a question that language teacher educators must constantly ask and re-evaluate: what is the knowledge base for language teacher education? (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). Is what we teach in our language teacher education (LTE) programs *useful* to language teachers? Does it include all, and only the tools and skills they need to do practical language analysis in their classrooms as a central part of their thinking and planning process? There are different ways of conceptualizing this knowledge base.

The Knowledge Base = Set of Facts?

Some language teacher education books and programs conceptualize the knowledge base as consisting of essentially a body of facts that teacher learners must internalize. They must demonstrate that they know these facts on essay and multiple choice tests, or by writing essays consisting of ‘reviews of the literature’. Many grammar and second language acquisition (SLA) textbooks and courses appear to be structured this way. The goal of such grammar or SLA courses for teachers appears to be to have teacher learners show that they know an identified set of facts about the field. Teacher-learners must internalize these facts so they can repeat them on a test. Examples of such statements of facts for a language structure course might take these forms:

- “The rules for using *ser* and *estar* in Spanish are ...”
- “The polite forms for greeting a superior in Japanese are...”

and statements of facts for an SLA course might look like this:

- “Research shows that teachers prefer to use implicit corrective feedback, or recasts, when ...”
- “Research shows the stages of acquisition of questions in German L2 are ...”

But it is not enough to just be able to state the facts in this way. Language teacher learners also need to develop skills in the *use* of these facts. Just as owning a map and knowing the names of the parts of a canoe do not make you an expert orienteer or canoeist, so also, knowing facts about grammar does not make you a good language teacher. The language teacher learner must develop the ability to use facts about language for language analysis and then do something with the analysis that will help language learners.

So, language teacher educators must find a way to show teacher-learners how to *use* language facts to solve such language learning/teaching problems as these:

- “I need a way to get these students to use *ser* and *estar* correctly.”
- “This kind of error may require a more explicit correction strategy than a recast.”
- “I wonder if consciousness-raising will get this learner to use a polite greeting form.”
- “Is this learner developmentally ready for this lesson on German questions?”

Conceptualizing the language teacher knowledge base as simply of a set of facts to be internalized does not provide what it takes to solve language teaching problems such as these.

The Three Dimensions of the Knowledge Base for Language Teacher Education

In response to a call by Freeman and Johnson (1998) for a re-definition of the elements of a knowledge base that should be provided in any language teacher education program, Tarone and Allwright (2005, drawing on Allwright, 2001) proposed that this base should be comprised of three dimensions: skills, knowledge and understanding.

Conceptually we see 'training' as being concerned with 'skills' (like being able to write legibly on the blackboard, or being able to speak up so that a whole roomful of children can hear everything you say to them). 'Education' is concerned with 'knowledge' (like being aware of all the different uses to which a blackboard could be put, or knowing something about the English article system). And 'development' is concerned with 'understanding' (like understanding why children, especially teenage children, may find it difficult to perform their best in a foreign language classroom). By 'understanding' we are referring to something beyond merely 'having a particular skill' or 'having a certain piece of knowledge'. Understanding is whatever helps us to use our skill and knowledge appropriately. (Tarone & Allwright, 2005, p. 7).

To illustrate the distinction among these three dimensions, Tarone and Allwright use the example of the three dimensions a teacher must master in order to use group work effectively in

language instruction: how to get learners to work in groups (a pedagogic skill), what research says about how group work may facilitate their linguistic development (knowledge of research facts), **and** how to use those skills and facts effectively in deciding when to do group work in the course of a specific lesson (understanding).

Dimension #1, skills, can also be described as a set of techniques. Other examples might include knowing how to demonstrate new speech sounds, how to keep students engaged in class, or how to recast a learner error in the course of a meaning-focused interaction. Such skills are certainly essential to the process of language teaching, but they are not enough. Ability to implement such skills and techniques may enable one to “teach the book” – but they do not enable a teacher to make the higher-level decisions -- such as, when to put the book down to do some group work -- that may be required in teaching a local group of learners with varied needs.

Dimension #2, knowledge, can be viewed as a set of facts, such as facts about the structure of language or the process of second language learning. Examples include, but are not limited to, knowing what the basic units of language are, knowing the rules for using definite and indefinite articles, or knowing the stages of acquisition of questions in the second language. A well-prepared language teacher must certainly know facts such as these, but as illustrated above, this is not enough, because knowing these facts does not enable the language teacher to do what it takes to move beyond “teaching the book.”

Dimension #3, understanding, tells the teacher why, how, and when to *use* the first two dimensions of skill and knowledge in making wise pedagogical decisions. This third dimension of understanding tells the teacher when to provide a particular form of corrective feedback to particular learners, why group activity X helps learners to move from stage 3 question formation, and how and when to analyze the structure of a sentence in the course of teaching a lesson. The teacher’s ability to *use* skills and knowledge is what enables that teacher to move beyond teaching the book to teaching students.

This three-fold distinction is certainly not new; educational scholars such as John Dewey (e.g., Hickman & Alexander, 1998) have made very similar distinctions before. Dewey asserted, for example, that education should not consist of simply teaching ‘dead facts;’ that skills and knowledge learned in schools should be fully integrated into the learners’ lives; and that we should learn by doing – in order to learn not just knowledge, not just skills, but skills to put knowledge to use. Learning to do effective language teaching, like all learning, requires a combination of content mastery, skills development and understanding.

How Explicit is the Language Teacher's Knowledge Base?

There has been considerable discussion among researchers on second language acquisition about the level of explicitness of the language learners' knowledge base – specifically, how explicit or implicit that knowledge base has to be. 'Implicit' knowledge about language is unconscious, unanalyzed, and unstated; it develops without being the focus of the learner's attention. Young children are understood to use implicit processes in acquiring their native language, and native speakers' knowledge of their language may be largely implicit. 'Explicit' knowledge about language, on the other hand, is conscious, analyzed, and can be verbalized; explicit knowledge develops when the learner focuses attention on it and notices what needs to be learned. Learners of second languages are usually understood to use more explicit processes in internalizing them than do native speakers, though second language learners in immersion programs who have had little explicit language instruction and learners in communicative language (CLT) classes may also rely on largely implicit language knowledge bases. Ellis (2006) concludes, and I agree, that it is likely that the second language learner's knowledge is both implicit and explicit.

The language teacher's knowledge base has to be more explicit than that. (This is another way of saying, perhaps, that being a language teacher involves a good deal more than just knowing how to speak the language.) The three dimensions of language teacher knowledge are explicit as well as implicit: while skills may be largely implicit, knowledge of facts is largely explicit, and understanding how to use skills and facts effectively is likely to be both. As language teacher educators, we must of course assist language teacher-learners to develop both implicit and explicit knowledge of a good many things, but here I will focus on a subset of that knowledge base, specifically, the explicit knowledge about language and language learning, and the understanding of how to use that knowledge in teaching, that a language teacher must have.

Knowledge About Language

As just stated, language teachers need to do more than just know how to speak the language. Very often, language teacher educators have the job of helping teacher-learners (particularly those teacher-learners who are native speakers of the language, or who have learned a second language through immersion) to make the implicit knowledge they have about that language explicit. This entails fostering that 'aha!' moment when the teacher-learner becomes aware of their own rules for language use. The best grammar courses for language teacher-

learners are designed to provide all three dimensions – not just facts about the grammar, but also teaching skills, and understanding of how and when to use both.

I will illustrate this by describing an English grammar course we teach at the University of Minnesota as part of a Masters Program in ESL. This course used to focus almost entirely on dimension #2: facts about English grammar. In those days, the assigned textbook was an encyclopedic book by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1985). Pretty much every fact you want to know about English grammar is in that book, and the year-long class used to involve reading the book chapter by chapter, digesting and memorizing the facts, and showing you knew the facts on an exam. This course was not enough, for reasons already explained above, so we developed a new English grammar course designed specifically for language teachers, focused on all three dimensions of language teacher knowledge. We adopted two books that used that approach, *The Grammar Book* by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) and *Explaining English Grammar* by Yule (1999), to be read in combination. The approach we use is described in detail in Tarone and Lazaraton (2005), but I will summarize it here.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman discuss each element of English grammar in terms of its **form**, **meaning**, and **use**. I will illustrate these by showing the way the English passive construction is presented. The **form** of a construction is the prescriptive rule, focused on the syntactic form of the construction. So, for the passive, we might say that the patient, or receiver of the action, becomes the subject of the passive sentence, as in:

- a. The midfielder kicks the ball. (active sentence)
- b. The ball was kicked by the midfielder. (passive sentence)

The **meaning** of a grammar construction is its function or semantics. In the case of the passive, we might tell the teacher-learner that the passive is used to foreground the patient, and to background or even delete the agent altogether. The **use** of a grammar construction is a description of the form and meaning of the construction when it is actually used in discourse by fluent speakers of the language. For example, we might tell teacher-learners that the agentless passive is usually preferred, or that the ‘get’ passive² is more commonly used to transmit certain meanings than the ‘be’ passive.

Yule (1999) focuses on a subset of English grammatical constructions that are typically particularly problematic for second language learners. His discussion focuses very strongly on descriptions of native speaker use of these constructions, and includes ample opportunities for reflection on why this usage varies from prescriptive norms. The book also includes many

activities requiring analysis of the target construction in the context of discourse, and exploration of ways these constructions should best be taught in the classroom. The book thus relates the facts about English grammar to both the development of skills for language analysis and language teaching, and deeper levels of understanding about the way language works and the way it is learned.

In order for teacher-learners to develop their own skills for language analysis, however, they should not just be **told** about the usage of grammar constructions. They should learn to **do** grammatical analysis for themselves – something Larsen-Freeman (2003) refers to as ‘grammaring’. For this reason, we have our students do their own original ‘usage studies,’ so they can discover for themselves how different constructions are actually used by different groups of speakers, and develop the analytical ability to continue to do this in their classrooms. In a ‘usage study,’ teacher-learners ask a research question about the target construction, gather data, analyze it in comparison to the textbook rule, and draw conclusions for pedagogy. The ‘usage study’ fosters a cascade of ‘aha’ moments for native speakers of the language, as they see for themselves the myriad ways in which their own use of the language does and does not follow the prescriptive rules in *The Grammar Book*. In Tarone and Lazaraton (2005), we give our rationale, and several examples of usage studies that our teacher-learners have carried out, some of which have been included in subsequent revisions of the Celce-Murcia volume itself.

A strongly descriptive approach, in which the "usage study" is a core element, is one that empowers language teacher-learners by teaching them how to understand for themselves on an ongoing basis how the language works and by according full academic status to the knowledge about the language and to the language data they bring to the table. (Tarone & Lazaraton, 2005, p. 56)

As an interesting side note: we have learned that some of the best ‘usage studies’ have been done by teacher-learners who are not native speakers of the language, possibly because their grammar knowledge is more explicit from the beginning. For example, one year, when we began studying the prescriptive rule for the English past counterfactual construction:

- *If I had known you were coming, I would have baked a cake.*

Noriko Ishihara, as a teacher-learner in my class, pointed out that native speakers of English did not seem to **use** the ‘*If I had...*’ construction very much. Rather, they seemed to use ‘If I would have...’

- *If I would have known you were coming, I would have baked a cake.*

Native-speaking teacher-learners in the class had not noticed this construction even though they used it themselves³, but Ishihara's class usage study confirmed its prevalence in a wide range of geographical and social contexts, and was subsequently published (Ishihara, 2003).

After taking a grammar course with this approach to mastery of the L2 grammar, teacher-learners can:

- Distinguish confidently between form, meaning, and use of grammar constructions.
- Move beyond whatever grammar book is being used, treating textbook grammar rules as merely prescriptive, but not necessarily descriptive of the way fluent speakers actually use the grammar in a wide range of contexts.
- Confidently describe and analyze grammar usage by fluent speakers in the real world, and compare that usage to the prescriptive rules in the book, considering historical and social changes that speakers have made to those rules.
- Transfer this new knowledge about grammar form, meaning, and use into their own language classrooms, considering implications for pedagogy – ways to transmit this knowledge to their own students, either in explicit or implicit form (since the knowledge base for language learners does not need to be explicit in the way it does for language teachers).

This approach to teaching teacher-learners about the structure of the language they will be teaching has proven to be an effective way to give them not just grammar knowledge, but also the skills they need to describe and analyze grammar usage in natural discourse, as well as a deeper understanding of the way the language actually works in discourse and how to transmit that knowledge to language learners. This three-dimensional knowledge about language structure frees the teacher-learner to move beyond one's grammar book, to discover how grammar constructions really are used in discourse in the local context in which he or she teaches. Just as teacher-learners' knowledge about language must be three-dimensional, so also must their knowledge about language learning.

Knowledge About Second Language Learning

Language teacher education programs often now require teacher-learners to take a course on second language acquisition (SLA) research. The stated rationale for this requirement is usually that language teachers ought to understand how their students learn foreign languages. They should know, for example, the impact of transfer from their native language, the developmental stages of acquisition of core grammar structures, and the influence of different

types of corrective feedback. However, a closer look at course syllabi and introductory textbooks on SLA suggests that in the main, these courses appear to focus on the knowledge of facts much more than on the development of skills or understanding. My own review of the tables of contents of current introductory SLA textbooks shows that most of them cover the prominent theories and theorists of SLA, their controversies, and the research that supports or contradicts them. In standard introductory SLA courses of which I am aware, these books may be supplemented in the syllabus by a set of readings consisting of published research studies, ‘hot off the press,’ the more recent the better. Readers learn about the controversies in the field, and a good deal of time is spent focusing on the arguments for or against various claims about SLA. Teacher-learners in such courses are evaluated in their learning by means of essay tests or papers that are focused on knowledge of the facts about these SLA theories, theorists, studies, and controversies. The goal of such SLA courses appears to be to enable teacher-learners to say (or write) at the end of the course such statements as these:

- “Research shows that teachers prefer to use implicit corrective feedback (recasts) when ...”
- “Research shows that the stages of acquisition of questions in German L2 are ...”
- “Schmidt and Krashen disagree about the role of consciousness in SLA.”

Such SLA courses are essentially lecture courses, based on an information transmission model, transmitting facts without providing skills or understanding. Although many of these courses and textbooks make an effort to show how facts about SLA ought to be relevant for teaching, these efforts tend to be hypothetical. If such courses are to provide teacher-learners with skills to actually *analyze* the learner language produced in their own classrooms and to understand the implications for their teaching in specific terms, then they will need to add a laboratory component.

A better model for an introductory SLA course for language teachers should consist of two parts: lecture and laboratory. The content of the lecture portion of such a course should provide a broad overview of the state of knowledge in the field, its main theories, and the most generally agreed upon facts of SLA that have been derived from research. This lecture portion of the course should not get into the very latest published findings, detailed nuances of research design, or spend much time laying out the positions in ongoing controversies. Rather than spend a great deal of time on what researchers disagree about, an introductory SLA course for teachers should focus primarily on what is agreed upon. While detailed information on

theoretical controversies is useful to graduate students planning to position their own SLA research projects in relation to those theories, with a view to eventual publication, it is not so useful to language teachers who will carry out local, descriptive case studies for their own use in designing pedagogy.

The lab component of the proposed SLA course designed for language teacher-learners provides them with the tools and skills they need to do descriptive analyses of learner language that occurs in their own classrooms, and opportunities to practice using those skills in a supportive setting before trying them out on their own in their classrooms. Upon completion of each lab exercise, teacher-learners are asked to reflect on their findings in relation to what they have learned in lecture, and consider the implications of their observations for pedagogy. In this way, the lab course provides skills and understanding to complement the set of facts (knowledge) that teacher-learners assimilate in the lecture portion of the course. Through carrying out their own descriptive case study analyses of learner language, teacher-learners will:

- Develop a deeper understanding of published SLA research by doing some research of their own (learning by doing),
- Develop analytical skills for local, descriptive research to better understand language learning taking place in their own classrooms,
- Develop confidence in assessing the usefulness of published SLA research for their own classroom context.

In this way, an overall goal of the lab is to help the teacher move away from a sense of dependence on published SLA research, and toward more autonomy and independence in trying to understand and interpret the consequences of learner language that is produced in their own classrooms.

A big obstacle to this kind of a lab course has to do with obtaining samples of learner language for teacher-learners to analyze. It takes a great deal of time to secure research permission, design a study, find learners, design elicitation tasks, record them, and transcribe their data. Teacher-learners cannot be expected to do that, at least initially. However, the language teacher educator can provide major scaffolding for this process in a ‘lab’ component of an SLA course. Where is the learner language to come from?

The SLA course instructor may already have done some SLA research, and so have on hand data in the form of transcripts or even audio or video clips of second language learners as they speak the L2. Audio and video clips used in an SLA class should be accompanied by already-prepared transcripts, to save teacher-learners time and ensure even quality of the

transcripts. Lab activities for the introductory SLA course could then involve setting up pairwork exercises in which teacher-learners work together to listen to the speech of a learner, read the transcript of that same speech segment, and search for particular grammatical, lexical, or phonological constructions in those learner language samples. Pairs could then report to the class on what they see in the data, and reflect together on its relationship to published SLA research, and to classroom pedagogy.

Another source of learner language samples might be for language teacher educators to create videos of language learners expressly for their SLA classes to use. Learners could be shown producing the particular target language of interest to the teacher-learners in the SLA class, whether this be ESL, Spanish L2, Chinese L2, or some other target language. If you choose this route, check to see if you will need the approval of your Institutional Review Board. At our institution, video-recording of L2 learners for purposes of classroom instruction is not considered to be “research” and so is classified as “exempt” from rigorous review. On the other hand, because our students may plan to present their research at conferences or even submit it for publication, we always seek the approval of our review board for class assignments requiring students to gather data from learners. This is a time-consuming option, but one that has the virtue of being tailored to local needs; the teacher educator can focus on the language of learners that their teacher-learners are actually likely to be teaching, in a well-understood cultural and institutional context.

If the SLA course instructor does not have access to their own learner language samples, there are a few commercially available options. Gass, Sorace, and Selinker (1998) provide edited samples of transcripts, with accompanying audio cassette tapes, of learner language taken from published studies. The book guides readers in analyzing those samples in a set of exercises. However, these exercises have a number of limitations, most of them related to a lack of context permitting adequate analysis: there is little information provided about the learners and the way the data were elicited; editing has removed a good deal of discourse context; there is no video component to the data; and the format in which the audio data are provided is out of date. And the approach taken in this book appears to target an audience of graduate students intent on carrying out full-scale SLA research, and not an audience of language teacher-learners.

Another commercial source of learner videos permitting learner language analysis, although it was not originally designed for that purpose, is Teemant and Pinnegar (2002). This is a set of DVDs of nine individually-interviewed junior high school age learners of English L2, whose native languages include Spanish and Japanese. This is a very interesting age to explore,

one of great interest to K-12 language teachers, as it includes learners who fall on either side of the critical period for SLA. However, Teemant and Pinnegar's project was not designed for the purpose of providing learner language for detailed structural analysis. It provides rich background on the world of middle school L2 learners, but little support for learner language analysis. For example, although there are transcriptions provided of the language learners' speech, these are not accurate at the level required for structural language analysis. The language teacher educator will need to carefully edit them before distributing them in the lab. In addition, the videos focus only on head-shot narrations by the learners; these narrations are heavily edited, with obvious non-sequiturs, and all interviewer questions are edited out. Thus, there are no opportunities to explore learner language in the context of meaningful discourse. Nevertheless, the learners are very engaging, and provide a rich opportunity to reflect on such issues as the influence of age on pronunciation, transfer of first language features into second language production, apparent oral proficiency without corresponding literacy, and the impact of motivation and social relationships on SLA, among others.

A newer source of commercially available samples of learner language for use in SLA courses is Tarone and Swierzbin (2009), which includes a DVD of videos of 6 university-age learners of English as a second language and 2 native speakers of English as they all perform the same set of oral tasks. The learners are native speakers of Chinese, Spanish and French. Readers are guided in analyzing their learner language from different perspectives: language transfer, error analysis, developmental sequence, processing of corrective feedback, referential communication, and language complexity. Tarone and Swierzbin (2009) was produced subsequent to, and indeed, in some sense as a result of, the writing and presentation of the present paper.

Conclusion

I have taken the position in this paper that language teacher educators should equip teacher-learners to be language explorers rather than people who just 'teach the book'. To do this, we need to provide them with knowledge (facts) about the structure of language and the process of language learning. But in our courses we also need to give them practice analyzing native speakers' and language learners' language usage, with opportunities to reflect together on the relationship between their observations and published scholarship and research, as well as the implications of all of this for their pedagogical action in the classroom. In this way they will be able to acquire skills to be able to describe the language produced by native speakers and by

their own learners in their classrooms, and improve their understanding of language and language learning for their use in making pedagogical decisions. Such teacher-learners will in this way become able to do more than just survive in the new territories of linguistically and culturally diverse language classrooms they are preparing to enter. They will be able to thrive there as language explorers.

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Notes

¹ An earlier version of this paper was presented as a plenary at the Fifth International Language Teacher Education Conference, “Bridging Contexts, Making Connections,” CARLA, Minneapolis, May 31, 2007. The powerpoint presentation is available on the CARLA website: <http://www.carla.umn.edu/conferences/LTE2007/speaker1.html>

² The ‘get’ passive: ‘The midfielder got hurt,’ as opposed to the ‘be’ passive: ‘The midfielder was hurt.’

³ Nor had I noticed the “If I would have...” construction (and its close cousin, the “I wish I would have...” construction) until Noriko pointed it out to me. Subsequently I heard it everywhere, even in the most formal and scholarly discourse, including National Public Radio broadcasts of intellectual subject matter. For some reason, this construction continues to be almost invisible to English grammarians, who simply do not seem to notice it. For example, it is still not mentioned in the latest edition of *The Grammar Book*.

Sociopolitical Contexts and Attitudes of Inquiry: Implications for Teacher Education

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Taking the debate over input- versus output-based models of second language acquisition and instruction as a point of departure, this commentary explores the commercial, sociopolitical and institutional contexts that can influence teachers' beliefs about language education and their attitudes of inquiry into those beliefs. The contextual reasons for the contrasting receptions that these two theoretical positions have had raise questions about how language teacher education helps practitioners overcome their contextual boundaries to inquire more objectively and purposefully into the relationship between theory and practice. Following the contextual discussion, some implications that these relationships hold for teacher education are presented, along with curricular suggestions to develop teachers' skills for critical inquiry.

Occasionally in teacher education, a mundane experience can lead to complex reflection about the real-world needs of classroom teachers. Such an experience occurred recently when I was working with an M.Ed. candidate who taught business courses at a nearby high school. Because many of her students were English language learners (ELLs), she decided to write her master's thesis on how to differentiate business education for this population, and she asked me to give her feedback on her thesis. I was pleased to see that in her introduction she emphasized the importance of both comprehensible input and comprehensible output for second language

learners. However, her introduction was the first and last mention of comprehensible output in the entire thesis. As a specialist in business education, she had relied on a few how-to books about teaching English language learners designed for teachers with little or no formal language education background. As a result, her research had focused on making the content of the business courses comprehensible to her students through the use of modified input. However, she was unable to discuss any ways of incorporating comprehensible output activities in her business courses. This was especially disappointing in light of her original reasons for conducting the research—the discovery that her ELLs were unable to use English appropriately for writing and speaking.

In reflecting on this gap in the information available to teachers about language education, I realized that even among teachers trained in teaching English to speakers of other languages, there is a strong bias toward comprehensible input and little understanding of

comprehensible output. This paper, then, is a commentary on this gap in praxis, taking the debate over input versus output as a point of departure for discussion of the components of an inquiry-based language teacher education curriculum.

“We aren’t giving our students the level of input that matches the level of output we expect and test them on!”

The veteran teacher who made this comment recognizes that the language classroom is a nexus of theory and practice (P. Reynolds, personal communication, 2006). The theoretical debate on input versus output has been a subtext of language pedagogy and teacher education for decades. The first major explication of Krashen’s Input Hypothesis was in 1982. He argued that comprehensible input—input containing structures slightly beyond a learner’s proficiency level—was the causative variable in second language acquisition (1982, p. 33). Swain followed in 1985 with her output hypothesis, after research from the Canadian French immersion program had raised doubts about the validity of Krashen’s input hypothesis. Using terminology parallel to Krashen’s, she referred to the importance of “comprehensible output,” stating that the productive acts of speaking and writing may constitute part of the process of second language learning. She has elaborated on this hypothesis with the concept of “pushed” output:

Negotiating meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed toward the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently, and appropriately. Being “pushed” in output, it seems to me, is a concept parallel to that of the $i + 1$ of comprehensible input. (Swain, 1985, p. 249)

As mentioned, Krashen’s input model has provided a rationale for and is frequently cited in numerous practice manuals in language teaching (e.g., Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2000; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005). Swain’s output hypothesis, on the other hand, has received little exposure outside of the scholarly press. Ironically, there are many scholarly critiques of Krashen’s input model in the literature (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2001; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Lightbown & Spada, 1999), while Swain’s output hypothesis and associated pedagogical approaches, such as collaborative dialogues, have received considerable scholarly support (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Most of this scholarship, however, is not readily accessed by teachers, except when mentioned in specialized courses on second language acquisition (SLA), for example. This lopsided attention that has been given to the input model to the detriment of the output hypothesis provides a case study on the gap between scholarship and practice in language teacher education. By analyzing how Krashen’s input model has come

to be the dominant rationale for language pedagogy in spite of the nearly unanimous criticism it has received in the literature, we can derive some of the elements that might comprise a teacher education curriculum in which teachers acquire skills of inquiry and decision-making that will serve them in the classroom, regardless of the latest theoretical fads and how-to prescriptions.

Contexts and Attitudes of Inquiry

Towards that objective I begin this essay by examining the intellectual, commercial, institutional and sociopolitical contexts in which Krashen's model emerged. From this perspective I then describe four core areas of a language teacher education curriculum—structural linguistics, language acquisition, sociolinguistics, and literacy studies—identifying some ways to help practitioners overcome such contextual boundaries and inquire more objectively and purposefully into the relationship between theory and practice. The discussion focuses on ways that language teacher education can foster attitudes of critical inquiry and develop in practitioners the skills needed to independently evaluate teaching practices and the theoretical constructs upon which they are based.

“... the incestuous nature of the hypotheses ...”

With these words, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 247) identify one of the primary reasons that Krashen's input model has had such influence—its intellectual appeal. Consisting of five hypotheses that are interdependently linked, Krashen's model of second language acquisition presents a coherent construct, and this coherence has an intellectual appeal, especially in a field as complex and disparate as second language acquisition. Nevertheless, the appeal of a coherent theoretical construct is also its weakness, because if one of the hypotheses collapses under scrutiny, the others fall like dominoes behind it. In an effort to prevent this domino effect, there is also danger. The danger of the intellectual appeal of a coherent theory is the tendency to reject evidence against any one of the interconnected hypotheses. Thus it is more like a conspiracy theory than a scientific theory.

The intellectual appeal of Krashen's input model has been elaborated in the literature. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) point out that the simplicity of the model made it easily understood by non-specialists who were unfamiliar with the related research. Many of these non-specialists subsequently promoted the input model among practitioners. In contrast, the critiques of Krashen's view were far more technical and only reached a relatively narrow audience of specialists. Larsen-Freeman and Long also observe that because the hypotheses are

circular and not falsifiable, the input model was “immune to criticism” (1991, p. 247). Finally, they explain that the criticisms and the proposed alternatives differed greatly from each other, and as a result no single counterproposal emerged as a viable alternative to take the place of Krashen’s input model. Swain’s alternative proposal is a case in point. Whereas Krashen’s claim that “comprehensible input is the true and only causative variable in second language acquisition” (1987, p. 40) is referred to in the scientific literature as a “strong” hypothesis, Swain’s output hypothesis that “the act of producing language … constitutes, under certain circumstances, part of the process of second language learning” (Swain, 2005, p. 471) is a “weak” hypothesis. Although the terms *strong* and *weak* when used to modify *hypothesis* merely describe the strength of the causative claim, to many teachers encountering these terms in an SLA textbook, they are easily misinterpreted as scientific evaluations of the respective hypotheses.

“... the label ‘comprehensible output’ tended to get in the way of the idea of output as process ...”

Reflecting on the reception that her output hypothesis received, Swain (2005, p. 473) recognized another aspect of the relationship between theory and practice, which I would call the commercial context. Krashen’s input model of second language acquisition, with its intellectual appeal, also achieved commercial success with publication of a teaching program entitled *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom* (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). It presented a methodology which contrasted radically with the then-current audiolingual method (ALM). ALM was theoretically based on behaviorist psychology, while the natural approach was theoretically based, in part, on Chomsky’s theory of Universal Grammar. Thus, when the natural approach entered the marketplace, it could compete on an equal footing with ALM as a theory-based teaching methodology. The appearance of a commercially available alternative teaching approach, based on a more current theory of language acquisition, would have made changing teaching methods both pedagogically and economically defensible.

Swain herself has pointed out that her comprehensible output hypothesis seemed to many as recommending a product-focused approach (Swain, 2005), more similar to ALM than an alternative to it. While Swain (2000) has described a progressive teaching practice, known as collaborative dialogues, based on the output hypothesis and on Vygotskyan theories of social and cognitive development, this teaching practice has yet to evolve into a teaching program like the Natural Approach. I would also suggest that Swain’s term “pushed” output may have had a

negative connotation to some, suggesting that learners be forced into anxiety ridden tasks beyond their comfort level (see Krashen, 1998).

“Krashen put words to what I had experienced, and I ate it up.”

Expressing the reaction of many teachers to Krashen’s input model, the teacher who made this statement (Jackson, 2006, p. 21) has identified a third context in which theory and practice interact—the institutional context. Here I use the term *institutional* to describe people’s beliefs about language that are a result of or reinforced by their educational experiences. Lightbown and Spada (1999) explain that the input model, with its emphasis on subconscious acquisition as opposed to monitored learning, resonates with the experiences of teachers who may themselves have struggled to learn a second language under the stressful and self-conscious conditions of the audiolingual method.

Another institutional factor contributing to the popularity of Krashen’s view was the whole language approach to literacy instruction which burst on the U.S. educational scene in the 1970s. The whole language approach to literacy instruction, with its emphasis on comprehension and communication over structural encoding and decoding, created an institutional readiness to accept a similar view of second language instruction as proposed by Krashen. By the time Krashen’s input model appeared, there was a new generation of language arts teachers who had been educated about the benefits of whole language and trained in its methods.

Another aspect of the institutional context of the input model is a focus on vocabulary over linguistic structure in language education. Many people think of language as consisting only of words—the more words you know, the better your language. Because vocabulary learning is a life-long process, while the structure of language is acquired in childhood, it is easy to understand why people equate language learning with vocabulary learning. I would argue that this institutionalized de-emphasis on language structure is possibly the most significant reason why Krashen’s view had such popular appeal for teachers. Certainly, teachers have not had positive experiences as students in grammar and linguistics classes. “Typically, these students come to the first class session feeling both apprehensive and resentful. They are nervous about having to take the class, and at the same time, they suspect it will be of no use” (Freeman & Freeman, 2004, p. ix).

There is a long history in the U.S. of the view that attempting to teach a language is futile. The 1929 Coleman Report, as described by Celce-Murcia (2001), proposed that “given

the skills and limitations of most language teachers, all that one could reasonably expect was that students would come away from the study of a foreign language able to read the target language” (p. 5). More recently, Krashen has echoed that belief, saying “language is too complex to be explicitly taught and learned” (1992, p. 409). The monitor and affective filter hypotheses that are part of Krashen’s input model support this belief by claiming that explicit instruction about language structure is counterproductive. To language teachers who feel apprehensive or resentful about grammar or who lack confidence in their ability to analyze and explain grammar, the input model conforms with their institutional experience. It not only addresses their feelings but legitimizes them by convincing teachers that explaining grammar is not only unnecessary but possibly counterproductive as well.

“... a policy that ... involves receiving language and not producing it, listening to what one is told and not talking back.”

These words, from the former president of the National Council of Teachers of English (Bomer, 2006, p. 12), speak to the sociopolitical contexts of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB, 2002) in which language teaching practice and theory intersect. As background to this current sociopolitical context, Celce-Murcia (2001) provides a concise prior history of language teaching, pointing out that during the 1980s (when Krashen’s input model appeared), the trend of language education in the U.S. evolved to include second language instruction.

Foreign language instruction had received impetus from the Cold War as a way to train individuals for propaganda and espionage. As the Cold War waned, and partly as a result of Cold War policies, immigration began to rapidly increase in the U.S. Celce-Murcia explains that as more immigrants entered the job market and schools, there was a greater need for instructional approaches appropriate in second language settings. Krashen’s emphasis on target language input seemed especially geared toward learning environments in which students had extensive access and exposure to native speaker input. The humanistic features of Krashen’s theory and methodology also reflected the “kinder, gentler” social mood of the country following the political upheavals of the Vietnam War and Watergate.

Today we have a different sociopolitical mood in the U.S., which in a different way promotes an input model of language learning but creates a setting in which creative and critical thinking are compromised, as reflected in Bomer’s remark above. The mandate of Title III of NCLB to rapidly integrate ELLs into the mainstream classroom (NCLB, 2002) is one of the most powerful forces indirectly promoting the emphasis on comprehensible input to the detriment of

comprehensible output. Across the country, mainstream teachers are attending seminars on how to modify input as the way to speed ELLs toward reaching content standards. Thus, the only valued output in this sociopolitical context is the minimum that students need to complete a multiple choice standardized test. Yet it is learners' level of comprehensible, productive output—especially writing—that largely determines whether they achieve academic success or continually struggle from behind (Celce-Murcia, 1992). One of the results of mainstreaming policies and the minimal training of teachers is creation of an underclass of students known as Generation 1.5, former English language learners who, although they have met standards for high school graduation, enter college without the academic language skills to advance their education (Harklau, 2003).

The emphasis on input to the detriment of output as a result of NCLB policies is similar to the emphasis on phonics and decoding to the detriment of comprehension and critical literacy in federally mandated reading programs such as Reading First (Meyer, 2004; Teale, Paciga, & Hoffman, 2007). Elaborating on his comment with which I opened this section, Bomer critiques “phonics as policy” which, he suggests, “represents the State acting to create a certain kind of reader who is becoming a certain kind of person. This area of national policy on reading is designed to create docility, passivity, and deference in relation to text” (Bomer, 2006, p. 14). We may expect to see similar docility, passivity, and deference among the members of generation 1.5 as a result of the policy-driven emphasis on mainstreaming and input instruction. As Blanton (1999) points out, one characteristic of generation 1.5 is lack of critical literacy skills such as text analysis, questioning, and evaluating—skills developed and displayed through linguistic output as speaking and writing. Elbow concurs as he echoes Swain, stating “We tend to think of learning as input and writing as output, but it also works the other way around. Learning is increased by ‘putting out’” (Elbow, 1994, *Some Premises*, ¶ 1).

Educational policy under NCLB has not only contributed to passivity and a decline in critical thinking among students, but among teachers as well (Noll & Zancanella, 2004). In this vein, many commentators have, for example, criticized the “teacher-proof” use of scripted instructional materials that have proliferated in the current environment of standardization (Delpit, 2003; Stemhagen, 2007). Such instructional programs have the effect of hiding or denying the complexities of teaching and learning in the lower-income, ethnically and linguistically diverse classrooms where they are primarily intended for use. By commodifying and simplifying the teaching task, they conceptualize teachers as automatons rather than as autonomous decision-makers. Also identified as leading to the decline in teachers’ creativity,

reflectivity, and critical inquiry is the emphasis on standardized testing in the high-stakes atmosphere of NCLB (Apple, 2007; Margolis, 2006). The law's policies on testing for school accountability and adequate yearly progress on one hand, and for certification of highly qualified teachers on the other, engenders fear and frustration among both inservice and preservice teachers, leading to convergent rather than divergent thinking (Altwerger, Arya, Jin, Jordan, Laster, & Martens, 2004; Selwyn, 2007).

Implications for Language Teacher Education

Given the intellectual, commercial, institutional and sociopolitical contexts in which teachers learn about language acquisition and instruction, I turn now to proposing some ways that language teacher education can break these contextual barriers. While the excellent handbook, *What Teachers Need to Know about Language* (Adger, Snow, & Christian, 2002), provides a thorough rationale for and an outline of a linguistics course of study for teachers, my focus here is on how such a course of study might build an attitude of inquiry among teachers. Pre-service and in-service teachers often demand quick answers, fix-it solutions, and step-by-step directions for instructional procedures. But this simplifies a pedagogy that is inherently complex. In the following sections I describe some areas of language teacher education in which to develop this more complex and problematized sensibility. Taking a similar view, Brown (2001) invites pre-service teachers to

come with me into a language classroom and observe what happens. Take special note, as the lesson unfolds, of each choice that the teacher makes: choices about how to begin the lesson, which activity will come next, how to continue an activity, whom to call on, whether to correct a student, and so on. Everything a teacher says and does in the classroom is the result of conscious or subconscious choices among many alternatives. (pp. 2-3)

This approach to language teacher education focuses on how to make such choices, not on which choices to make. Teaching, especially in English as a second language contexts, is an unpredictable undertaking, requiring critical observation, context-embedded decision-making skills, and a preference for difficult questions rather than easy answers.

“... the profound and mysterious adventure of language ...”

Novelist P. D. James (2005, p. 380) has found the words to describe precisely why a study of structural and theoretical linguistics develops in teachers an attitude of inquiry. Many of the skills developed through analytical practice activities in the study of linguistics, which

uncover the mysteries of language, are transferable to the language classroom. Working with phonological and morphological data sets, for example, hones skills that can be applied in error analysis. And exercises on syntactic transformations can develop skills useful in tracking students' progress even in the presence of errors. More important than these analytical skills, however, are basic principles of linguistics that can enable teachers to think more objectively and constructively about language proficiency. The fundamental question of modern linguistics is "What does it mean to know a language?" This question involves two dimensions of linguistic study. The first focuses on kinds of knowledge—tacit versus focal. The second focuses on levels of linguistic analysis—systematic versus arbitrary. In order to be effective, language teachers need to develop understanding of both dimensions. The modern science of linguistics tells us that our knowledge of our native language is largely tacit—that is, subconscious and beneath the level of our ability to articulate it (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2007). Therefore, in order for native speakers to explicitly teach their language to others, their tacit knowledge must become focal knowledge. And in order for their tacit knowledge to become focal, they must become aware that they actually have the tacit knowledge, and then they must learn how to systematically analyze it so that they can articulate it to others. Discovering their tacit knowledge is the first step in building teachers' ability and confidence for language teaching. It can also contribute to decreasing the resentfulness some teachers feel at being taught about a language they already know.

Language teachers also must comprehend the difference between the arbitrary and the systematic aspects of language. The implications of this difference for instruction and learning are critical. Lexical items, for example, consist of an arbitrary relationship between sound and meaning, and therefore they must be stored in memory. On the other hand, the systematic aspects of language—phonology, morphology, and syntax—are the structural frames that enable us to build meaningful ideas from the individual lexical items. In essence, this combination of systematic and arbitrary elements is the modern definition of language: a mental system that is capable of producing an infinite number of meaningful structures from a finite lexicon (Meisel, 1995; Pinker, 1994). In short, there is no language without output—especially output of novel and meaningful utterances. Language teachers who have not explored these principles of linguistics are destined to equate vocabulary learning with language learning and to think of input comprehension as language proficiency.

“... leap into the linguistic unknown and generalize to an infinite world of as-yet-unspoken sentences.”

In describing the process of language acquisition Pinker (1994, p. 281) has highlighted another linguistic mystery as a pursuit of inquiry in teacher education. Crucially, teachers must understand both the similarities and differences between first and second language acquisition. One similarity, reflected in Krashen's input model, is that certain grammatical structures are acquired in similar stages in both first and second language. This suggests that second language learners have at least some access to Universal Grammar. Another fundamental similarity is the necessity for meaningful interaction. Children do not acquire their native language from input alone; that is why watching television does not result in language acquisition (Kent & Miolo, 1995; Pinker, 1994). Similarly, the structures and words of a second language are best learned in meaningful contexts; that is why the decontextualized pattern drills of ALM did not result in second language acquisition.

Nevertheless, it is the differences between first and second language acquisition that are most relevant to the issue of input versus output. One key difference is the role of negative evidence, defined as “information that a particular utterance is deviant vis-à-vis target language norms” (Gass & Selinker, 2001, p. 282). Krashen correctly pointed out that children acquire the structures of their first language (L1) without instruction. We also know that the feedback children receive that contains negative evidence (i.e., negative feedback) about structures has little or no impact on the path or the rate of L1 acquisition (Meisel, 1995). Second language (L2) learning is a different matter, however. The fundamental difference between first and second language acquisition is that a second language learner, by definition, already knows a language. Because of this background knowledge, which is largely tacit, feedback containing negative evidence can play a crucial role in second language learning, because it can focus the learner's attention on the contrasts between L1 and L2, a necessary step in restructuring the interlanguage to target language norms (Gass & Selinker, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Regarding second language learning, Long (1996) has claimed that input is “mediated by selective attention ... Negative feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts” (as cited in Gass, 2003, p. 235).

Related to the difference between first and second language acquisition in terms of negative evidence is the difference in terms of error analysis. In first language acquisition, children's errors are developmental, which means that without correction or instruction children

will gradually reach linguistic competence in the language of their environment. In second language acquisition, learners' errors may be either developmental or a result of language transfer (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Developmental errors are the errors Krashen discusses in his natural order hypothesis. Yet, because second language learners also make transfer errors, Krashen's explanation of the ineffectiveness of explicit instruction is incomplete. We now know that strategies for noticing linguistic features, including L1-L2 contrasts, improve the success of second language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman, 2003; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004).

Because second language learners can benefit from instruction, an important component of SLA courses is learning theory. One aspect of learning theory that is especially relevant to second language learning is the distinction between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge (Anderson, 1976). Declarative knowledge is like the focal knowledge of language discussed earlier—it consists of discrete items of knowledge and can be “declared” or articulated. In terms of language, an example of declarative knowledge is the naming function of words, the association between a word’s form and the concept it represents. Because of the arbitrariness of this association, vocabulary learning is largely a process of memorization (Cohen, 1983). Learning of vocabulary, therefore, can be accomplished through discrete, deliberate association of the word form to its meaning (Nation, 2005). Procedural knowledge, on the other hand, consists of both simple and complex physical or mental procedures and is often below the level of awareness or the ability to articulate it. Unlike declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge cannot be learned in discrete units, but rather through situated practice and performance. In contrast to the discrete processes useful in vocabulary learning, the more complex, procedural aspect of second language learning is grammar, or “grammaring” as Larsen- Freeman (2003) calls it. Similarly, from a cognitive perspective, Pinker has declared, “grammar is a protocol” (1994, p. 125). As a result, grammatical knowledge is gained through contextualized practice activities that are scaffolded, interactive, and goal oriented (Celce- Murcia, 1992; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004).

This discussion of the declarative aspects of vocabulary learning and the procedural aspects of grammatical learning is not meant to be viewed as a strict dichotomy, since research shows that contextual use can support the discrete learning of vocabulary (Nation, 2005), just as instruction of discrete structural rules can support the more contextualized, usage-based learning of grammar (Nassaji & Fotos, 2004). Moreover, in contrast to Krashen’s noninterface position on the relationship between acquisition and learning, declarative knowledge about a process can become proceduralized or automatic (Anderson, 1976; Wigglesworth, 2005). In short, language teachers who have background in learning theories, along with strong foundations in first and

second language acquisition theory and research, are better able to explore the complexities involved in instructional decision-making.

“... intuitions into sociolinguistic rules ... are notoriously unreliable”

Here Wolfson (1989, p. 44) points out another component of language study essential for increasing teachers' ability to overcome their preconceptions through inquiry—that of sociolinguistics. Among the many topics of sociolinguistics relevant to teaching, language variation is among the most important. Most mature speakers of a language are aware that language varies among groups of speakers and among situations of use. Nevertheless they have little knowledge of the systematic nature of this variation, so they make social judgments about speakers of different varieties based on the norms of their own speech community. In order to comprehend the systematic nature of language variation and overcome culturally embedded linguistic prejudices, students must engage in objective analysis of language in use, and this is what is learned through the study of sociolinguistics. Practice in objective analysis of oral and spoken discourses also develops skills teachers can use in the classroom to explain usage contexts of different linguistic structures, to provide meaningful feedback, to evaluate and modify teaching materials, to assess learners' progress, and to determine effective learning activities.

Krashen is not wrong in asserting that language learners need comprehensible input. Techniques for making input comprehensible include providing a rich, meaningful context. Studies in sociolinguistics, especially the subfields of pragmatics, conversation analysis, and the ethnography of speaking, help teachers focus on authentic uses of language and the ways in which context affects the form, meaning, and use of language. This background knowledge is essential for teachers to be able to modify input for students' proficiency levels while maintaining the meaning, authenticity, and appropriateness of input structures.

Because interaction involves both meaningful input and output, second language learning requires equal emphasis on both. If learners' output is restricted to displaying knowledge for the teacher's evaluation and feedback, then it does not have much communicative relevance to the learner. In other words, output cannot just be viewed, in Krashen's (1982, 2004) words, as a means of obtaining comprehensible input. One of the implications of comprehensible or modified input relevant in sociolinguistic study is negotiation of meaning. Long has defined negotiation of meaning in terms of the ways native speakers modify input received by second language learners: confirmation checks, clarification requests, reformulations and recasts, and

elaborated and topic-focused questions (Long, 1980, cited in Gass, 2003, pp. 232-234). However, a more sociolinguistic view of negotiation of meaning is informed by the notion that all social interactions, between native speakers as well as with non-native speakers, are carried out by a process of negotiation (Wolfson, 1989). Sociolinguistic studies of speech act theory and Gricean pragmatics, for example, show us that linguistic interaction, regardless of participants or function, is an active construction of meaning on the part of both listener and speaker or reader and writer (Andersson & Barnitz, 1984/1998; Shiffrin, 1994; Wolfson, 1989).

“Many children have asked their teachers, ‘Why should I read?’; very few have asked, ‘Why should I talk?’”

By revealing the perspective of the learner, Rubin (1980, p. 424) has identified another aspect of language study in which teachers can overcome their intellectual boundaries through inquiry—literacy studies. As habituated fluent readers themselves, teachers are largely unaware of the linguistic processes involved in reading. Fundamental to a rediscovery of the mysteries of literacy is background knowledge about the similarities and differences between spoken and written language (Rubin, 1980; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Wong Fillmore & Snow, 2002). All human beings acquire a spoken or a signed language without instruction, but reading and writing require instruction. Although extended reading, as Krashen (1998) advocates, significantly improves readers' skills, unskilled readers—especially if they are learning to read in a second language—need more than just opportunities to read. They first need instruction in how to construct meaning from a text, as a prerequisite to benefiting from extended reading. Proficient readers use linguistic cues to comprehend what they read, and it is through the process of predicting and questioning that reading comprehension occurs (Freeman & Freeman, 2000). Many of the linguistic cues used for predicting are grammatical, such as pronoun-antecedent relations, definite and indefinite noun phrases, subordination structures, and the argument structure of verb phrases. As teachers acquire explicit knowledge about the grammatical and discourse structures of a language they discover anew the complex of skills that novice readers will need to learn and put to use to become proficient readers.

Conclusion

The ultimate value of understanding the multiple and complex connections between theory and practice in language teaching and learning, is to “avoid some of the pitfalls of haphazard guesswork and instead engage in teaching that is enlightened ...” (Brown, 2001, p.

11). Finding a path toward such enlightenment, I have argued, means incorporating into a language teacher education curriculum elements of systematic observation, analysis, and critical inquiry to develop skills for intentional, not accidental, instruction. Intentional as opposed to accidental instruction is at the core of the debate over input and output that has served as an underlying construct for this article. As Larsen-Freeman (2003) has argued, “The point of education is to accelerate the language acquisition process, not be satisfied with or try to emulate what learners can do on their own. Therefore, what works in untutored language acquisition should not automatically translate into prescriptions and proscriptions for pedagogical practice for all learners” (p. 78). If all that was needed to acquire a second language was comprehensible input, then the only necessary qualification for a second language teacher would be an ability to provide appropriate input. However, Wong Fillmore and Snow (2002), among others, have emphasized that “When there is no direct instruction in such situations, children can either make little progress learning English, or they can learn it from one another” and that the result is often “learnerese, … a variety of English that is fairly stable and that many of them speak fluently and with confidence. They are no longer language learners because they are no longer working out the details of English” (p. 32).

A crucial point to explore for inquiry-based language teacher education, therefore, is providing guidance on how teachers can develop techniques and classroom activities that promote output. While there are many how-to books on providing modified comprehensible input, there are few teacher resources available on providing opportunities for comprehensible output. Creating a learning environment in which learners’ output is encouraged requires, as Lee has pointed out, “a re-interpretation of teachers’ and learners’ roles and a re-distribution of responsibility between teachers and course designers” (2004, p. 100). To create an environment where learner’s output is promoted, the teacher’s traditional role in dominating the classroom discourse must be abdicated. The teacher’s role instead becomes one of task designer—to create meaningful and challenging opportunities for output—and so the teacher bears much more creative responsibility for learners’ progress. Swain (2000) is one theorist who has advocated such a role for teachers and has also provided guidance for teachers in taking on this role. She recommends the use of collaborative dialogues, in which students working in pairs on language-based tasks discuss options for producing meaningful communication in the second language. When learners are encouraged to construct novel utterances in the second language, they will necessarily move from the semantic processing prevalent in comprehension to the syntactic processing needed in production (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Swain (1995) further suggests that in

their dialogues about language, learners externalize and reify their thinking about language, enabling them to reflect on it. It is through this process of externalization and reflection, Swain suggests, that operations on linguistic data “move inward and become part of the participants’ own mental activity” (2005, p. 478). Through collaborative dialogue activities, then, students develop skills of linguistic inquiry that provide them with autonomy over their language learning so that they may become their own language instructors. In language teacher education, a natural site for modeling such collaborative activities is in the study of structural linguistics and sociolinguistics.

In addition to inquiry-based methods in teacher education, it is also essential to foster an identity of pedagogical professionalism. Language teachers, like all teachers, must develop and maintain skills of critical reflection in order to grow as professionals. The basis of critical reflection is objectivity—being able to observe and analyze without bias and to see things from others’ points of view. Throughout their teacher education program, therefore, students must have experiences that challenge their assumptions and stretch their perceptual boundaries. In order to develop as professionals they need to confront their intuitions and develop understandings that enable them to make deliberate rather than knee-jerk decisions. Linguistics and cultural studies provide rich opportunities for such experiences. As teacher educators, we need to model an attitude of inquiry and provide scaffolded experiences for teachers to probe ideas that challenge their intuitions. Placing a premium on questions over answers inverts the normal pedagogical hierarchy and can be psychologically difficult for those whose vocation has traditionally been to have all the answers. Nevertheless, in the long run an attitude of inquiry enables teachers to break through the barriers created by their intellectual, commercial, institutional and sociopolitical contexts and liberates them from the burden of having to know all the answers.

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Action Research in the Constructivist Model for Language Teacher Education

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This paper presents the arguments that (1) the Constructivist Paradigm is a desirable framework in which to conceptualize Language Teacher Education (LTE) and that (2) Action Research by Teacher Candidates (TCs) is a viable, richly rewarding component within such a Constructivist model of LTE. The Constructivist model, based on the general principles of Constructivist learning, enables us to view teacher education and preparation as a phase of learning during which TCs relearn, unlearn and contextualize the teaching-learning experience. Action Research within such a context becomes a valuable tool for questioning, analyzing, interpreting, dialoging, and reflecting as illustrated by one collaborative Action Research study described here.

Introduction

The current focus of national educational policy decisions favors a standards-based, assessment-driven approach both for elementary/secondary students (e.g., No Child Left Behind Act) and for teacher education (Johnson, Johnson, Farenga & Ness, 2005), as witnessed by the drive for accreditation by organizations such as NCATE (National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education). These policies are not without merit in regards to accountability. Yet by focusing on outcomes as assessed by linear measures, such approaches to LTE neglect the individualistic, dynamic, and transformative nature of education in general and language teacher development in particular. Constructivist principles as applied to LTE counterbalance this trend towards homogeneity by emphasizing inquiry among teacher candidates (TCs). Within this paradigm, TCs are challenged to question received-wisdom about best practices, and they are inspired to act reflectively.

Action Research (AR) conducted by TCs is an effective means through which to expose these future educators to the notions inherent in Constructivist pedagogy. Within the context of field experiences, observations, and micro-lessons, TCs may carry out all phases of the AR process thus allowing them to experience the inquiry-based, constructivist paradigm first-hand and enabling them to better understand this approach to learning and teaching. To illustrate the feasibility and desirability of integrating action research within programs for teacher candidate professional development, one collaborative AR case study will be highlighted.

The Constructivist Paradigm¹ as a Model for Language Teacher Education

There are two traditional though unsatisfactory models of teacher education: the Craft Model and the Applied Science Model (Blythe, 1997; Bruner, 1985; Kinginger, 1995; Wallace, 1991)². In the Craft Model, teacher candidates are trained through “imitation and emulation of the expert’s professional wisdom” (Kinginger, p. 125), thus making TCs akin to apprentices who are taught to become masters by following in the master’s footsteps. Wallace (1991) notes that the Craft Model promotes a static view of teacher education in so much as TCs are encouraged to follow tried-and-true practices with little value placed on innovation. According to Blythe (1997), the Craft Model is antithetical to reflective practice since it promotes imitation over critical evaluation of pedagogical practices.

Whereas the Craft Model of teacher education is driven by the repetition of rehearsed practices, the Applied Science Model promotes the application of knowledge gained from research where teaching is viewed as a “process which generates learning as its product” (Freeman & Richards, 1993, p. 8). In this model, TCs are prepared to teach by being exposed to the profession’s “received knowledge, ‘the facts’ to be found in journals, textbooks—and courses on education” (Kinginger, 1995, p. 125). This model is equally inadequate, though for quite the opposite reason, according to Blythe (1997): “[M]ethods courses based on the applied science model tend to reinforce the gap between theory and practice in the minds of many teachers who frequently judge such courses as too theoretical and therefore too impractical” (p. 56).

Both models suffer from one similar false assumption, which is that the Teacher Candidate comes to the profession of teaching with a blank slate. In the Craft Model, it is the veteran teacher, the seasoned practitioner, who inscribes all relevant teaching knowledge onto the slate, while in the Applied Science Model the role of the invisible guiding hand is played by the research community. Both models perpetuate the notion that teaching is the transmission of knowledge and learning is the receiving of knowledge. Neither model adequately recognizes that TCs arrive at the doorstep of their chosen careers with years of experience, their own experiences as students and possibly teachers, and most importantly with a keen intellect and an ability to reflect on their own actions and the actions of others.

It is these shortcomings that the Constructivist Model of teacher education addresses best. Following the Constructivist Model, TCs are understood to be evolving professionals and reflective practitioners who practice integrating “research, theory, and practical experiences through informed, critical reflection” (Blythe, 1997, p. 56). Furthermore, this model allows

teacher education programs themselves to help TCs “challenge [their] everyday concepts about language, language learning, and language teaching” (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007, p. 884).

Although Constructivism is a theory of learning, not one of teaching (Fosnot & Perry, 2005), it has implications for teaching (Brooks & Brooks, 1993), and by extension for the teaching of future teachers:

...a constructivist view of learning suggests an approach to teaching that gives learners the opportunity for concrete, contextually meaningful experience through which they can search for patterns; raise questions; and model, interpret, and defend their strategies and ideas... autonomy, mutual reciprocity or social relations [between teacher and students] and empowerment become the goals. (Fosnot, 2005, p. ix)

The general principles of Constructivism have been summarized as follows:

- Learning is not the result of development; learning is development.

This principle sets forth the idea that maturation ≠ learning. Instead, in learning, we reorganize our thoughts and we actively reconceptualize our world.

- Disequilibrium facilitates learning.

By being faced with a contradiction, a puzzlement, a question we cannot answer, or a challenge to what we thought was true, and by grappling with this question or challenge, we learn.

- Reflective abstraction is the driving force of learning.

This principle encapsulates two notions: First, we need time for reflection in order to learn, and second in reflecting, we must abstract away from particulars to formulate “big ideas.”

- Dialogue within a community engenders further thinking.

This principle reinforces the idea that it is important to discuss thoughts with others. In discussing, we may be faced with new contradictions leading to further learning, and in discussing we can clarify our thinking.

- “Big ideas” often require the undoing or reorganizing of earlier conceptions.

As we learn, we tend to organize our thinking around “big ideas” (also referred to as “central organizing principles”). The construction and reconstruction of these “big ideas” often requires unlearning, relearning, and reorganization of the very principles at the heart of our “knowledge” (from Blythe, 1997, p. 51; Fosnot & Perry, 2005, pp. 33-34).

These five principles at the heart of a constructivist view of learning enable us to envision other models for language teacher education beyond the traditional Craft Model and Applied Science Model. Within the Constructivist Model we recognize that learning and teaching are tied

together in the active construction of knowledge. It is widely recognized that knowledge of effective practices in language teaching cannot simply be transmitted and received (Conroy, Hlas, & Reynolds, 2007; Dangel & Guyton, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001). Instead this knowledge-base must be developed, created, and integrated; in short, it must be individually “constructed.” By conducting teacher education in this manner, we help the teacher candidates to experience the transformative nature of education.

But what does a Constructivist Model for LTE resemble? Crucially we must recognize that constructivist-based experiences form an integral part of the education curriculum. As Kaufman (1996) explains, “It is unrealistic to expect teachers to initiate constructivist settings in schools if their prior educational experiences, including teacher education programs, do not include constructivist-based experiences.” This view is borne out by reflections from pre- and in-service teachers who have participated in constructivist teacher preparation and learning activities, including Action Research studies. Oldfather, Bonds, and Bray (1994), who participated in the Children’s Thinking Project designed to investigate children’s conceptual knowledge through a constructivist approach, note:

In our multiple and overlapping roles as teachers, researchers, and learners, we experienced “the having of wonderful ideas” (Duckworth, 1987), as we explored constructivist processes. In becoming more aware of our own construction of meaning, we have gained a deeper understanding of our students’ learning processes. (p. 6)

Because the Constructivist Paradigm within LTE will help our teacher candidates to better understand the world of learning, because it promotes both reflection and action, and because it “derails the transmission model” (Conroy, Hlas, & Reynolds, 2007), it is a desirable framework in which to conceptualize Language Teacher Education (LTE).

Action Research as a Key Component Within the Constructivist Model of LTE

Accepting that the Constructivist Model is a desirable one in which to conceptualize the preparation of future language teachers, then we must grapple with the question of how to help these pre-service teachers to experience constructivist learning. To this end, Action Research studies offer an interesting avenue for exploration.

Action Research has been defined in a number of different ways depending on the goals of the study and on the participants involved. The most common definition is similar to the one found in Richards and Lockhart (1997): Action Research is “Teacher-initiated classroom

investigation which seeks to increase the teacher's understanding of classroom teaching and learning, and to bring about change in classroom practices" (p. 12). As this definition suggests, much of the action research by language professionals is indeed carried out by teachers, which is to say practicing, in-service teachers. A few of the numerous examples of such research include Allwright (2005)³; Allwright and Lenzuen (1997); Altrichter, Posch & Somekh (1993); Burnaford, Fischer, and Hobson (2001); Cabal Krastel and Lacorte (2005); Haley, Midgely, Ortiz, Romano, Ashworth, and Seewald (2005); Huffman (2006); Lytle and Cochran-Smith (1990); O'Loughlin (1992); Zéphir (2000); and Zhang (2004), as well as studies by Blythe (1997) and Crookes & Chandler (2001), which describe how AR has been successfully implemented with college-level teaching assistants. Nevertheless, it is also true that pre-service teachers may be successfully involved in the AR process (Black & Ammon, 1992; Conroy, Hlas, & Reynolds, 2007; Crawford, 1999; Jadallah, 1996; Kaufman, 1996; Oldfather, Bonds & Bray, 1994). A broader definition of AR, one better able to encompass the inclusion of pre-service teachers, can be found in Wallace (1998): "[A]ction research is a form of structured reflection...it is.. very problem-focused in its approach and very practical in its intended outcomes" (p. 15). Yet a third definition is given by Crookes (1993), this one drawing more explicitly on the principles of Critical Pedagogy⁴: Action research is "educational research which is committed to emancipating individuals from the domination of unexamined assumptions embodied in the status quo" (Crookes, p. 131; cf. Ericson, 1986, p. 208). Though different in perspective, there are common threads in all accounts of AR: Action research is a means of reflecting, either individually or collectively, on best practices, a manner of thinking and performing "outside the box," a way of changing classroom practices, and a road towards a greater understanding of learning and teaching.

Reports differ also on the terminology used to describe the phases of action research, although the broad outlines of the process remain similar. Smith, Donato, and Zeppieri (2004) identify four phases of the AR process using descriptive verbal terminology (the gerund form) that highlights the actions in which participants are involved: (1) Thinking, (2) Acting, (3) Reflecting, (4) Re-Thinking. These are similar though not identical to the four phases named by Cabal Krastel, and Lacorte (2005), though here we see that the actions have been nominalized: (1) Exploration, (2) Action, (3) Reflection, (4) Change. Wallace (1998) further breaks down the "Action" phase into two components while expressing the phases in imperative form: (1) Focus, (2) Collect data, (3) Analyze, (4) Change, (5) Reflect. Because Action Research is by definition an active, cyclical process, but one which is fluid and self-directed, not imposed from the

outside, my own preference is to identify its phases using terminology similar to that of Smith, Donato, and Zeppieri (2004). However, I prefer the term “Planning” for phase (1) as it better highlights the conscious nature of the preparatory process and the term “Connecting” for phase (4) since this reminds us that AR is both an individual and a collective process. Accordingly, the four phases of AR can be summarized as follows:

Phases of Action Research

1. Planning: Gathering insights, researching, reflecting, and forming a hypothesis;
2. Acting: Implementing a plan, collecting data, and analyzing data;
3. Reflecting: Interpreting data, comparing expectations to outcomes, deciding what to do next; identifying new questions;
4. Connecting: Sharing results, connecting AR to broader goals and new puzzlements.

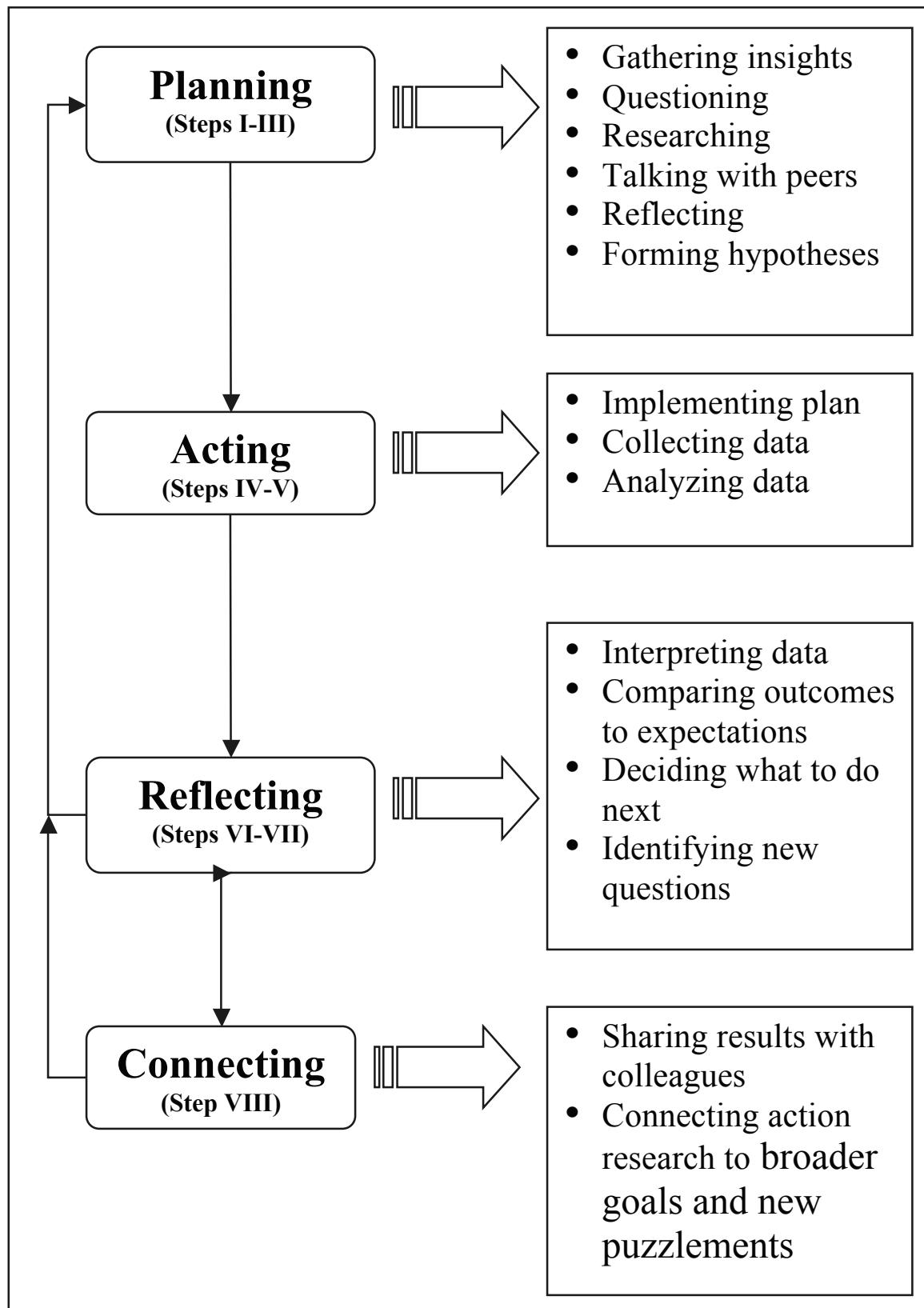
The four phases of Action Research can be broken down into a number of steps to help guide teachers, both in-service and pre-service, through the process:

Steps in the Action Research Process

- I. Identify a pedagogical question of relevance;
- II. Form a hypothesis about how best to address the issue;
- III. Establish a research plan to test the hypothesis;
- IV. Collect data following the research plan;
- V. Analyze the data;
- VI. Draw conclusions based on the data;
- VII. Reflect upon these conclusions with a view towards integrating this new knowledge-base into future pedagogical practices and identifying new questions;
- VIII. Share conclusions, as well as journey of discovery, with peers while reflecting on new puzzlements that this research has brought to light.

Figure 1 visually displays the four phases of Action Research and its corresponding steps:

Figure 1: The Flow of Action Research



In comparing the phases and steps of AR to the five general principles of Constructivism, we can clearly see how AR forms an important component within the Constructivist model. The process of Action Research starts with a point of disequilibrium, a question or puzzle, and it encourages individual thought and reflection as well as group dialog and collaboration. Results of the AR process often require the undoing or reorganization of prior knowledge because participants have come to new “Big Ideas.” Finally, participation in the process constitutes both learning and development as the two are intimately intertwined.

Though most often associated with in-service teachers, Action Research can be carried out effectively by pre-service teachers. What follows is a brief case study of a collaborative action research project carried out by a dyad representing paired novice teachers, one pre-service and the other in-service. These were two of the students enrolled in a course called “Foreign Language Acquisition Research” taught at Stony Brook University in the spring of 2004. All students in this course carried out AR studies, individually, in dyads, or in groups of three according to the areas of interest and working preferences of each student. Their ability to successfully complete all four phases of an action research study within the constraints of a fifteen week semester illustrates the feasibility of integrating action research within programs for teacher candidate professional development.

Case Study of Collaborative Action Research: Tanya & Kelly⁵

In the spring of 2004, Tanya was a novice teacher, in the middle of her second year of high school Italian instruction, enrolled in a Master of Arts (MA) program in Romance Languages. She held a Bachelor’s degree in Italian, with specialization in secondary education, and a provisional state teacher certification in New York. Upon completion of her Master’s degree and a minimum of three successful years of teaching, Tanya would be eligible for a permanent teaching credential.

Kelly was a teacher candidate enrolled in the Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) Italian program. Kelly had completed a Bachelor’s degree in Italian but had not taken education courses as part of that degree. Upon completion of the MAT program, Kelly would receive provisional state teacher certification in New York. After three successful years of teaching, Kelly would likewise be eligible for a permanent teaching credential.

Tanya and Kelly were two of the 18 students enrolled in the same Master’s level Foreign Language Acquisition Research course in which the collaborative action research project was implemented. During the first two weeks of the course, students were asked to independently

complete **Step I:** Identification of a pedagogical problem or question of relevance. Both Tanya and Kelly identified the same issue of target language (TL) use during pair or group work. Based on her experiences the previous year and a half, Tanya had learned that it is difficult to keep all students on-task and working in the TL during pair and group work while Kelly knew of this difficulty through readings she had completed on language learning and teaching. Because they had selected the same topic as an area of interest, and they were fluent in the same TL, Tanya and Kelly agreed to collaborate on an action research project to address the issue of how to maximize use of Italian during pair and group work.

Together they then completed **Step II:** Formation of a hypothesis to address the issue. Over the next three weeks Kelly and Tanya read journal articles, discussed the issue with their peers and instructor in the AR class, and talked to more experienced colleagues to find out what other practitioners and investigators could suggest. Based on this research, which included consultation of articles by Anton and DiCamilla (1999); Baer (2003); Storch (2002); Swain and Lapkin (1998); Szostek (1994); Turnbull (2003); and Walz (1985), they decided to implement both a cooperative grouping technique and a positive reinforcement technique, the latter of which was represented by a tally sheet allowing pairs of students to reinforce TL use. The hypothesis they agreed to test can be stated as follow: Student use of positive reinforcement tally sheets will increase the use of Italian during group work.

Step III involved determining how best to test this hypothesis. One of Tanya's goals for her third-year group of students was to have them carry out a debate in Italian. Tanya and Kelly decided to develop a 5-day unit plan to simultaneously implement the debate and to test the hypothesis. Because hers was a class of 20 students, the group seemed large enough to provide some interesting data, yet small enough to offer a manageable sample of data to analyze within the short amount of time available for their AR project. According to their plan, the unit would flow as follows:

- Day 1:** Teacher explains the assignment; students nominate and vote on debate topics; class selects debate topic; teacher divides class in half and randomly assigns students to the "For" or "Against" team for the upcoming debate.
- Day 2:** Teacher divides each team of 10 in half to form smaller discussion groups. Each small group formulates 15 supporting arguments for their position; teams regroup to select the 10 most persuasive supporting arguments; teacher instructs students to speak only in Italian; teacher and observer (Tanya and Kelly) monitor group work and use of Italian.
- Day 3:** Teacher divides each team of 10 in half again to form smaller discussion groups. Each small group formulates 10 questions to ask of the opposing team during

the debate; teams regroup to select the 10 most probing questions; teacher assigns partners within each team; teacher explains that students must tally the number of times their partner uses Italian while completing the assignment. In their written AR report, Tanya and Kelly explain their rationale as follows:

“Again, we asked the groups to try and speak only Italian. However, instead of just insisting that they follow that rule, we decided to have them make a tally with a partner using the tally sheet that was given to them. The intention behind the tally was to have the students be more aware of what they are saying because there will be someone listening to them and actually keeping track of the amount of Italian being used. The tally was a positive reinforcement. Instead of tallying the amount of times that they did not speak Italian, we decided to have them tally the amount of sentences that they did speak in Italian.”

Day 4: Teacher asks each team to select 5 of the 10 questions formulated the previous day and exchange them with the opposing team so that each team can prepare some responses and counterarguments before the debate; teams exchange 5 questions; teams prepare responses. Teacher again partners students to implement use of the tally sheets.

Day 5: Students debate.

As part of the research plan (**Step III**), Tanya and Kelly developed the student tally sheets which contained space for a student to write his/her name, and the name of his/her partner, a box in which to keep the running tally using hash marks, and a space in which to write comments/questions or take notes as needed.

Step IV involved the actual implementation of the research plan which, according to Tanya and Kelly’s written AR report, they were able to follow as developed. On Day 1, the students selected a debate topic of interest to them, one that had recently been brought up by their local school board: Imposing a school dress code. Students were randomly assigned to Team A “In favor of a dress code” or Team B “Opposed to a dress code.”

On Day 2, Tanya instructed the students to use only Italian during group discussions. She reminded them that they could use their notes, a dictionary, and vocabulary lists that she and Kelly had prepared. One list contained pertinent vocabulary for talking about the debate topic while the other list provided Italian expressions useful in discussing one’s opinion such as “I think that...”, “I don’t agree...” and so forth. During this first day of team debate preparation, students did not use tally sheets. To gather data on the use of Italian, Tanya and Kelly circulated throughout the classroom to help students formulate their supporting arguments for the debate while simultaneously taking notes on, and tallying, the use of English as compared to the use of Italian during the class hour.

On Day 3, Tanya and Kelly introduced the tally sheets and paired up students within each team to implement this positive reinforcement technique. Day 4 likewise progressed as planned with students again making use of the tally sheets.

During the debate on Day 5, Tanya and Kelly note in their AR report that the debate was conducted as follows:

"The classroom is set up with the two groups facing one another. Both leaders have organized the groups so that everyone will speak in a specific order. Some students will be making a comment...; [s]ome students will be posing a question...; [o]ther students will be responding to questions made from the opposing side."

In addition, they note that on the day of the debate, all of the students spoke entirely in Italian.

Following data collection during the week of the debate unit, Tanya and Kelly were prepared to complete **Step V**: Data analysis. To determine the percentage of class time the students spent speaking in Italian while preparing their debate arguments on Day 2 of the unit, Tanya and Kelly compared their notes and the tallies they each had kept. This procedure allowed them to determine that students used Italian for 20% of the class time on Day 2 while the remaining 80% of the time was spent English (see Figure II). Their AR report includes the following information from their notes: "Even though they [the students] had many resources to help them and it was quite possible to speak only Italian, almost all of the students reverted back to English when discussing the ideas with their partners."

Data on the use of Italian during Days 3 and 4 of the debate preparation were gleaned through analysis of the student tally sheets collected each day. In their classroom notes, Tanya and Kelly write that they hear much more Italian being spoken on Day 3 of the unit as compared to Day 2. A cumulative count of the hash marks collected on the tally sheets confirms this impression indicating that 50% of the classroom speech occurred in Italian (see Figure III). Similarly on Day 4, Tanya and Kelly note increased use of Italian. Their tabulation of data collected from the tally sheets on this day shows that 90% of the classroom speech occurred in Italian (see Figure IV). As noted above, the culmination of the unit was the classroom debate on Day 5 during which all students spoke entirely in Italian (see Figure V).

Figures II-V: Progression in the Use of Italian, Days 2-5 of Debate Unit

Figure II: Use of Italian, Day 2

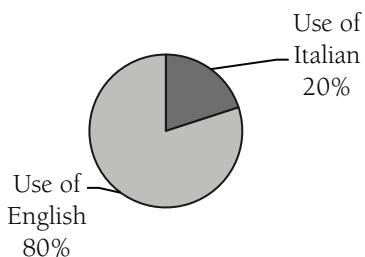


Figure III: Use of Italian, Day 3

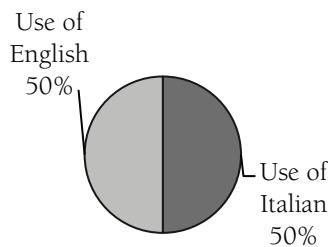


Figure IV: Use of Italian, Day 4

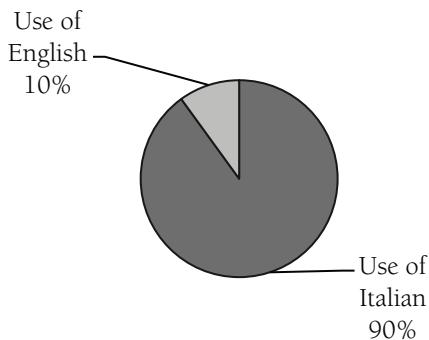
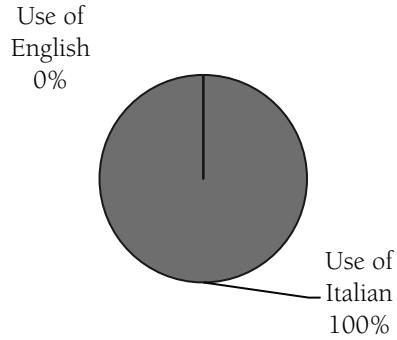


Figure V: Use of Italian, Day 5



Proceeding with **Step VI**, Tanya and Kelly conclude that their hypothesis is supported: Student use of positive reinforcement tally sheets does increase the use of Italian during group work. Furthermore, they write in their AR report that they “were quite pleased with the outcome of the debate. Not only were the students able to use Italian in a different setting, they were having fun with the language.”

Consistent with **Step VII**, Tanya and Kelly note in their AR report that “incorporating a tally system was a clear and successful method for an increased amount of Italian in our classroom.” They go on to indicate that they believe the AR project was “a good starting point for future classroom projects.” As a result of this project, it is likely that Tanya will continue to use the tally sheet technique in her Italian classes and that Kelly will begin to use it once she receives her credential and begins her teaching career.

Finally (**Step VIII**), in addition to the Action Research report that Tanya and Kelly prepared as their final written report for the Foreign Language Acquisition Research course, they also created a poster of their project and results. The final class in the course was transformed

into a poster session where first half of the class displayed its posters while the others circulated to view and discuss the work, then roles were reversed such that all students had the opportunity to both present and discuss their own work and to view and discuss the action research projects as displayed by others. Additionally, students were encouraged to submit poster session proposals to our regional language conference, the NorthEast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. Many students chose to do so, and several of their posters were selected for display allowing them to “connect” to the broader world of foreign language teaching professionals beyond the confines of the academic classroom.

Conclusion

In addition to reflecting on the outcomes of their study, Tanya and Kelly also offered some commentary on the AR process. The concluding paragraph to their AR report reads as follows:

This action research project showed us how practical and manageable such studies can be. It is important as educators to continually try to reflect and find ways to improve our own skills. Although research studies can seem overwhelming, this project helped us to gain a broader perspective on the different ways we can solve our classroom issues.

Tanya and Kelly both came away from this project feeling as though they had been initiated into the world of the “teacher-researcher.” They state, “While we realize that by implementing the tally sheet sooner, we could have increased the amount of Italian spoken right away, it was important for us as researchers and for the students to see the impact of the tally” (emphasis added). By conducting this action research study, Tanya and Kelly have personally bridged the divide between theory and practice, or as Kumaravadivelu (2001) puts it, they have “rupture[d] the reified role relationship between theorists and practitioners” (p. 537) In doing so, they have also experienced first-hand the principles of constructivist learning.

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Notes

¹ Here Bruner's (1985) distinction between the "paradigmatic" and the "narrative" is not implied. The terms "model" and "paradigm" are used interchangeably.

² Freeman & Richards (1993) and Zahorik (1986) cite a tri-fold separation of models: (1) science/research; (2) theory/philosophy; (3) art/craft. For explanatory ease, the dual division—Craft vs. Applied Science—will be used in this paper.

³ In his work, Allwright distinguishes Action Research which emphasizes problem-solving, from Exploratory Practice (EP) which emphasizes practitioner understanding. The research conducted by teachers within the EP paradigm, however, provides important insights for action researchers as well.

⁴ "Critical Pedagogy" is notoriously difficult to define in one or two sentences as it is a complex philosophy of teaching and learning most closely associated with the work of Paulo Freire (see Freire, 1974). Wink (2000) offers one definition, however: "Critical pedagogy is a process of learning and relearning. It entails a sometimes painful reexamination of old practices and established beliefs of educational institutions and behaviors. Critical pedagogy causes one to make inquiries about equality and justice" (p. 71).

⁵ Tanya and Kelly are pseudonyms.

Multicultural Education in a K-12 Modern Language Department: Reconciling the Professional Development Experience

**Martha Bigelow and Pamela Wesely, *University of Minnesota*
Lora Opsahl, “College School”¹**

This paper explores how teachers in a K-12 foreign language department experienced a school-wide, sustained professional development program designed to integrate multicultural curriculum across all disciplines using James Banks’ (2005) framework while simultaneously revamping assessment practices through Wiggins and McTighe’s (1999) backward design for classroom assessment practices. Data reveal that the initiative challenged and affirmed teachers in terms of what is “multicultural” in a FL curriculum. While sustained and embedded professional development is touted as best practice in professional development, some teachers in this study experienced weariness from the process which was sometimes perceived as having an unclear vision. Data also suggest some important differences in how the professional development initiative was perceived by native English speakers versus non-native English speakers. Challenges of and recommendations for meeting the disciplinary and individual needs within a school-wide curriculum transformation initiative are discussed.

Introduction

In this research, we explore the way a K-12 modern language department in a private school perceived a long-term professional development initiative to transform the curriculum of their entire school in ways that included a wider range of diverse perspectives, practices, and products. Our inquiry began as we considered how curricular transformation (Banks, 1995) occurs in a modern language department. When we went to the literature in the field of foreign language (FL) education, we found Michael Byram’s words from some 20 years ago: “one of the contributions of foreign language (FL) teaching...is to introduce learners to and help them understand ‘otherness’. Whether it be linguistic or cultural terms, learners are confronted with the language of other people, their culture, their way of thinking and dealing with the world” (1987, p. 26). Byram argued that “otherness” does not include only “foreigners” but also people born within our borders who are still perceived to be “othered” such as ethnic or racial minorities. Therefore, while most FL departments would be quick to claim multicultural education as a critical part of the everyday work they do, there are also challenges in

incorporating a range of “foreign” perspectives, both global and local, within the overarching goal of producing students who are proficient in the FL.

This study is set within the context of a school-wide multicultural curriculum development initiative at a private preschool through 12th grade (P-12) school in the Midwest of the United States. We will refer to this school as “College School.” All of the teachers at the school participated in professional development experiences that were designed to support them as they enhanced their existing curriculum to include more and varied multicultural perspectives or created entirely new curricula that would bring multicultural education into their classes in thoughtful and integrated ways. As an overlay to this initiative, College School teachers were also asked to conceptualize their new curriculum using a process of *backward design* set forth in Wiggins and McTighe’s (1999, 2005) *Understanding by Design*.² This study will focus specifically on College School’s FL teachers in the context of this initiative. The discussion will compare two very different bodies of scholarly work focusing on culture – one centered on the integration of culture in FL teaching and the other set squarely in the realm of promoting social justice through transforming school culture in the United States.

Background

Research from the field of FL teaching shows that teachers have a wide range of existing beliefs and practices related to the role of culture or intercultural competence teaching in their FL classes (Klein, 2004; Sercu, 2005; Sisken, 2007). This research is supported by a survey conducted by the Social Science Education Consortium (1999) of 1,566 high school FL teachers which found that “no definition of culture is common among [FL] teachers” (p. 5). Nevertheless, the FL teaching profession in the U.S. clearly sees culture integration as a high priority and has included culture across a number of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning (National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 1999), which are commonly known at the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) Standards. Most notably, the second standard focusing on, “Cultures,” seeks to encourage students to “gain knowledge and understanding of other cultures.” For this, ACTFL calls upon a practices-products-perspectives framework to conceptualize culture. The ACTFL Standards urge teachers to find and teach links between what a given culture does (practices, such as eating), what that culture creates (products, such as music) and what people of that culture believe or are concerned about (perspectives, such as status symbols). For example, in some families in Panama, New Year’s Eve involves eating 12 grapes as midnight approaches, counting the grape seeds to know your lucky

number and then once the clock reaches 12:00, kissing friends and family, and setting off fireworks. After midnight, dinner is served and some people may go dancing to celebrate. These practices and products are tied to traditions from Spain, which in turn are grounded in religious beliefs, the importance of family, and perhaps superstitions.

Numerous other frameworks for considering the role of culture in foreign language teaching have been available to teachers and teacher educators for a long time (e.g., Byram & Zarate, 1997; Crawford-Lange & Lange, 1987; Kramsch, 1993; Seelye, 1997). Most current definitions of culture learning in the field of foreign language teaching tend to urge explorations beyond simple facts about people who speak some variety of a target language, and instead to promote the understanding of culture through processes that engage students at multiple personal and intellectual levels. Paige, Jorstad, Siaya, Klein, and Colby (2003) offer this cogent description of the way learning about culture is often framed in FL education:

[Culture learning] is the process of acquiring the culture-specific and culture-general knowledge, skills, and attitudes required for effective communication and interaction with individuals from other cultures. It is a dynamic, developmental, and ongoing process which engages the learner cognitively, behaviorally, and affectively (p. 177).

This definition is appealing to today's foreign language educators because it focuses on culture in terms of developing communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1971).

Nevertheless, facilitating this sort of learning is often challenging in a FL classroom because communicative activities carried out in the target language are often controlled by texts or teachers and informed by an extremely limited amount of contextual/cultural information (Fischer, 1997). Other challenges to integrating culture into a FL classroom may occur because of teachers' limited or out-of-date experience with communities that speak the target language. Some practicing teachers have not had the opportunity to learn about approaches to integrating culture in their pre- or in-service teacher education experiences. The task of integrating products, practices and perspectives, as the FL Standards (1999) suggest, typically requires practice, dialogue, and exemplars (Schulz, 2007). Klein (2004) found that teachers tend to think about culture in terms of practices and products, not in terms of the meaning attached to the events of the world and the behavior of others. We concur with Sercu's plea that "language-and-culture learning has to be more complex and rich than the emphasis on communicative competence in foreign language education tends to suggest" (2005, p. 180). The present study will analyze these issues in the context of College School's multicultural curriculum initiative and

complexify them further by exploring how the language teachers felt as they participated in the school-wide reform effort.

Thus far, most readers will easily recognize these problems of practice related to the integration of culture into FL classes where the push is strongly toward proficiency goals. Teacher educators urge teachers to cultivate balance and nuance with regard to culture in FL curricula, be it to present a range of French speaking cultures to students (not just a monolithic Parisian culture), offer a range of images of Spanish speakers (not just poor), or expose students to a range of aspects of Chinese cultures (not just holidays, traditionally celebrated). To sum up, the field of FL teaching and learning has a long scholarly history of thinking about the integration of culture into classes across a range of levels and ages.

The scholarly literature used to discuss culture in the multicultural initiative at College School, however, was very different than what is typically used to frame culture in FL teaching. The readings offered to the teaching staff and the speakers invited to guide teacher learning were squarely set within the field of multicultural education, not the subject-specific literature such as that cited above. The initiative drew upon multicultural education scholars whose work is framed by the U.S. public school context (e.g., Carl Grant & Christine Sleeter [2003], James Banks [1999]). The multicultural education scholarship frames “culture” in terms of categories such as race, gender, social class, ethnicity, religion and sexual orientation. In other words, the discourse was about difference and was framed within U.S. American cultural systems of oppression. Teachers across all grades and disciplines were asked to consider how their curriculum could be more inclusive of a range of views, discover inherent bias in the existing curriculum and even examine injustice playing out in the local or school community. For this reason, the school leadership chose to use James Banks’ work on multicultural education (Banks, 2005; Banks & McGee-Banks, 2003) to guide the curriculum initiative.

Curriculum transformation, according to Banks, aims to challenge mainstream curriculum that ignores the experiences, contributions and perspectives of individuals from non-dominant groups in all subject areas. It aims to go beyond celebrating difference by the addition of a few heroes and holidays seen as valuable to minoritized³ or non-dominant groups. Rather, curricular transformation involves grappling with issues and concepts that are tightly bound to the subject matter and integrated in a way that is not perceived as superfluous. These transformations are meant to lead to social action and awareness as well as the full inclusion of students, families and staff from minoritized or non-dominant communities. Specifically, and crucial to curricular transformation, are Banks’ “Dimensions of Multicultural Education,” namely: (a) content

integration, (b) the knowledge construction process, (c) prejudice reduction, (d) an equity pedagogy, and (e) an empowering school culture and social structure (1999, p. 14).

Banks' work strongly emphasizes the need for teachers to move beyond the traditional, narrow view of multicultural education as just content integration, where teachers focus on using examples and content from a variety of cultures and groups to illustrate key aspects of their subject area. College School's multicultural initiative, based on Banks' work, also encouraged teachers to move into the knowledge construction process, where teachers first became aware of the implicit cultural assumptions, frames of reference, perspectives, and biases in their subject area, and then help the students to uncover them in the classroom. The dimensions of prejudice reduction, where teachers help students develop more positive attitudes toward racial and ethnic groups different from their own, and equity pedagogy, where teachers use techniques to reach students from diverse racial, ethnic, and social class groups, also influenced the development of the multicultural curriculum.

The research on school-based multicultural initiatives that most closely relates to our study is by Thea Renda Abu El-Haj (2006). Abu El-Haj carried out long-term ethnographic case studies of two schools, one public and the other private, as they grappled with school reform initiatives that were designed to represent more diverse perspectives in their curriculum as well as include pedagogy that would be more inclusive of their diverse study body. The exploration of the private school, which she calls City Friends, resonates with stories told at College School. Abu El-Haj's research in two schools aimed to help her conceptualize and pursue justice in particular local contexts rather than through abstract or universal principles (Young, 1990). At City Friends, Abu El-Haj studied the discourses of difference in every day practice – "ideas afloat in the public imagination that take shape in the everyday practices of schools" (p. 5). She documented disagreements and ongoing, grounded dialogue about what educational justice looks like in practice. She found the dialogue at City Friends to be organized around key themes of integration and recognition of difference. Integration dealt also with assimilation in the sense that City Friends had a diverse student body, but there were tensions around what it felt like to be minoritized in a mostly White school and whether the assumption was to acquire "White" cultural norms and therefore access to the dominant society. Recognition of difference was the pedagogical and curricular focus.

While Abu El-Haj's research explored issues of multicultural education from a school-wide perspective, our study narrowly focuses on the experience of FL teachers in one school. By doing so, we were able to uncover some of the challenges faced even by teachers for whom issues

of culture seem natural. What we will show is that even when the match in terms of teacher knowledge base and subject matter taught seems strong, there are still professional development issues that merit further consideration.

The following research question was formulated to allow for an examination of stories, observations and documents related to the multicultural education initiative at the school:

How do FL teachers experience a sustained professional development program designed to guide all teachers in their school community to integrate multicultural curriculum into their subject areas?

Method

The methodology used to understand the multicultural education professional development experience was a qualitative case study. The bounded unit of analysis was the FL department.

School Setting

College School is a private school in a large metropolitan area. The school employs 150 teachers and enrolls approximately 1,100 students. Fifteen percent of the student body is from minoritized racial groups. The FL Department is well-known in the state for having strong K-12 programs in Chinese and Spanish. Students also have opportunities to begin a FL in middle and high school. The strong FL program is a reason cited by some parents for sending their children to this school. It is important to note that as a private school, the majority of the students come from families considered wealthy. Given that, we recognize that “the more privileged the student, the more likely she or he is to have accepted socioeconomic stratification, educational tracking, and other hierarchies of race, class and gender privilege” (Martin, 1998, p. 46), making the multicultural initiative well-matched to this particular school setting.

An Outline of the Multicultural Curriculum Initiative

The three primary goals of the multicultural initiative were:

1. Taking Perspective: To teach students how to take perspective, to develop skills to view the world from someone else's viewpoint.
2. Building Respect: To teach students how to function well in a diverse society.
3. Educating Change Agents: To teach students how to be effective change agents in our society; to exercise civic courage to work against the status quo when necessary.

One of the important features of the multicultural curriculum initiative is the fact that it has been sustained over a long period of time and has offered teachers many ways to both learn about diverse perspectives and think about how to teach and assess their new or improved curriculum. Table 1 outlines the phases of the multicultural initiative.

Table 1: Phases of the Multicultural Initiative

Phase One: Self-Reflection	
2000-2001	Cohort groups of teachers established Faculty attend workshops to develop awareness of cultures that differ from the mainstream culture
Phase Two: Studying the Other	
Phase Three: Fundamentals of Multicultural Education	
2001-2002	Faculty listen to speakers about the American Indian experience Introduction of Banks' Model of Multicultural Education Invited speaker Christine Sleeter provides background about multicultural ed.
Phase Four: Multicultural curriculum	
2002-2003	Invited speaker James Banks addresses faculty about the background for the integration and implementation of multicultural education Introduction of Wiggins' <i>Understanding by Design</i> P-12 departments begin to develop multicultural enduring understandings
2003-2004	P-12 departments write multicultural learnings, defined as observable "chunks" that students must learn to develop, differentiated by grade P-12 departments begin to identify evidence or assessments that would indicate that students understood the learning
2004-2005	P-12 departments continue to refine the multicultural learnings that pertain to their enduring understanding Faculty develop multicultural lesson plans based on the multicultural learnings that feature backwards design and formative and summative assessments
2005-2006	Faculty are encouraged to refine, edit, and implement lesson plans
2006-2007	Faculty are encouraged to refine, edit, and implement lesson plans Faculty are asked to submit student work based on the lesson plans

In 2004-2005, the faculty were asked to develop multicultural lesson plans. They did this using a template developed by the department heads, based on Wiggins and McTighe's *Understanding by Design* (1999). They created a performance task that would give evidence that the students achieved the identified learnings. This included assessment criteria for the

performance task, formative assessment ideas, facets of learning, and a section on reflection and self-assessment.

There were additional ongoing facets to the initiative. They included summer readings for faculty on multicultural issues, faculty meetings in cohort groups to discuss readings and other topics, usually at the beginning and end of the school years, and consultant speakers from higher education to lead workshops to provide input to administrators and faculty members. The Headmaster of the school initiated and championed the effort. He was instrumental in forming a parents' group to discuss issues of diversity and chaired the school's Diversity Committee himself. It is also important to mention that teachers at this school are typically involved in a number of additional activities at the same time the multicultural curriculum work was unfolding (e.g., technology integration, reading in the content areas, curriculum mapping for accreditation). The professional climate at College School is one of invested, committed teachers who are given many responsibilities beyond their teaching assignments.

Participants

Participants in the study were 6 FL teachers. Of the participants whose identity we know (two participated via anonymous survey), two Chinese teachers are native speakers/teachers of Chinese and nonnative English speakers (NNES) and two Spanish teachers are nonnative speakers of Spanish and native English speakers (NES).⁴

At the time of writing this article, Bigelow had worked closely with the school as a consultant for three years on the project. She worked mainly with teachers who served as administrative leaders of the diversity committee and the curriculum committee, but later worked closely with department heads on the implementation of the curriculum and through joint observations of teachers in their departments. Her activities included facilitating school-wide workshops on classroom assessment, teacher supervision, and James Banks' dimensions of multicultural education. She observed numerous lessons across grades and content areas when teachers were implementing some part of their multicultural curriculum. As teachers, Wesely and Opsahl participated in the school workshops, discussions, summer reading, etc. from the beginning of the multicultural initiative. Wesely was a French teacher at the school for 7 years. At the time of the study, she was a full-time graduate student. Opsahl was, and currently is, the head of the Modern Language Department at College School. She has guided her department in the creation and implementation of the new or revised multicultural curriculum. Part of her role as Department Head has been to monitor the curricular shift, and guarantee that students will

receive a range of experiences with multicultural education as they progress through their language classes. Opsahl also attended additional workshops outside of the school on *Understanding by Design*, and was influential in helping school leadership understand this approach to assessment in the context of the multicultural education work. Our combined experiences with the multicultural initiative informed our understanding of the data and our analyses. As we engaged in this inquiry, we reminded ourselves that we too are products of the schooling process and “carry deep within us all manner of ideological baggage that, coupled with our formal studies of schooling, go a long way to perpetuate the educational status quo” (Farber, 1995, p. 49).

Data Sources and Analysis

Data sources included interviews with teachers, anonymous online questionnaires with open-ended questions, and professional development materials used during the initiative. The interviews and questionnaires offered personal narrative accounts of the experience. The interviews, which were digitally recorded, were listened to at least twice by two of the researchers (Wesley and Bigelow) during which time all of the content (e.g., topics addressed, answers given, opinions offered, stories told) of each interview was noted in list form. The content lists from the interviews were coded topically in order to capture the range of information obtained in the interviews as well as the ways any codes overlapped. After these steps were completed, themes in the interview data were noted through a process that was both inductive and deductive⁵ (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The open-ended questions of the online questionnaires were similarly coded and considered for themes.

Finally, as participants in the process ourselves - as department head, teacher and outside consultant - we brought our own views to the inquiry and used them to fuel discussion among ourselves and to understand the different experiences others had with the multicultural curriculum initiative. Our views were informed by our respective roles in the multicultural curriculum project, but none of us participated as researchers until the 2006-2007 academic year. In short, our engagement with the multicultural curriculum effort at this school varied greatly among the three of us, but together we are able to offer a fuller account of what happened.

Findings and Discussion

Of all the K-12 subjects taught in schools today, culture and FL teaching should go hand in hand. FL teachers are often seen as the ones who know about “culture” in a school. Isn’t their mere presence in a school evidence that the curriculum is multicultural? Doesn’t studying a FL guarantee students multicultural learning opportunities? What we have found and aim to demonstrate is that FL teachers may find it difficult to reconcile their notions of culture in the realm of Banks’ multicultural education framework of transformative curriculum. And while multicultural education is a natural fit in most FL curricula, we will describe some of the hurdles FL teachers experienced in participating in the school-wide reform that seemed to cause uncertainty and disequilibrium as well as an increased awareness of how culture is dealt with in the curriculum.

Teacher Learning and Engagement

All of the teachers interviewed and surveyed had positive things to say about their professional development experiences at College School in the area of multicultural education. They specifically mentioned the following things as enjoyable or helpful:

- Watching and discussing movies with parents
- Discussing books with cohort groups
- Listening to speakers (e.g., Native American speaker)
- Learning about differences between people
- Learning to integrate culture

One teacher said, “*I show them [students] that I respect different cultures. I used to just give the information. No discussion. Now I think those things are in my mind I integrate more.*” A similar experience was reported by another teacher when she said, “*before I just did it and I didn't really think about it...but this time I'm really thinking about, if I do this, this, this, that's really gonna help them understand...or it would be more profound.*” Another teacher said that the most positive outcome of the experience was “*Thinking more about culture in my teaching. Cultural understanding is big for their learning.*” This idea is mirrored by another teacher who said, “*It makes me more aware of what I teach and how I teach it.*” The opportunity to focus on the thoughtful integration of multicultural learnings and understandings seems to have helped teachers give this area of their teaching focused consideration which led to changes in classroom practices.

These quotes suggest that language teachers, too, can benefit from learning opportunities related to multicultural education and reconcile the disciplinary differences between FL teaching and multicultural education. In fact, one teacher on the anonymous survey showed that he/she was engaging students in what Banks terms “knowledge construction.” This teacher said, “*I now go more in depth in a unit of study, devote more time to perspectives, and wrestle with HOW to teach my students to understand that a lot of what they 'know' is filtered through someone's perspective.*” Interestingly, this teacher uses the word “perspectives” which is widely used in the FL and the multicultural education scholarship, but then focuses back on the student and the importance of understanding their own perspectives to better understand the perspectives of others.

These quotes suggest that the FL teachers at College School benefitted from professional development on the topic of multicultural education. On the other hand, some found it difficult to disentangle their current practice with what would be considered “multicultural” from the perspective of the professional development initiative. One teacher said that it was “*frustrating, in that what we teach in a foreign language is pretty much multicultural in general, how do we differentiate what we are actually doing on a daily basis from something specifically multicultural?*” This quote brings to the fore the debate that perhaps students truly do have a multicultural education experience by simply attending a French, Spanish, or Chinese class. We contend that while this is possible, there are many more multicultural learnings that students can take away from their language classes in addition to improved linguistic skills and knowledge. The quote could also indicate that some teachers were further along in the process of understanding curriculum transformation than others. This later possibility is reflected in this statement made by a teacher: “*I had to put it in the format they wanted because it's something I've been doing for a long time.*” He saw the demands of the professional development as being purely administrative – that by reformatting his existing curriculum he had accomplished his task.

One teacher expressed a disjuncture between her world of teaching and what she saw as a very different way of being in professional development meetings. She said, “*we're just so focused on doing our teaching, and so all of a sudden, you know, you're philosophizing about the reasons for all this...*” This statement suggests a possible register or discourse difference that seemed to make the activities of teaching disconnected from the activities of developing multicultural curriculum. It is important to take note of this perceived disconnect and work to narrow the gap between “teaching” and “philosophizing” or “theory” and “practice.” This rift is one that concerns us greatly. The whole point of the professional development opportunities was to transform teaching practices, but from some of the teachers’ perspectives, the readings, lectures, and

workshops often seemed quite distant from this aim. On the other hand, how can a school facilitate school-wide learning about complex issues which is grounded in research and theory while at the same time offer concrete assistance to teachers at many different stages in their careers with a range of formal teacher preparation?

The degree to which teachers in any school, in any professional development experience, engage and benefit from learning opportunities varies. It is our sense that the FL department, for the most part, willingly engaged and many teachers seemed to show a great deal of interest in availing themselves of the conversations and readings intended to challenge them to make their curriculum more multicultural. But the degree to which some were willing or able to engage also may have been stymied by philosophical mismatches, perceived incongruities, mixed messages and drawn out discussion. This possibility is discussed next.

Department Goals and School Agenda

In the 2003-2004 academic year, the FL department at College School determined how they would focus their multicultural instruction. Together, they agreed that they wanted all of their FL students across all grades and levels to understand that “the study of language is a window into understanding the values and beliefs of a culture.” This agreed-upon focus led to the multicultural learnings, which were drawn from the FL Standards (1999), as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Alignment of FL Department's Multicultural Learnings with the FL Standards

Multicultural Learnings	FL Standards
Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied.	Standard 2.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied.
Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and perspectives of the culture studied.	Standard 2.2: Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the products and the perspectives of the culture studied.
Students acquire information and recognize the distinctive points of view that are only available through the foreign language and its culture.	Standard 3.2: Students acquire information and recognize the distinctive viewpoints that are only available through the foreign language and its cultures.
Students demonstrate an understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied with their own.	Standard 4.1: Students demonstrate an understanding of the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied with their own.
Students demonstrate an understanding of the concept of culture through comparison of the culture studied with their own.	Standard 4.2: Students demonstrate understanding of the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.
Students identify and evaluate superficial stereotypes of the culture of the language being studied.	<i>Not directly matched to the FL standards.</i>

Judging from the strong overlap with the FL standards, the learnings are mostly set within the FL field's conceptualization of culture. The last learning, however, offers an important point of discussion. This learning, focusing on stereotypes, edges into the realm of multicultural education because it can directly challenge prejudice and bias. This particular learning is squarely focused on one of the primary goals of the multicultural curriculum initiative at College School: to teach students how to take perspective and to develop skills to view the world from someone else's viewpoint.

In our interviews and surveys, the teachers frequently expressed the feeling of not always knowing what was expected of them. There are number of possible explanations, including but not limited to, teachers joining the process late, being on sabbatical, or missing key learning opportunities. Other issues expressed by the teachers dealt with the drawn out nature of the professional development at College School, depicted in Table 1 (although research in teacher development would suggest that sustained professional development is best practice (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995)). One teacher said she felt, *"frustration about how it's been presented. We've spent so much time going in circles, slowly, and I wonder, could it have gone quicker?"*

Now I feel kind of beaten down with it. It's been so long." Another teacher felt that the tasks they were asked to do were unclear. She said, "*I would say there has been a lack of consistency about how the multicultural assessment plan should look. The messages have been mixed, unclear. That is frustrating to me.*"

One explanation for these feelings of frustration is that at some point⁶ in the process, the school leadership decided that the purpose of the multicultural curriculum initiative was to promote social justice by creating a curriculum that would afford College School students opportunities to connect the new curriculum to their own personal examination of bias and prejudice. The *critical* examination of difference and raising students' awareness of their own cultural frames and biases was not, however, the aim that was salient in many teachers' minds. Understandably, this shift from implicit to explicit focus on social justice seemed to cause disequilibrium among some teachers, including FL teachers. Their carefully honed learnings (Table 2) suddenly only partially overlapped with the expectations of school. It is our contention that this mismatch between their agreed-upon learnings and what the school decided would fall within multicultural education was at the root of some of the teachers' confusion and frustration. We believe that this may be one of the reasons some of the curriculum created for the multicultural initiative was met with some criticism. It would not, for example, be sufficient to offer new curriculum that presents culture in stereotypical, monolithic or static ways. If this were to happen, teachers would be asked to revise the curriculum in ways that show how it would ask students to reflect on their own ethnic traditions and how the cultural practices, produces or perspectives are informed by the past and influenced by the present. The dissonance between what "counts" as the integration of culture into language teaching and what "counts" within a multicultural education framework seemed to cause some teachers to feel confused about what was being asked of them.

Native and Non-Native Speakers of English

The differences between the native English speaking instructors (NES), and the instructors who were native speakers of the target language, but nonnative speakers of English (NNES) were marked in some of the data. On one level, many instructors struggled with issues of using new pedagogical terminology for writing lesson plans, which they sometimes termed "jargon," in the initiative. One NNES respondent identified that terminology as a real hurdle for the other NNES teachers who were less proficient in English. This respondent stated that, even though many NNES instructors had been licensed in education in another country, they were

“very very hampered” by the American “*educational jargon*.” She appreciated the time that they were able to spend in a group where they all shared a common language (for instance, the French teachers all spoke in French together). That time in a small cooperative learning group, she stated, was really an opportunity to “*talk it out*” in the teachers’ first language. Another NNES teacher also attributed difficulty with the initiative to his status as a non-native speaker of English, stating, “*English is my second language. It is slow, and I need more thinking. This process is not very fun to me. It’s kind of difficult.*”

There was also a disparity between NES and NNES instructors due to the difference in their connection to the culture that they were teaching. Several NNES teachers mentioned struggling with representing aspects of their own culture to NES students and faculty members who sometimes were not sensitive or careful about the way that they expressed themselves. One NNES instructor described her own “*evolution as an immigrant*” as a process that had preceded the multicultural initiative at the school. In her early years as a teacher, she had a “*defensive attitude*” about teaching her culture, feeling that she was the “*torchbearer*.” However, she soon realized that she needed to invite debate with her students in order to teach more effectively. She emphasized that this change occurred in her before the multicultural initiative began. Another NNES instructor mentioned a struggle with being a representative of a minority group on the staff as the multicultural initiative took place. He stated:

On a personal level, I think that even between teachers, and within the teachers, the faculty, I think we still need to educate or let people have that kind of knowledge, to respect different races, different people. Because I’m a XXX minority in a group with people, I see... Yeah, you can see in most of the teachers and faculty at XXX since this thing has happened... I think that the teachers are more sensitive or learn in these issues, and try to learn and understand others. This is great for me, it’s easy to start or have a conversation, or talk a little about difference, or to go a little bit deeper in some issue that people want to know... Also even all this works, but still, some colleagues it’s like they’ve already set up their minds and it’s hard for them to change. But I hope that these things will make something change their mind.

This NNES teacher’s statements echo that of several NES teachers relating to working in a community of teachers who have varying levels of acceptance of the multicultural initiative. However, for him, the acceptance or lack thereof is more personal, and more related to his own identity as a minority. The NNES instructors were “*torchbearers*” in a variety of contexts during the multicultural initiative, both in the classroom and with faculty colleagues.

NES instructors did not have many statements about the difficulties that might be faced by the NNES instructors. Responses on the online surveys (where NNES status was not apparent

unless self-identified) to the question, “*During this multicultural initiative, has the fact that you are a native or nonnative speaker of the target language been an issue?*” were short: “*I think being a native speaker is important but it’s not an issue,*” and “*Yes, very much so.*” This is perhaps due to the way that the question was asked, although interviews with NES instructors indicated that, although they readily acknowledged that the NNES must have a harder time with the initiative, they did not have much to say about how or why, even when probed. Several possible conclusions can be made from this: first, that the NES instructors had never given much thought to this; or second, that they had thought about this but were uncomfortable expressing their thoughts. Both of these conclusions indicate that there is a disconnect, however minor, between the NNES and the NES instructors with regard to how NNES are experiencing the initiative.

Conclusion

As teachers learned about multicultural curriculum, some experienced a competing view of what cultural content should be in their curricula. The experience served to complicate traditional FL perspectives on teaching culture, illustrating that teaching a FL from a multiculturalist perspective may be different than from a strict disciplinary perspective. For some, teaching culture through the lens of mainstream multicultural education added a new and critical element to how they thought about both cultural content and the instruction of teaching and assessing for deeper learnings and understandings. For others, this lens already existed.

By far the most challenging hurdle teachers perceived was tracking the professional development experiences over so many years. While this sort of sustained and multifaceted professional development program is exactly what is touted as best practice in school-based reform and teacher learning (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995), this is the part of the experience teachers often cited as most challenging. Furthermore, the process did not always seem to take into consideration the particular needs of nonnative English speakers who are an invaluable asset to the modern language department yet were often left feeling unsure about how to prepare the assessment plan to meet the expectations of the curriculum or diversity committee members. A large-scale professional development initiative that is run mainly by the administrative staff may run the risk of leaving some teachers out.

This study has limitations, the most serious of which is the low participation rate of the teachers from the department. Only 6 of 12 agreed to participate in the study. Furthermore, we have interviews from only 4 because two decided to participate anonymously via an on-line survey. The study is also limited by the fact that our only data source was teachers’

interviews/surveys. Therefore it was not possible to triangulate data sources to verify findings. For example, had we obtained permission to analyze their work, we may have found congruities or incongruities between what the teachers produced with what they expressed as challenges in their task to produce new curriculum. Had we observed them teach, we may have witnessed that teachers have more skill in teaching about multicultural issues than they do in expressing what they do to an outside audience using an unfamiliar format. The addition of these additional data sources would have made this analysis much more robust and rigorous.

After this exploration, it seems that there is still work to be done at College School on the multicultural curriculum. Curriculum work in general is never completed – there are always needs to adjust or enhance what students learn according to changing times. However, it seems that when teachers engage in the much more challenging work of curriculum *transformation* that aims to integrate new and different perspectives, narratives, documents, images, and self-examinations into an already rigorous academic program, the process is an even greater negotiation of what is and what could be.

Next steps, which we see as having great potential, have been moving toward more departmental control over the multicultural education conversation. It will be very productive for department heads to devise content- and department-specific plans for talking about, reading about, and doing multicultural curriculum transformation. The FL department is well-poised to discuss, share and debate how FL educators do multicultural education across languages and grade levels. These conversations may be facilitated by Abu El-Haj's reminder that "schools are important sites for change, hope, and possibility, but they do not float free of the broad inequalities embedded in our larger society" (2006, p. 6) and that "although schools cannot solve the problems of injustice in our society, they continue to be important sites for social activism – places where a range of justice claims are deliberated and negotiated in and through everyday practices" (2006, p. 200). College School took up the challenge of questioning their curricular status quo and most teachers came to the table willing to participate in the dialogue, to deliberate and negotiate. And although the learning needs of all of the teachers were not necessarily addressed all of the time, this brave step toward curricular transformation can serve as a model for ways other programs may begin the conversation about what multicultural education looks like in FL classrooms.

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Notes

¹ This is a pseudonym.

² The work by Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe is widely used in K-12 schools to engage teachers in thinking about their assessment practices and the links between assessment, curriculum, and instruction. The basic tenet of the approach is *backward design*, which first asks the teacher to define what are the most important “learnings” and “understandings” in their curriculum, consider what counts as evidence of understanding and finally teach for understanding and then create lessons to achieve this end.

³ The term “minoritized” is useful as an adjective or passive voice construction because it suggests that it is the sociopolitical or historical context that marginalizes or “others” people rather than something unquestioned or inherent in a particular group as in “minority group.”

⁴ The description of the participants is intentionally aggregated in order to preserve anonymity. This is also appropriate because the bounded unit of the case is the department, not the individual.

⁵ Our inductive approach to qualitative data analysis involved systematic reading and coding of the transcripts for the purpose of finding themes important to the participants. A deductive approach was used later as we examined the related literature on the research topic and checked for whether we should add coding categories to our coding protocol.

⁶ We recall a meeting in 2003 when the entire faculty engaged in peer review of their plans. They were explicitly asked to check each others’ ideas for the following: “Does the assessment plan explicitly address multicultural learning and understandings (e.g., biases, prejudice reduction, knowledge construction, multiple perspectives, cultural assumptions)? If so, where and how?”

Program Assessment Based on Second Language Teacher Education Standards

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This paper provides a model for how to conduct a language teacher education program evaluation that is tied to professional organization standards. Using the NCATE/TESOL teacher education program assessment procedure as a scaffold, the faculty of an ESL teacher education program at Hamline University created a performance-based assessment system that included both formative and summative assessment. The author describes the assessment instruments the faculty created, the data collected and the evaluation of those data. She also discusses how the assessment is used to drive program change. Readers can use the assessment procedures and instruments as a model to create assessment of their own teacher education programs.

One of the most dramatic changes in education in the past decade has been the rapid rise in the number of English Language Learners (ELLs) in the United States schools. According to state-reported data gathered by the Office of English Language Acquisition and the National Center for Educational Statistics in the 10-year period between 1990 and 2000, the ELL population grew at a rate of 104.97%. This staggering growth is *five times* that of the total enrollment in public schools over the same period. ELLs now make up 10.7% of kindergarten through 12th grade (K-12) school enrollment (Strizek, Pittsonberger, Riordan, Lyter, & Orlofsky, 2006), and growth in the population is expected to continue. Projections indicate that by 2030, school-aged children whose first language is not English will comprise an estimated 40% of the K-12-age population in the U.S. (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

The future of these students, as well as the future of the nation, depend on schools to provide an education that is accessible and appropriate for them. To secure suitable programming for ELLs, teacher education programs need to have high standards that ensure that all teachers are prepared to teach students with limited English proficiency. It is perhaps even more important that English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers specifically have a rigorous and appropriate preparation, as the ESL teachers, more often than not, are the leaders who help shape programming for ELLs in schools. To address the full range of academic needs of ELLs, ESL teachers need to be experts in social and academic language acquisition and know how to collaborate with the school curriculum, which includes a wide range of subjects. With their professional guidance, schools can develop programs where the ESL specialist and the

mainstream teachers work together to provide a broad, rigorous, and accessible education (Genessee, 2003).

Background

Teacher Education Program Assessment

In order for any teacher to be well qualified to teach children in general and ELLs specifically, they must be well prepared professionally. The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 2006), founded in 1954, works with teacher education programs to improve teacher preparation. Traditionally, NCATE worked with professional development courses taken by all teachers (such as educational psychology or social and philosophical foundations of education), and over the years it has developed performance-based measures to assess these. In recent years, NCATE has also started working in tandem with content-area professional organizations (in NCATE parlance, Specialized Professional Associations or SPAs). The SPA partner for the ESL teaching profession is Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL, 2003), the international professional organization of ESL teachers, and NCATE and TESOL together provide ESL licensure programs with the framework and process to conduct a program evaluation and apply for National Recognition status from the NCATE/TESOL partnership. The American Council on Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL, 2002) has a similar relationship with NCATE for the purpose of evaluating foreign language teacher education programs.

Assessment of ESL Teacher Education Programs

While the ESL profession has sought to address the issue of teacher preparation for a number of years (TESOL, 1984), program effectiveness (Fradd & Lee, 1997; Fradd & Lee, 1998) has gained attention in the literature more recently. Fradd and Lee's 1997 research focuses on the importance of teachers' voice in program evaluation and improvement while their 1998 article addresses TESOL's development of the knowledge base of ESL teacher education. The seminal article by theorists Freeman and Johnson (1998) argues for a broader epistemological approach to the knowledge base of teacher education that addresses the act of teaching itself rather than the older process-product, received knowledge paradigm. However, Freeman and Johnson's theoretical framework does not directly address the assessment of their proposed approaches to teacher education. Crandall's (2000) overview of language teacher education discusses how it, in reflection of teacher education in general, has shifted from product-oriented

approaches to a more constructivist approach that emphasizes the importance of teacher cognition and beliefs, the role of reflection, teacher narratives and case studies, the role of practical experience, and the role of research. Crandall also addresses how the assessment of language teacher education programs has become more central to performance assessment of the teacher candidates. Once TESOL started working with the teacher education accrediting agency, NCATE , a systematic assessment system of language teachers education programs began to be implemented on a cross institutional basis.

The Assessment System Created by NCATE/TESOL

To assess the effectiveness of teacher education programs, it has been NCATE's philosophy that those programs undergo assessment that consists of a comprehensive and integrated set of ongoing evaluation measures that monitor teacher candidate performance and manage and improve the teacher education program. The assessment system should be based on a set of research-based performance standards, preferably ones set by the profession, and based on informed opinions of experts in the field. Performance standards are clear descriptions of what a teacher candidate knows and is able to actually do (NCATE, 2006).

The evaluation must determine whether the program has been successful in teaching candidates to apply what they have learned in their university licensure courses to their instruction of K-12 students, and to attempt to determine whether students are indeed learning as a result of that instruction. (In NCATE parlance, and for the purposes of this paper, a "candidate" is the person pursuing teacher licensure. A "student" is a pre-kindergarten through 12th grade student). The program also must show that it responds to and improves the instruction of pre-kindergarten -12th grade students as a result of the findings from that assessment (NCATE, 2006).

In order to make determinations about whether a program is leading to an education that is effective, teacher education programs need to set up an evaluation system. Ingersoll and Scannell (2002, pp. 5-6) who work in conjunction with NCATE, state that the premises behind such a system include:

1. Teacher behaviors and skills derive from and are consonant with the conceptual framework that forms the basis for the program.
2. Some foundational knowledge may be assessed using traditional standardized testing measures, but such measures must be complemented by a variety of performance-based measures, formative and summative.

3. Effective demonstration of the qualifications of a teacher candidate for licensure will require continuous or at least frequent assessment of performance across the entire professional preparation program.
4. Assessments distinguish between candidates who do and do not meet the standards for competence, and recommendation for licensure result directly from the candidates' satisfactory demonstration of competence in program standards.

Purpose of this Study

In this paper, I will describe how one K-12 ESL teacher education program met the challenge of the program review monitored by TESOL in conjunction with NCATE by exemplifying how it is possible to conform to the above mentioned principles established by Ingersoll and Scannell. After a short discussion of the setting and the best practice-based standards used by TESOL that serves as our conceptual framework, I will share how the standards are embedded in the coursework we provide. Then I will present a sampling of the ongoing formal and informal assessments that we designed to show that students were meeting standards. I will also describe how data were collected, aggregated, analyzed, and presented. Finally, I will show how data were used to make both program and assessment system improvements. Although I will be discussing one particular school's program, this paper should be of interest to others who would like to assess second language teacher education program quality and learn how to make assessment-based improvement decisions. Those institutions that are preparing foreign language rather than ESL teachers may also consider using similar standards developed by the American Council on Teaching Foreign Language (2002).

Method

The Setting

Located in the Twin Cities of St. Paul and Minneapolis in Minnesota, the home for our ESL program is the Center for Second Language Teaching and Learning (SLTL) in the School of Education at Hamline University. The Twin Cities and Minnesota in general reflect the demographic trends in the nation as a whole, with a growth rate in the ELL population of 136.9% between the 1995/6 and 2005/6 school years (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2008). Along with providing ESL and bilingual licensure preparation, the program has a variety of certificates related to teaching English in various settings for children and adults, as well as an MA in ESL. The program, which has both online and on-campus options, serves approximately 400 teacher candidates and in-service teachers a year. Most of the

teacher candidates and teachers live in the Twin Cities area, but a substantial portion take online classes from other parts of the state, as well as other states and countries.

Minnesota has an ESL teacher licensure rule (Minnesota Department of Education, 2001), which is a set of standards that all Minnesota K-12 ESL teacher education programs must address. However, our program faculty considered it to be out of date, so when we decided we wanted to undergo a rigorous review of our program, it made sense to align those licensure rule standards with the more current TESOL standards (2003) for pre-K- 12 (prekindergarten through 12th grade) teacher education programs, and then base the assessment on the TESOL standards. In addition to the feedback for improvement that the program assessment provides, we were also hoping that the process would lead to national recognition status that is granted jointly by NCATE and TESOL. National recognition status is an indication to stakeholders that the program is of high quality, reflective, and uses assessment data for improvement.

Designing an Assessment System

A teacher education program assessment system needs to be based on best practice (Best & Kahn, 2006). For an already established program such as ours, best practice was addressed in the following manner. The research team needed to:

1. Choose rigorous, research-based performance standards which describe what a teacher candidate knows and is able to actually do (TESOL, 2003);
2. Examine coursework for relevancy to the standards, and embed the standards into the courses that will make up the program;
3. Design a comprehensive and integrated set of evaluation measures that will show whether the program graduates are meeting the standards. These measures include formative course assessments that demonstrate student mastery of standards for each course, and summative assessments for student mastery of standards for the program as a whole.
4. Create rubrics to assess candidates' work.
5. Collect and aggregate data from the assessments.
6. Study the data to determine program strengths and weaknesses.
7. Modify the program to address weaknesses and further develop strengths as necessary (Best & Kahn, 2006).

The assessment cycle needs to be ongoing and include as many of the stakeholders in the process as possible (NCATE, 2006). Faculty need to actively participate in the development of the program assessment, construction of evaluation tools, collection and analysis of data, and the process of improvement. *Teaching candidates* need to understand the assessment system and how

their course work relates to standards. And as much as possible, stakeholders in the schools such as *principals* and *ESL coordinators* need to be involved in the evaluation process. Our assessment project was designed to tap these stakeholders as much as possible.

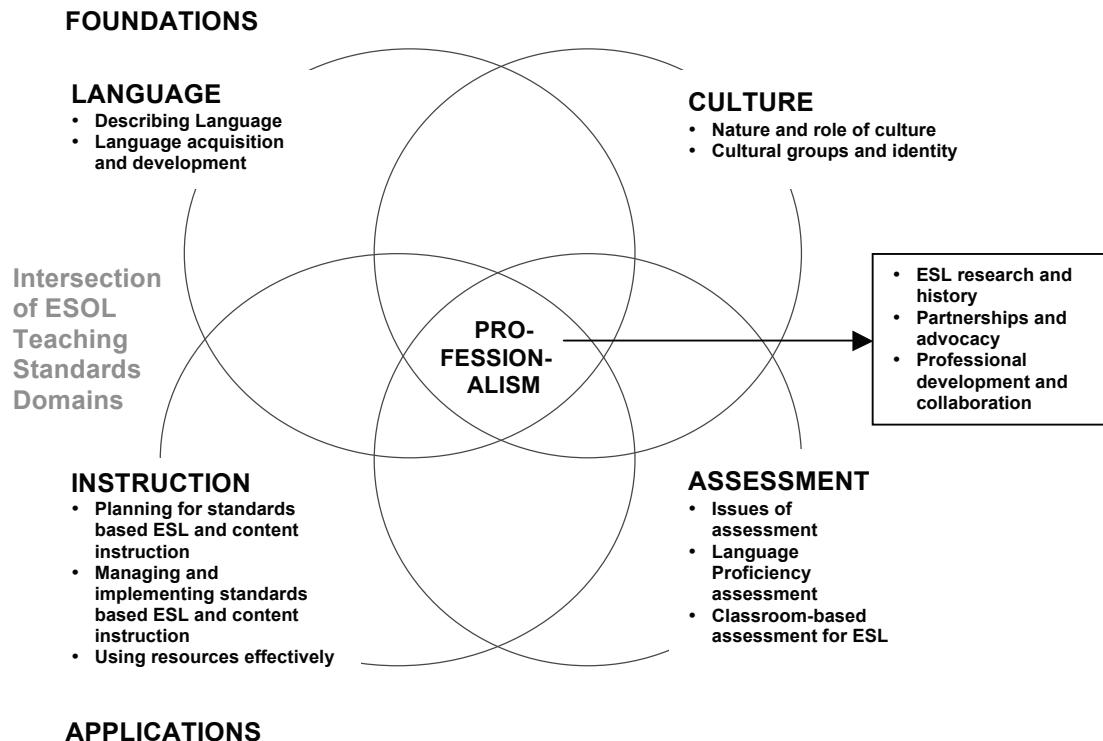
The TESOL Standards

Step one of Best and Kahn's (2006) best practice guidelines require that we choose rigorous, research-based performance standards which describe what a teacher candidate knows and is able to actually do. In our field, such standards are provided by TESOL (2003). The TESOL pre-K- 12 teacher licensure standards (informed by 3,700 experts in the field), consists of five intersecting domains: language, culture, instruction, assessment, and professionalism. The specific standards are:

- 1a. Describing Language
- 1b. Language Acquisition
- 2a. Nature and Role of Culture
- 2b. Cultural Groups and Identity
- 3a. Planning for Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction
- 3b. Managing and Implementing Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction
- 3c. Using Resources Effectively in ESL Instruction
- 4a. Issues of Assessment for ESL
- 4b. Language Proficiency Assessment
- 4c. Classroom-Based Assessment for ESL
- 5a. ESL Research and History
- 5b. Partnerships and Advocacy
- 5c. Professional Development and Collaboration.

The figure on the following page shows how the domains intersect. Each domain includes the specific standards listed above.

Figure 1: TESOL Domains and Standards (TESOL 2003, p. 16, reprinted with permission)



Embedding the Standards into the Curriculum

Step two from Best and Kahn's (2006) guidelines for program evaluation state that we must examine coursework for relevancy to the standards, and embed the standards into the courses that will make up the program Table 1 shows how faculty aligned the standards align with the coursework in our program.

Table 1: Alignment of Program Courses and TESOL Standards

Course	TESOL Standard
Linguistics for Language Teachers (pragmatics, semantics, syntax, morphology, phonetics and phonology)	1a. Describing Language
Basics of Modern English (English grammar)	1a. Describing Language
History of English (historical development of the English language)	1a. Describing Language
Second Language Acquisition (SLA- theory and research on how languages are learned)	1b. Language Acquisition 2a. Nature and Role of Culture 5b. Partnerships and Advocacy
Language and Society (sociolinguistics and working with the bilingual community)	2a. Nature and Role of Culture 2b. Cultural Groups and Identity 5b. Partnerships and Advocacy
Development of Literacy in a Second Language (Clinical) (how to teach reading and writing in a second language, academic literacy skills)	1a. Describing Language 1b. Language Acquisition 3a. Planning for Standards-Based Instruction 3b. Managing Standards-Based Instruction 3c. Using Resources Effectively 4b. Language Proficiency Assessment 4c. Classroom-Based Assessment
Testing and Evaluation (Clinical) (language proficiency assessment, academic achievement assessment, special education issues)	4a. Issues of Assessment 4b. Language Proficiency Assessment 4c. Classroom-Based Assessment
Methods (Clinical) (historical teaching methodology, standards-based instruction, aligning instruction and assessment, sheltered instruction, collaboration with the mainstream)	1a. Describing Language 1b. Language Acquisition 3a. Planning for Standards-Based Instruction 3b. Managing Standards-Based Instruction 3c. Using Resources Effectively 4b. Language Proficiency Assessment 4c. Classroom-Based Assessment 5a. ESL Research and History 5b. Partnerships and Advocacy 5c. Professional Dev. and Collaboration
Student Teaching and Portfolio Exit Interview	All Standards

After examining the standards, the faculty decided that the courses we were already offering were appropriate matches for the standards, so we decided not to change the sequence of courses.

TESOL also provides sample performance indicators, and assessment must be designed by the teacher education program to show that teacher licensure candidates are approaching, meeting or exceeding standards. Performance indicators need to align with standards, a particular class that addresses those standards, an assignment addressing the standards, and an assessment of those standards. Table 2 shows how the standard 4b, Language Proficiency Assessment, a performance indicator, course, class assignment, and assessment of that class assignment align.

Table 2: Alignment of Standard, Performance Indicator, Course, and Course Assignment

Standard 4b. Language Proficiency Assessment
Performance Indicator 4b1. Understand and implement national and state requirements for identification, reclassification and exit of ESOL students from language support programs.
Course ESL 7753 Testing and Evaluation
Assignment: Design an assessment system for the site where you teach which will measure whether English language learners are ready to exit from ESL support services. (See complete instructions for assignment in Appendix A.)

As with all assessment tied explicitly to course material, the same assessment serves as both a summative assessment for the course (ESL 7753 Testing and Evaluation) and a formative assessment for the program. When the instructor sees the strengths and weaknesses displayed by student performance on the assignment, she can use that information to alter and improve her instruction. When we see weaknesses related to a standard across the program, we can take steps to improve the program as a whole.

The sample performance indicators pointed to a few gaps in the program, and we went through a process of changing assignments and assessments to address them. For example, we had little related to post-licensure professional development expectations in our program (TESOL standard 5c), and therefore added a professional development plan assignment that candidates complete just before exiting the program.

Tracking Candidate Performance on Standards-Related Assessments

In order for data to be useful for program improvement purposes, there must be a system for tracking it and aggregating it (Best and Kahn's step five). At our university, the technology support services helped to set up an electronic grade book that instructors use to enter data about student performance. It tracks the course along with candidate performance on the standards-related assessments. From it we can get a picture of individual candidate performance on a particular standard, which is often addressed in more than one course, as well as a picture of how our teaching candidates as a group are performing. We can also track group performance over time. When our candidates as a group show lower performance levels on a particular standard, we can improve the program to address the weakness.

Summative Assessment: ESL Subject Test (Praxis II)

Along with performing well in their coursework and in student teaching, teacher candidates have to pass a standardized test (Praxis II) in their content area. The test for teachers of English to speakers of other languages developed by Educational Testing Services (Educational Testing Services, 2008) in conjunction with TESOL, is the one that is required in our state as well as many others. The ESL Praxis II test is a summative evaluation of the type mentioned by Best and Kahn (2006) in step three, Table 3 shows how the topics addressed in this standardized multiple-choice test align with the TESOL standards.

Table 3: Alignment of Praxis II Test and TESOL Standards

Praxis II	TESOL Standards
Linguistic Theory	1a. Describing Language
Analysis of Student Language Production	1b. Language Acquisition
Teaching Methods and Techniques	3a. Planning Instruction 3b. Managing Instruction
Assessment Techniques and Cultural Issues	2. Culture 4. Assessment
Professional Issues	5. Professionalism

Because the Praxis II test is not a performance indicator, it can only measure that candidates have knowledge of the subject matter; it does not assess their ability to teach. However, it is a valuable tool outside of the university program that can be used to triangulate with our own assessments. Table 4 shows sample data collected on our teaching candidates

from several years ago. Since that time, ETS has started to provide us with candidates' performance on each individual section of the test, which helps us to identify particular areas in which our students are weaker, again giving us information that we can use to improve the program. We are also able to break down whether the candidates are among the students getting an initial license in ESL, or getting an additional license in ESL. Additional license candidates are already practicing teachers who are adding an ESL credential to their original teaching license, whereas ESL is the first teaching credential for initial license candidates. Although we did not carry out a statistical analysis, it is interesting to note that the experienced teachers actually seemed to perform less well than those new to the profession on this exam. We suspect that the latter group viewed the test more seriously and studied harder, as all candidates had the same ESL content classes.

Table 4: Praxis II Test Results: Test of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

	# of candidates	Average score	# of failures	% passing
Initial license candidates	44	757	0	100
Additional license candidates	48	720	1	98

Summative Assessment: Exit Portfolio

In addition to the quantitative measures reflected in grades and the standardized Praxis II test, we were able to take a more in-depth look at each candidate's performance through the portfolio process. The portfolio provides another summative assessment of the type required by step three of Best and Kahn's outline for program evaluation. For each standard (see pages 9-10 for a list of all of the standards), candidates were asked to prepare a portfolio which included evidence through papers, curriculum units, and projects that they had learned about the standard. This assessment takes place at the very end of the program, after all requirements are fulfilled. Table 5 shows a small sample of the coversheet of their portfolio, along with the names of the assignments used by one candidate.

Table 5: Sample of Cover Sheet for Standards Portfolio

1a. Describing Language (standard)
ESL 7519 Linguistics for Language Teachers (course)
<i>Pragmatics Paper</i> (assignment)
ESL 7650 Basics of Modern English (course)
<i>Grammar Pedagogy Assignment</i> (assignment)

Candidates also had to be prepared to explain during an hour-long interview with a professor how they actually were able to apply the knowledge they gained related to each standard during their teaching. A typical question the professor might ask would be, “How were you able to apply the knowledge you have about SLA to your teaching? Give me some specific examples.” Based on the student’s answers and portfolio evidence, the professor then rated each student according the NCATE/TESOL designations as *approaches*, *meets* or *exceeds*. *Approaches standard*, according to both NCATE and TESOL’s definition, indicates that a candidate has knowledge about the subject, but has not yet been able to apply that knowledge to teaching in the classroom. *Meets standard* indicates that the candidate can apply the knowledge of the standard to teaching and other professional settings. *Exceeds standard* indicates that the candidate consistently outperforms the average teacher candidate, and has taken on a leadership role related to the standard (TESOL 2003, p. 16). The resulting rubric heeds Best and Kahn’s step four to develop assessment rubric.

The *exceeds* rating was used exclusively for candidates who displayed knowledge and dispositions beyond level of novice ESL teacher. Candidates receiving *exceeds* were few in number, and without exception showed evidence of having taken a leadership role related to the particular standard. For example, the candidates who had given workshops on second language acquisition to their colleagues at schools, or those who planned cultural nights for the families of ELLs received ratings of *exceeds* on the related standards.

Also adding to the final portfolio assessment was student teaching supervisor assessment on standards. Student teacher supervisors are ESL professionals who have at least an MA and are experienced ESL teachers and teacher mentors. Often they are recent retirees who want to use their years of experience to help teaching candidates be successful. Their job is to help the candidates reflect on their instruction right after their observations. The time of the student teaching experience varies considerably, depending upon the candidate’s previous teaching experience, from 16 weeks (eight weeks elementary and eight weeks secondary) for candidates

with no previous independent experience teaching in any subject, to three weeks for candidates who are getting a additional license and have already taught at least two years in ESL. See Appendix B for an example of the student teaching assessment form, and an example of the rubrics that Best and Kahn's step four requires.

The data in Table 6 represent a small sampling of the results from the portfolio assessment gathered from 37 program completers during the first year of our assessment system. The first number under each category indicates the number of candidates who received a particular rating, and the second number indicates the percentage of the total number of students rated.

Table 6: Results from the Exit Portfolio Assessment N=37

Standard	Approaches		Meets		Exceeds	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
4a. Issues of Assessment	1	3%	33	89%	3	8%
4b. Language Proficiency Assessment	6	16%	28	76%	3	8%
4c. Classroom-based Assessment	3	8%	31	84%	3	8%

It became clear when we reviewed these aggregated data that standard 4b, language proficiency assessment, was a weakness of the program, as 16% of the candidates were not getting a rating of *meets*. This information led us to make some changes in the course related to assessment. We added a clinical, a chance to practice administering language proficiency assessments to children, which would ensure that every candidate received experience with language proficiency assessment. For those students who would not get experience in language proficiency assessment as a part of their student teaching, we provided a clinical with one of the district's ESL coordinators who, after a training session she conducted, engaged their help in the assessment of parochial students. Subsequent portfolio assessment data indicate that our teaching candidates almost always receive a rating of "meets" on this standard now.

Formative Assessment: Planning for Instruction (Standard 3a)

In addition to summative assessments, the program evaluation must also include formative assessments (step three from Best and Kahn's list). Among our formative assessments

are different curriculum units that are required during the course of the program. Table 7 compares the data from curriculum units in an early course to that of a later course in the licensure program. All of the courses in the program have practical application components that relate to teaching students. The early course, Language and Society, asked students to write an adapted content area lesson plan that takes the needs of ELLs into consideration. The later ESL Methods course requires students to plan standards-based instruction that considers the purpose of instruction and aligns objectives with assessment. The results were heartening to us, as candidates appeared to be improving on their curriculum assignments as they progressed through the program. All of the 55 students performed well during the last class, as shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Assessment Data from Curriculum Units

Assessment	Approaches (below 80%)		Meets (80-89%)		Exceeds (90-100%)	
	#	%	#	%	#	%
Adapted Materials and Procedures (early course: language and society)	12	21%	3	5%	41	73%
Secondary Content Lesson	0	0%	1	2%	53	98%

Assessment from Student Teaching

In keeping with Best and Kahn's third step related to creating a comprehensive and integrated set of evaluation measures, it was also important to get perspectives on the candidates' actual performance during their students teaching. They were evaluated by both their cooperating teachers in the public schools and their university supervisors. Table 8 identifies areas of strength and weakness as assessed by the cooperating teachers and supervisors. The two areas identified as weak in this assessment were the teaching of oral skills, and all areas of assessment. Subsequently, we strengthened the oral language instruction component of the ESL Methods course, including both attention to stress and intonation instruction and academic language functions. The weakness in assessment was addressed by adding the assessment clinical mentioned previously, and a renewed emphasis on the alignment of classroom assessment with language and content objectives of daily instruction in the ESL Methods course.

Table 8: Data from Cooperating Teachers and University Supervisors

	TESOL Standards
Strength areas	1a. Describing Language; 1b. Language Acquisition; 3a., b. Managing and Implementing Instruction
Adequate	All other standards
Need Improvement (20% approach)	3b. Managing Instruction (Speaking skills) 4. (All areas of Assessment)

Assessing K-12 Student Learning During Student Teaching

One of the challenges posed by NCATE/TESOL is to show that our teacher candidates have a positive effect on their students' learning (TESOL, 2003). This directive supports the first principle outlined by Best and Kahn demanding we show what teachers can actually do, and also demands corroborating data from student performance. Because of all the confounding factors in the lives of school children, we found this directive challenging.

The way we decided to meet it was to design a curriculum unit assignment to be completed during student teaching that focused on assessment. Candidates were reminded that all professionals in education track student learning. We then asked them to pay particular attention to the assessment of student learning in their student teaching placement. They were required to develop a content-based unit that they actually teach and is at least five lessons in length. They provided lesson plans and materials based on expectations/format set out in the ESL Methods course. The assessment portion of the assignment had these special instructions:

1. Select one or more of the language objectives from your unit.
2. Develop and describe your pre-assessment of the selected objective(s). Include a copy of any assessment tool that you used.
3. Describe formative (during instruction) assessment that you do.
4. Describe your final, or summative assessment, including a copy of any tool that you used.
5. Aggregate student results and report them.
6. Reflect on how students have responded in comparison to your expectations.
7. What modifications might you make if you were to teach this unit again?

Appendix C shows the data that we accumulated after evaluating this assignment. The sample is small, but indicates that most candidates were able to show clearly that their students were making progress as a result of their instruction.

Self Assessment: The Professional Development Plan

TESOL standard 5c addresses professional development and collaboration. Although we already had measures of collaboration through the student teaching evaluations, we did not have any measure of candidates' plans to continue their professional development after licensure before we decided to undergo the evaluation of our program. Therefore, we decided to add a self -assessment assignment related to professional development to keep in line with Best and Kahn's third step. First we asked candidates to use a Likert scale to assess their ability to address the following language issues in their teaching:

Oral Skills (pronunciation, error correction, speaking, listening)

Pragmatics

Semantics

Sociolinguistics

Grammar

Spelling

Learning to read and reading to learn

Writing (process, error correction)

Coordinating with the mainstream curriculum

Teaching language through content

Language used in math

Other (areas identified by candidate)

Then we asked them to write a professional development plan for the next two years. The professional development plans are prose descriptions of approximately three pages. The plan required that they reflect on their areas of strength as well as areas in which they wish to become more competent. Finally, they had to make a list of goals, and plans to reach those goals. Each of the plans was discussed with a faculty member during the exit interview. The plans were then assessed for completion using the following rubric (following Best and Kahn's step four) in Table 9:

Table 9: Rubric to Assess Professional Development Plans

Task	yes	no
1. Completion of self assessment 2. Reflection on strengths 3. Reflection on weaknesses 4. List of goals 5. Plan to reach goals 6. Steps towards goal already taken		
Approaches	Completion of tasks 1-4 and awareness of professional org.	
Meets	Completion of tasks 1-5 and membership in professional org.	
Exceeds	Completion of tasks 1- 6 and active member in professional org. or engages in professional development	

Table 10 shows the data for the professional development plan over the course of three semesters. As the data indicate, over time we were preparing candidates better for this assessment.

Table 10: Data for Professional Development Plan

	Approaches Standard	Meets Standard	Exceeds Standard
Fall 2003, N=5	0%	60%	40%
Spring 2004, N=8	0%	75%	25%
Summer 2004, N= 24	0%	83%	17%

Philosophy of Education Assessment

In compliance with Best and Kahn's third step requiring a variety of assessments, NCATE/TESOL requires that we assess students' philosophy of education as part of our evaluation system. It is common in teacher licensure programs for students to reflect on their philosophy of education in general, but we wanted to use an assessment that was specific to teaching English as a second language. To do this, we used a paper assignment that was part of the Second Language Acquisition class. The assignment is worded as follows:

Compare and contrast the positions of behaviorism and innatism in terms of language acquisition. What are the implications of this difference for second language teaching? Based on the readings we have done, how would you

characterize the role of L1 in L2 acquisition? Discuss your approach to language teaching based on what you have studied in this class.

The assignment was scored using the professor's standard rubric for this particular assignment, and the results were available via the electronic grade book described above. The average student score for the assignment in the academic year 2003-4 was 93%.

Other Assessments

In addition to the formal and informal, qualitative assessments described above, we engaged in a few additional measures with the goal of finding out as much as we could about our program, again following Best and Kahn's third step. After the candidates passed their exit interview and were done with all of their requirements, we asked them through an informal interview what they wished they had known before student teaching, and what areas they found difficult on the Praxis II ESL subject test. The most common responses from the exit interview had to do with being familiar with mainstream curricula and working collaboratively with mainstream teachers. To help students with the collaboration piece, we bring teachers who have collaborated successfully in as guest speakers in the ESL Methods class.

Reports about the Praxis test had to do with reviewing the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) so that they can read transcriptions of student speech, knowing the details of legal cases related to ESL education, and being familiar with historical teaching methods. We help students review these items through a quiz game in the ESL Methods class and by reminders to review what was covered in class before taking the test.

We also sent out a survey to alumni asking them how well they felt our university prepared them for their jobs. The program was rated highly by teachers, but a few mentioned a lack of preparation in classroom management. Since the concern was addressed by only a few, we subsequently addressed it by providing voluntary seminars on classroom management that were held on a Saturday. Finally, and also very important, we recorded faculty perceptions about the quality of the program through minutes taken at faculty meeting. We continue to do this through a written faculty survey every few years.

Evaluation of the Data

Best and Kahn's steps 5 and 6 require that we collect and aggregate the data from the candidates' assessments, and then make conclusions about program strengths and weaknesses.

Elliot (2001, 2003) presents a clear plan for aggregating and interpreting the data that are collected to assess teacher education programs. He stresses that because data should be a true representation of the proficiencies related to standards of all candidates, they should be summarized in quantitative and qualitative terms. Faculty need to be involved in the process in an ongoing basis and take the time each year to reflect on the findings. It also needs to be clear how those findings lead to program improvement. In the case of our university, the School of Education faculty, including our department faculty, devotes a day in January to program assessment. Additional time is devoted to evaluation during monthly faculty meetings. In both cases, the faculty examine the data, identify strengths and weaknesses, and then plan how to address the weaknesses through changes in the program.

Program Modifications Resulting from Evaluation of the Assessments

Step seven of Best and Kahn's principles for program evaluation requires that the program make improvements based on the assessments. As a result of our ongoing evaluation of the data, we discovered that our ESL teacher candidates were doing quite well in relation to most of the standards that we used to measure their performance. However, during our first annual review we identified a number of issues, and subsequently made program changes to address them.

1. On the basis of exit portfolio interview and supervisor evaluations, some candidates' assessment skills were deemed weak. This finding was a surprise to us, as our candidates take a course in assessment, and we did not realize that it was not adequate. This discovery led to the addition of a clinical in language proficiency assessment where candidates worked with an ESL district coordinator to assess language proficiency of parochial school students under her purview. Also, the ESL Methods course paid more attention to the connection between content and language objectives in lesson planning and classroom assessment in the program. The Testing and Evaluation class also added a classroom assessment textbook with related assignments.
2. On the basis of the self-assessment that is part of the professional development plan, and the student teaching evaluations completed by cooperating teachers, some candidates showed a weakness in teaching oral skills. In response, faculty decided to put renewed emphasis on teaching oral skills in linguistics, SLA, and methods classes by teaching how to address intelligibility issues through stress and intonation practice, and how to address academic language functions through oral language. We also developed an advanced level, post-licensure class in the pedagogical applications of phonetics and phonology. This class is required of our MA in ESL candidates, and can be taken by others with permission.

3. The alumni survey we sent out indicated that some graduates felt underprepared in classroom management. This insecurity was not an ESL teacher specific issue, and not true for all, as many of our candidates have had years of teaching experience. Our solution was to partner with other education programs at the university and offer free, voluntary classroom management seminars for current and former university students who felt they needed them.
4. There was a heavy emphasis on the Praxis II test on historical methods and knowledge of the International Phonetic Alphabet. Student data, both from the tests scores and post-exit interview reports from candidates, indicated that students felt that they were underprepared to answer these questions. Since both were covered in the program in several different classes, we decided to use a quiz game in ESL Methods for review, and to remind students to review these topics on their own before taking the exam.
5. The issue that was of greatest concern to faculty, because it is so crucial for delivering sound ESL instruction, was a weakness in some candidates' ability to formulate content-linked language objectives. Evidence for this concern came from work sampling, lesson and curriculum assignments, and from faculty perception. Although the final data from the curriculum assignments show that all students meet this requirement, their success was sometimes accomplished by rewriting assignments after getting faculty feedback.

Discussions about all of the above issues, but especially the last one, are long, in-depth, and ongoing. The faculty has decided to address content-based language instruction throughout program, starting with information sessions for prospective teaching candidates. All courses, including more theoretical courses such as linguistics, now discuss language objectives and their connection to content instruction. The methods courses give extensive practice in developing content-linked language objectives, and the concept is reviewed during the student teaching seminar.

Benefits of Doing a Program Review

The decision to undergo a program review by TESOL was voluntary on the part of our faculty. Language teacher education faculty have always paid attention to their courses, and have had a strong desire to present the best program possible for our teaching candidates. The high need of the K-12 students to have highly qualified teachers has always driven our passion.

However, following Ingersoll and Scannell's (2002) principles of program evaluation allowed us to see weaknesses and strengths that were not obvious before. It was not until we followed and set up a systematic data collection system that was connected to standards that we were able to go beyond professional judgment and make program decisions based on real data. It is also a system that we can continue to use to make improvements. And, when appropriate,

we can use the results of the assessment to lobby the University for additional resources such as funding for seminars on classroom management.

Because of the intense involvement of teaching candidates and faculty alike in our assessment system, we feel great pride in our accomplishments. We feel that we facilitate excellent language teacher education, and that our graduates go on to provide the best education possible to the growing number of ELLs in the K-12 school system. TESOL also affirmed our efforts by granting us National Recognition status in 2005. Another result of this endeavor is that the Dean of the School of Education has requested that we assist our colleagues in other licensure areas in setting up similar assessment systems, and thus we hope to influence the quality of all licensure programs.

Since we have seen the benefits to our teaching candidates of making improvements based on data collection in the licensure program, we are extending what we have learned to assessing our MA in ESL. The MA starts with the licensure program, but continues with advanced coursework in linguistics, phonetics and phonology, advocacy for ELLs, research methodology, and a thesis. The assessment is based on program outcomes that we established at the creation of the MA in ESL, and follow the same principles (Best & Kahn, 2006) described earlier. Through both the licensure and MA assessment efforts, we trust that we will continue to improve the education of the teachers who work with us, and trust that they in turn will improve the education of the ELLs they serve.

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Appendix A

Final Exam for ESL 7753 Testing and Evaluation Class

Design an assessment system for the site (an entire school) where you teach which will measure whether English language learners are ready to exit from ESL support services.

Background (2 points for answer #1, 3 points for answer #2)

1. What is the nature of your student body (countries of origin, length of time in the US, age, educational background in L1 and L2)
2. What is the purpose of your program? In other words, what is your job?

Your Assessment System (7 points for each answer)

1. What do students need to know/and or be able to do in order to succeed in the mainstream? In your answer, define "success in the mainstream". What are the linguistic and sociolinguistic competencies that students need to master to be successful? Comment on the draft ELP standards and how they might help you design your program.
2. Comment on the merits of formal assessment instruments that are available for assessing ESL student performance. Which instruments might you use? Which might you reject? Include discussions of psychometric concepts that are relevant in making these decisions. What will the role of the MNTEAE test be? Make sure you distinguish between academic achievement testing and language proficiency testing in your discussion.
3. Comment on the merits of informal assessment instruments and background information forms that might be used for measuring student performance. Include a discussion of how such an assessment might be structured to provide useful information. Include the names of specific informal assessment instruments that would be appropriate for your setting. Comment on reliability and validity in informal assessment. How can you be sure that your informal assessment is valid and reliable? What scores or criteria will you use on these instruments to determine that students are ready to exit?
4. How will you use the information gained from 2 and 3 to decide ultimately whether the student is ready to perform in the academic and/or work setting without support? How will you make sure that all the stakeholders receive the information they need? What will you do to monitor student progress after they leave ESL?
5. Design a chart that you would include in each student's portfolio which visually reflects your assessment system.

Grading

I will be looking for:

- a. an understanding of how ESL students learn
- b. an understanding of the demands made on students in the mainstream
- c. an understanding of psychometric concepts (reliability, validity, authenticity, norm-referenced, criterion-referenced)
- d. a familiarity with standardized testing instruments
- e. an ability to critique language proficiency tests according to norms accepted by the profession.
- f. an understanding of the benefits, limitations and appropriate use of informal assessment measures.

The information should be presented in an organized manner. It must be word processed.

Although you may discuss the exam with colleagues before you write it, I expect all work to be your own or appropriately referenced. Plagiarism will result in failure for the course.

Appendix B

University Supervisor Student Teaching Evaluation Form

Hamline University

Advanced ESL/BIED Practicum Evaluation

Student teacher: _____ Date: _____

Grade level (check one): elementary middle school high school adult

School Name District

Street/City/Zip: _____

Supervising Teacher: _____ Supervising teacher's SSN _____

Street/City/Zip: _____

Return to: SLTL Dept, MS-A 1790, Hamline Graduate School of Education, 1536 Hewitt Ave.
St. Paul, MN 55104

Evaluation Scale 3 = Exceeds Standard
 2 = Meets Standard
 1 = Approaches Standard
 NO = Not Observed

Circle the number that most closely corresponds to your judgment about the levels of competency and performance of the practicum student. After each section is a space for comments.

Language

1.a.1	Demonstrate proficiency in English and serve as a good language model for ESOL students	3	2	1	NO
1.b.1	Provide rich exposure to English.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.2	Provide comprehensible input and scaffolding	3	2	1	NO
1.b.3	Provide opportunities for meaningful interaction.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.4	Create a secure, positive, and motivating learning environment.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.5	Understand and apply current theories and research in language and literacy development.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.6	Recognize and build on the processes and stages of English language and literacy development.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.7	Recognize the importance of ESOL students' home languages and language varieties and build on these skills as a foundation for learning English.	3	2	1	NO

1.b.8	Understand and apply knowledge of sociocultural and political variables to facilitate the process of learning English.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.9	Understand and apply knowledge of the role of individual learner variables in the process of learning English.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.10	Provide appropriate instruction and feedback.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.11	Help ESOL students to communicate in socially and culturally appropriate ways.	3	2	1	NO
1.b.12	Help ESOL students develop academic language proficiency.	3	2	1	NO

Comments:

Culture

2.b.3	Understand and apply knowledge about the impact of students' socioeconomic status, race, religion, class, national origin, disability, and gender on learning and teaching ESL.	3	2	1	NO
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Comments:

Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction

3.a.1	Plan standards-based ESL and content instruction.	3	2	1	NO
3.a.2	Create environments that promote standards-based language learning in supportive, accepting classrooms and schools.	3	2	1	NO
3.a.3	Plan students' learning experiences based on assessment of language proficiency and prior knowledge.	3	2	1	NO
3.b.1	Organize learning around standards-based subject matter and language learning objectives.	3	2	1	NO
3.b.2	Incorporate activities, tasks, and assignments that develop authentic uses of language, as students learn about content-area material.	3	2	1	NO
3.b.3	Provide activities and materials that integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	3	2	1	NO
3.b.4	Develop students' listening skills for a variety of academic and social purposes.	3	2	1	NO
3.b.5	Develop students' speaking skills for a variety of academic and social purposes.	3	2	1	NO
3.b.6	Provide standards-based instruction that builds upon students' oral English to support learning to read and write.	3	2	1	NO
3.b.7	Provide standards-based reading instruction adapted to ESOL learners.	3	2	1	NO
3.b.8	Provide standards-based writing instruction adapted to ESOL learners. Develop students' writing through a range of activities, from sentence formation to expository writing.	3	2	1	NO
3.c.1	Select, adapt, and use culturally responsive, age-appropriate, and linguistically accessible materials.	3	2	1	NO

3.c.2	Select materials and other resources that are appropriate to students' developing language and content-area abilities, including appropriate use of L1.	3	2	1	NO
3.c.3	Employ an appropriate variety of materials for language learning, including books, visual aids, props, and realia.	3	2	1	NO
3.c.4	Use appropriate technological resources to enhance language and content-area instruction for ESOL students (e.g., Web, software, computers, and related devices).	3	2	1	NO
3.c.5	Use software and Internet resources effectively in ESL and content instruction.	3	2	1	NO

Comments:

Assessment

4.b.3	Understand, develop, and use criterion-referenced assessments appropriately with ESOL learners.	3	2	1	NO
4.b.4	Understand, construct, and use assessment measures for a variety of purpose for ESOL students.	3	2	1	NO
4.b.5	Assess ESOL learners' language skills and communicative competence using multiple sources of information.	3	2	1	NO
4.c.1	Use performance-based assessment tools and tasks that measure ESOL learners' progress toward state and national standards.	3	2	1	NO
4.c.2	Use various instruments and techniques to assess content-area learning (e.g., math, science, social studies) for ESOL learners at varying levels of language and literacy development.	3	2	1	NO
4.c.3	Prepare ESOL students to use self-and peer-assessment techniques when appropriate.	3	2	1	NO

Comments:

Professional Development and Collaboration

5.c.3	Engage in collaborative teaching in general education and content-area classrooms.	3	2	1	NO
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Comments:

Appendix C

Selected Data from Work Sample Assignment: Additional License Students, 2003-4.

N=8	Fully Proficient (2 points)	Partially Proficient (1 point)	Not Proficient or Evidence Not Presented (0 points)
1. Identified language objective Objective must be appropriate for the content being taught Must be a language objective	8 100%	0	0
2. Pre-assessment tool Tool must match objective Tool must collect quantifiable data	7 87.5%	0	1 12.5%
3. Formative assessment Must allow teacher to gather enough information to monitor student progress and make adjustments	6 75%	0	2 25%
4. Summative assessment Must match objective Must match pre-assessment tool	7 87.5%	0	1 12.5%
5. Report on student results Clear presentation of student data	7 87.5%	0	1 12.5%
6. Reflection on student results Can analyze student results	8 100%	0	0
7. Modifications for future Can identify areas for improvement and suggest ways to execute them.	8 100%	0	0
Average Total Score	13/14 or 92%		

Professional Practitioners with Adaptive Expertise: Teacher Development in Djibouti

Diana L. Dudzik, University of Minnesota

This qualitative case study (abridged from Study III in Dudzik, 2008) explores English teacher development in Djibouti in a national educational reform context where there is an absence of preservice English teacher education. Data were collected through interviews with local teachers and Ministry of Education (MOE) officials, classroom observations, and teacher development documents. Data were analyzed using a situative framework adapted from Bransford, Darling-Hammond, and LePage (2005) that frames teacher development in the knowledge of learners, the knowledge of teaching, and the knowledge of subject matter and curriculum within the national, curricular reform context, and a vision of developing teachers who are professional practitioners with adaptive expertise. The questions explored are these: How does TD inform the use of the curriculum by the middle school English teachers piloting the reform? What do teachers need to know and be able to do to use the reformed curriculum? Where is middle school English teacher development (TD) situated in relationship to the reformed curriculum? The findings suggest that general TD supports the reform to an extent; reform-based TD occurs in limited workshops and through collaboration with officials and among teachers; the spheres of teachers' knowledge are addressed to different degrees; and the vision of reform-based teacher development is "mixers"—professional practitioners with adaptive expertise.

Introduction

Hanad began his teaching career in a high school in an outlying district about 90 kilometers from the capital city of Djibouti after graduating from university with no preservice teacher education. Hanad was shaking as the principal walked him into the classroom for the first time. As he stood before a classroom of students not much younger than himself, a student remarked, "Hey, is this kid teaching us?" As a "teacher trainee" during his first two years in the district high school, the "Djiboutian inspector" or "inspectors from France" would "inspect" his teaching and assess whether he could teach "very well [or], if not, then it's goodbye." A

Djiboutian English inspector-trainee would also observe Hanad's teaching, give him advice, "write a report and correct" what he observed. Once when, as a young teacher, he was having a "problem to keep the class quiet," Hanad went to the UNESCO office and said, "Right now I have [a] problem of class management" and he was given a book that advised him that a key to classroom management was "just making [students] busy, giving them work to do" (Hanad (T), March 15, 2006).

During this time, Hanad also attended “workshops” concerning “general teaching methods” conducted by English teacher developers from the Ministry of Education in the capital city, Djibouti, every two or three months. He also volunteered to teach in more experienced teachers’ classrooms, asking them to “see what [he was] doing and correct [him].” Hanad reported that these teachers “helped [him] a lot…[wrote] down everything, what mistakes [he made], and …correct[ed him]… [and provided] suggestions.” In addition to the Ministry of Education (MOE) workshops, and pursuing local mentoring, Hanad enrolled in a European course on Teaching English as a Second Language online. In this course, he compared different teaching methodologies, learned more about lesson planning, and changed “phonetic scripts to normal scripts and normal scripts into phonetic scripts.” After his first two years of teaching, Hanad moved to the capital and began teaching English at a middle school that was piloting a reformed curriculum based upon the national competencies-based curricular reform. At the pilot middle school, “the trainings [were] focused for the reform, but before it was some, something general” (Hanad (T), March 15, 2006).

Hanad’s exemplary development in Djibouti illustrates the metaphors of teacher as professional practitioner who learns within particular social contexts and particular school culture; the independent artisan who pursues particular knowledge to meet particular needs and adapts it to his own situation; and the consumer who independently seeks professional development that best addresses his particular needs or interests (Sykes, 1999). Hanad’s teacher development experience also exemplifies teacher development in international contexts in which there is an absence of preservice English teacher education.

Several years ago, I was invited to mentor native-English-speaking teachers in Djibouti, a fresh setting in which to pursue my overarching research interest in contextually appropriate curriculum, pedagogy, and teacher development in international contexts, after designing and facilitating teacher development among teachers in Vietnam who had also received little preservice teacher education (see Dudzik, 2004, 2005, 2006). This case study represents part of my broader research regarding English education policies, curricular reform, and teacher development in Djibouti (Dudzik, 2007; 2008) conducted during four trips (March 2005, October 2005, March 2006, and November 2006). While conducting this research, I also evaluated the reformed sixth grade English curriculum and the articulation of the middle school English curriculum for Djibouti’s Ministry of Education in a spirit of reciprocity.

The purpose of this qualitative case study is to explore the content, pedagogy, and practices of teacher development leading to the implementation of a reformed English

curriculum among middle school English teachers at a school piloting reformed competencies-based education (CBE) curriculum. The broader purpose of this research is to gain further understanding of how to contribute to contextually relevant language teacher development in international educational reform settings.

Background

As is true in many nations seeking to increase their competitiveness in the global economy, Djibouti is incorporating English language into its core curricula. With the emergence of English as an international language (Crystal, 2003), well-intentioned educators often transport western notions of curricular content, pedagogy, and notions of superior varieties of English. Research indicates, however, that many of these efforts are ineffective, inappropriate, or unsustainable (e.g. Coleman, 1996) and carry the potential of linguistic and pedagogical imperialism (McKay, 2002; Phillipson, 1992). For these reasons, I problematize the manner in which English teacher development is conducted in Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1992) contexts where English is taught as a foreign language. It is crucial that expatriate educators in international settings are contextually sensitive, that is, informed by the sociocultural, sociolinguistic, and educational policy contexts in which they seek to contribute their professional understandings. Because of these concerns, I pursued this research on the teacher development leading to implementation of a reformed English curriculum among Djiboutian middle school teachers in Djibouti.

Educational Reform and Professional Development

Professional development is “a key, if not the key” (Thompson & Zeuli, 1999, p. 342) to the realization of educational reforms. In settings such as Djibouti where professional development occurs simultaneously with practice and educational reform requires teachers to adopt classroom practices very different than those they experienced as learners, teacher learning is both socially constructed through activities and interactions and situated, addressing the transformation of learners’ roles and identities and the integration of learning and the contexts in which it occurs. These perspectives on teacher learning are bridged through legitimate peripheral participation – an apprenticeship that privileges both cognitive and social practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991), and in communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) in which learners move from novice levels to full participation. Teacher learning in international, educational reform settings requires transformation of teachers’ classroom practices and their beliefs about their roles

and identities. The socialization teachers have received throughout their years of schooling and the conceptions and misconceptions of teaching that they develop through that “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975, p. 61) must be made explicit and understood in order to challenge prior beliefs.

Considerable research focuses on the knowledge of teaching through pedagogical and curricular reforms. It is important in international development contexts for teacher learning to also address the knowledge of learners, as illustrated in Clark (2003) and the knowledge of subject matter (English language) as highlighted in O’Sullivan (2002). However, the knowledge base of language teacher education has long been disputed (Allwright & Tarone, 2005; Freeman & Johnson 1998; 2005; Velez-Rendon, 2002).

A review of teacher development in ten international educational reform contexts confirms the need also to attend to social and cultural context (Calderhead, 2001). English reforms in Namibia, including a shift toward learner-centered, communication-based teaching, group and pair work, and ongoing assessment (O’Sullivan, 2002) parallel Djibouti’s reform in several respects. O’Sullivan (2002) concludes that “reforms have to be sensitive to local realities and needs. Policy makers ignore teachers’ ‘classroots realities’ at their peril” (p. 235).

Djibouti’s Educational Reform

A significant contextual factor in Djibouti is the adoption of competencies-based education (CBE) for all fundamental school (Grades 1 to 9) curricula after an unprecedented national debate regarding education quality. Djiboutian educators seeking to address the priorities identified in the week-long debate were introduced to CBE, at least in part, through a study tour to another French-speaking context in North Africa and by a Belgian educational consultant. The reform has been introduced in all subjects except Arabic language since 2002 (Dudzik, 2007; Study II in Dudzik, 2008). CBE is “a data-based, adaptive, performance-oriented set of integrated processes that facilitate, measure, record and certify...the demonstration of known, explicitly stated, and agreed upon learning outcomes that reflect successful functioning in life roles” (Spady, 1977, p. 10). CBE reform requires large-scale overhaul of curriculum, teaching and assessment (Jansen, 1998; Spady, 1977), and has been adopted widely in Africa to address economic and human resource development needs (Jansen, 1998). While the roots of the reform are western, Djibouti’s CBE-based middle school English curriculum has the potential to be truly indigenized if teachers, on whom the responsibility largely falls, learn how to design meaningful, contextual situations (communicative tasks that are

the cornerstone of the approach) (Dudzik, 2007). The government's will supports the CBE reform across subjects; however, it is unclear whether there is significant ongoing funding to continue to develop the English curriculum and develop teachers' understandings and use of the reformed curriculum to sustain the reform (Dudzik, 2008).

In Djibouti, CBE was adopted to address the high drop-out rate and the need to increase student engagement and because "the former French program...could not cope with the growing needs of the new state... [and]...was taught without knowing [either] the intermediate objective to be attained at the end of each school year [or] the objective expected to [be] reach[ed] at the final year" (Adan & Ahmed, 2003, p. 1). Major concepts of Djibouti's CBE-based English curriculum include "the final objective to be attained at the end of every two years" (Adan & Ahmed, 2003, p. 4); "basic integrative competences attainable at the end of each school year" (p. 4); basic competencies (three proficiency goals per grade level per year); integration (language forms and functions that are practiced, performed and assessed through interactive tasks called situations); "situations for integration" (p. 5) (the interactive tasks that "provide the pupils appropriate opportunities to use the target language in the classroom meaningfully and prepare them for any possible real life communication" (p. 1); evaluation (ongoing performance-based assessment); and remediation (data-informed supplementary instruction following the week of integration.) For a detailed discussion of Djibouti's English education policies and curricular reform in light of its multilingual and postcolonial context, see Studies I and II in Dudzik (2008).

Much of the general and language teacher research in international educational reform settings focuses on teachers' implementation of pedagogical reforms, but there seems to be a gap in the research regarding the content and practices of teacher development in these settings. The situated nature of Djibouti's middle school English language teacher development is examined in this study using a conceptual framework adapted from Bransford, Darling-Hammond, and LePage (2005) (Figure 1). The questions addressed in this research are these:

1. How does teacher professional development inform the use of the curriculum by the middle school English teachers piloting the reform?
2. What do teachers need to know and be able to do to use the reformed curriculum?
3. Where is teacher professional development situated in relationship to the reformed curriculum among the pilot middle school English teachers?

Method

This qualitative case study explores the content, pedagogy and purposes of teacher development (TD) leading to implementation of Djibouti's reformed English curriculum. The Republic of Djibouti, located between Ethiopia and Somalia across the Gulf of Aden from Yemen, has a population that is approximately 50% Somali, 35% Afar, with the rest Arab and European (mainly French). The former French Somalia gained independence in 1977. Its official languages are French and Arabic, but Somali and Afar are the primary mother tongues. French is the language of instruction in public schools; Arabic is introduced in Grade 3; and English is being introduced in Grade 6, where formerly it was introduced in Grade 8. Djibouti has adopted Competencies-based Education (CBE) for all fundamental school (Grades 1 to 9) subjects. This reform resulted from a national debate in 1999 concerning the quality of education during the country's transition from colonial rule. (Dudzik, 2007; 2008)

The bounded unit for this descriptive case study is Djiboutian English teachers at a middle school (MS) piloting the reformed CBE English curriculum. Case study methodology captures the complexity and situatedness of the bounded unit and is "particularistic" (Merriam, 1998, p. 29), informing my concern for contextually relevant language teacher development. Fieldwork was conducted primarily during two working visits (March 2006 & November 2006), building upon earlier research visits (March 2005 & October 2005). Data represented in this paper include:

- Interviews with three Djiboutian English officials (O) (pseudonyms: Daud (O), Ismael (O), Yusuf (O)) responsible for English teacher development and curriculum development;
- Interviews with five Djiboutian MS English teachers (T) piloting the reformed curriculum (pseudonyms: Dekka (T), Hanad (T), Nima (T) , Mussa (T) , Said (T)) and observations to inform interviews;
- English teacher development documents (e.g. Adan & Ahmed, 2003); and
- Field notes during classroom observations, interviews, and meetings with Ministry of Education (MOE) officials.

In order to examine the situated nature of teacher development in Djibouti, I adapted Bransford, Darling-Hammond and Le Page's (2005) framework (Figure 1) of teacher learning as knowledge of teaching, learners, and subject matter and curriculum. These three spheres intersect to form a "vision of professional practice" within the context "learning in a democracy" (Bransford, Darling-Hammond et al., 2005, p. 11) which I replaced with Ball and Cohen's

(1999) “learning in and from practice” (p. 10) because democracy may or may not be a primary purpose of education in international settings. I added “informed by context”—the political, economic, linguistic, and educational factors and the individual classroom context—to reflect my overarching concern for contextually sensitive language teacher development. I also replaced “vision” with “professional practitioners with adaptive expertise,” combining Sykes (1999) metaphor of professional practitioners, and adaptive expertise, the “gold standard” (Bransford, Derry, Berliner, Hammerness, & Beckett, 2005, p. 76) of professional practice in teacher preparation, to represent the outcome of teacher development where there is no preservice teacher education. Implicit in the framework are teachers’ beliefs, values, and identity resulting from individual factors and their prior socialization.

Figure 1: A Framework for Situated Teacher Learning

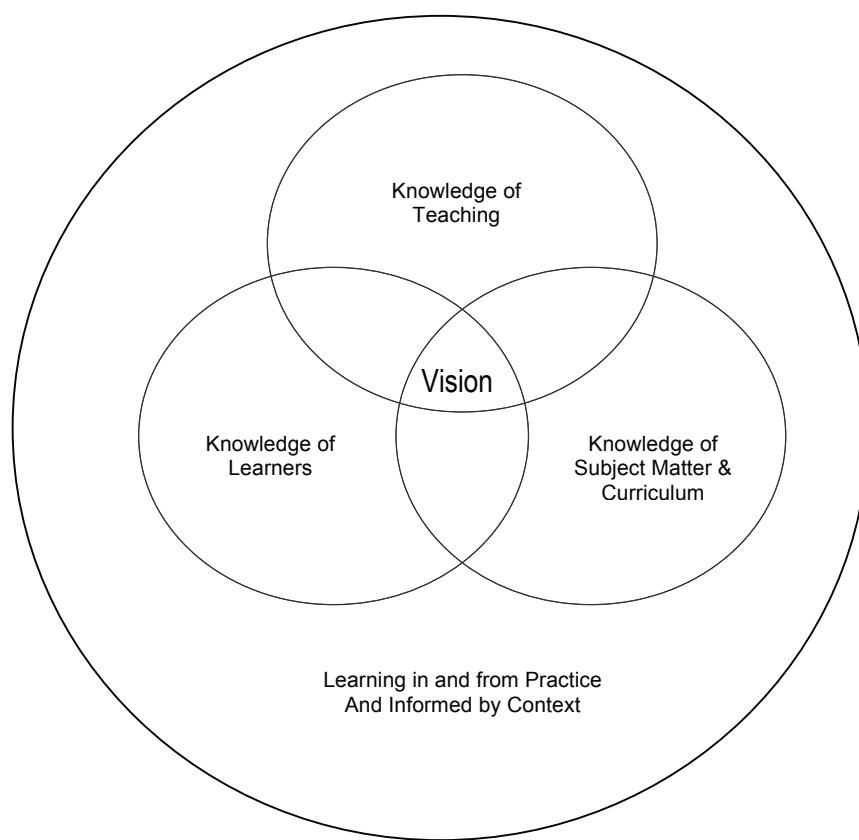


Figure 1 shows framework for situated teacher learning that represents the knowledge of teaching, learners, and subject matter and curriculum intersecting in a vision of professional

practitioners with adaptive expertise located within the larger setting of learning in and from practice and informed by context.¹ This framework represents a shift toward teacher learning that is connected with student learning, utilizes internal expertise, fosters collaboration among staff, is based upon theoretical knowledge as well as skill-building, and views teacher development as a process over time (Hawley & Valli, 1999). This shift is appropriate and necessary in international educational development contexts where there is a long-standing model of “jet-in-jet-out” (Lewis, 2000) teacher development and the potential for the imperialistic transfer of western standards of competency, pedagogy and cultural content.

I analyzed the data in light of the conceptual framework presented in Figure 1 to examine where teacher development in Djibouti is situated regarding the three spheres of knowledge, the reform context, and the vision and outcome of TD. I interrogated my framework when themes did not seem to fit, revising the framework after my analysis (Figure 2). I addressed the accuracy of my findings by conducting member checks with participants in follow-up interviews and via email, and triangulated data sources among teachers, English officials, observations, and documents to verify findings. I used the participants’ words and texts, as well as my field notes and reflections to provide carefully contextualized description (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002).

Findings: English Teacher Development in Djibouti

In order to understand what teachers need to know and be able to do to use the reformed curriculum, and how teacher professional development informs teachers’ use of the reformed curriculum, I first explored who the teachers are and what their English learning experiences entailed. I also explored both general and reform-centered TD to understand how TD has contributed to teachers’ use of the reformed curriculum.

Who Are the Teachers and How Did They Learn English?

Of the five Djiboutian English teachers interviewed for this study, all except Hanad (T) began teaching at the pilot middle school after graduating from the local public university in Djibouti with two-year English degrees, and no preservice teacher education. Dekka (T) and Said (T) began teaching in 2003, the first year that the reformed English curriculum was being piloted at the middle school and are the most experienced teachers in Djibouti regarding the reformed English curriculum. At the time of the interviews, Hanad (T) (who had previously taught in an outlying district) was in his fifth and later sixth year of teaching. Dekka (T) and

Said (T) were in their third and later fourth years of teaching. Mussa (T) was in his second year of teaching, and Nima (T) was in her first months of teaching. As illustrated in the introductory vignette, Hanad (T) had both the most general teaching experience and the most teacher development. While Hanad (T) learned through English as the medium of instruction in a neighboring country beginning in primary school, the other MS English teachers began studying English three hours a week in Djiboutian middle school where French was the language of instruction. All five of these teachers are multilingual. For example, Said (T) speaks Somali, his home language, French, the language of instruction, and Arabic in addition to English (March 14, 2006). Hanad (T) speaks Somali, English, Amharic, French and Arabic (November 1, 2006). These teachers are motivated by the global status of English: "Because we are a small country...and all our neighbors can speak English...it's necessary to learn English" (Said (T), March 14, 2006).

The reformed CBE-based English curriculum is very different from the approach these teachers experienced as learners. Dekka (T) describes the former approach as being "only based on grammar" without "oral production. We didn't have any oral production at that time." You would hear "only the teacher speaking—that is a big change" (March 16, 2006). Nima's (T) private middle school experience with French teachers was very different from Dekka's (T) public school experience: lessons with audio tapes and "songs that were very interesting [and]...English groups because it was very interactive...it was something magical" (November 1, 2006). Hanad's (T) experience in a neighboring country was "teacher-centered. Teacher comes to the class, explains the lesson and then gives homework to do, or exercise to do in the class, and not more kind of speaking" (November 1, 2006).

How Does Teacher Development Inform Teachers for the Reform?

At the time this research was conducted, there was no preservice English teacher education in Djibouti. "It's almost the case of everybody here...except primary school teachers" (Ismael (O), November 5, 2006). The content of middle school English teacher development in 2005-2006 consisted of "general training on grammar, teaching reading, pair and group work—training topics—but this year we included training on [CBE]" (Ismael (O), November 5, 2006). At the beginning of the first trimester, English teacher developers organize "one week, a block, [in] which everything's discussed—how to do writing, how to [do] listening comprehension, how to do reading comprehension...but still the spirit of the competencies-based approach is not present. The workshop is not organized around the competencies-based approach" (Yusuf

(O), November 4, 2006). Teachers from throughout the country are invited to the capital city for “workshops” (Hanad (T), March 15, 2006) and “many trainings” (Said (T), March 14, 2006) that are generally held at CFPEN, the teacher development branch of the Ministry of Education (Nima (T), November 1, 2006).

Teacher development regarding the competencies-based reform at the pilot middle school is not a whole-school endeavor, but is conducted by each subject area, even though CBE is being used in all subjects (except Arabic language) (Yusuf (O), November 4, 2006). As the reformed curriculum was being initially piloted, the MS English teachers often met with MOE teacher developers to plan course outlines at the beginning of each trimester, and the week of integration, and the week of evaluation at the end of each trimester. Some of these meetings dealt with the grammar or vocabulary that students should know, as the teachers and English officials negotiated the content of the teachers’ guides which were still in draft form. The teachers also met to design situations to use for both practice during the week of integration and for assessment purposes. Hanad (T) describes a scaffolded process of learning to design situations:

For the first or the second year, it was all the group—the inspection team, the teachers, all of us. Since we were given a lot of training on this issue [of designing situations]...last year, most of the time we teachers would do it together and then we would submit it to the inspection team and then they have to finalize it (November 1, 2006).

One day of the week-long general English teacher development workshop deals specifically with the reform: “the integration, the evaluation, and the remediation work...and the principles, and the history, the background, all these things” (Yusuf (O), November 4, 2006). A primary concern of the reform-based component is to equip teachers to prepare situations (communicative tasks that reflect the Djiboutian reality) that elicit specific language forms and functions, facilitating students’ language competency. A second concern is equipping teachers to “prepare diagnosis at the beginning of the year and [at the end] how to make remediation of the language” (Yusuf (O), November 4, 2006).

Reform-Based Teacher Development Pedagogy

The pedagogy employed during the day devoted to the reform that is part of the week-long workshop begins with a lecture about CBE. Later, an interactive small group activity is introduced to help teachers learn to plan situations. In one such session, 20 teachers were divided into three groups – each assigned one sixth grade competency. Using sixth grade

textbooks and the technical teachers' guide (Adan & Ahmed, 2003 [data]) as resources, each group "research[ed] their own competence," and identified the language resources needed "to mobilize [in a] special situation" (Yusuf (O), November 4, 2006). After each group decided on a strategy to address their competency, they presented their work to the whole group. One participant reported that the teacher developer gave the teachers "some topics, titles, and asked us to make situations ...in the past, in the future, and sometimes in the present" (Said (T), November 5, 2006) so the teachers learned how to develop situations that elicited particular language forms, functions, and vocabulary. According to Dekka (T), TD for the reform is more "theoretical," dealing with concepts and terminology related to CBE, in contrast to "practical" general TD (March 16, 2006). The pedagogical knowledge gained from the workshop's reform-based component consists of

Describing what the [basic competence] is...the evaluation; how to do the situations - most of the time how to set up the situation because...we [did] exercises in classes before, and it was very difficult for us to differentiate what is an exercise and what a situation is (Hanad (T), November 1, 2006).

In addition to scaffolded collaboration with MOE officials and off-site workshops with one day dedicated to the CBE reform, pilot MS teachers collaborated together to learn to use the reformed curriculum: "Most of the things that we have learned, we learned [from] each other" (Said (T), field notes of conversation, November 5, 2006). Dekka (T) agreed. They explained that this learning takes place on the phone, in the teachers' room, between classes, and as they plan lessons together. There is a critical element to their collaboration as they tell one another, "that's not good...it would be better to do this way" (Dekka (T), November 5, 2006). Said (T) and Dekka (T) also observed one another's teaching and discussed the lessons to "correct our mistakes" (Dekka (T), November 5, 2006). Dekka (T) also invited Hanad (T) to observe her teaching, and he gave her helpful advice. One English official considers this collaboration among teachers to be one of the strengths of the reform (Daud (O), March 16, 2006).

Reform-Based Teachers' Materials

One of the main components of the pilot MS English teachers' development is reform-based materials which include grade level "integration" guides (e.g. Adan & Ahmed, 2003 [data]). These are "technical guide[s]" (Ismael (O), November 5, 2006) that lay out the general structure of the reformed English curriculum which centers on the basic competency that is the objective of each trimester, as well as a table of language (consisting of language forms,

functions, and suggested activities), and rubrics with criteria for evaluating students according to each competency. The specific content (topics, subject matter, readings, discussion prompts) must be determined by the teachers. This content should reflect the “Djiboutian context as much as possible, close to the reality of Djiboutian, the daily life. So long as we respect these parts, we can use any textbooks which the teacher finds easier to access” (Ismael (O), November 5, 2006).

Dekka (T) described learning the new approach “in the guide book” (March 16, 2006). She also speculated that other teachers will learn to use the reformed English curriculum in this manner: “Just the integration guide” (November 5, 2006). Said (T) confirmed the importance of this technical guide: “We start to learn the guide itself, talking about the guide. What is the guide? How we do the guide, [especially] the table of language?” (November 5, 2006). The technical teachers’ guide helps teachers “to know how to match focus language and skills and the suggested activities” (Said (T), November 5, 2006). At the time these data were collected, the sixth grade guide (Adan & Ahmed, 2003 [data]) had been published, and seventh, eighth and ninth grade guides were in draft form. Collaboration is taking place to develop a more developed teacher’s guide and a “bank of situations” (Yusuf (O), November 5, 2006) as a teacher reference.

Collaboration and Classroom Observations

In addition to the collaboration occurring among MOE officials and MS English teachers, Said (T) and Dekka (T), the teachers most experienced in CBE, were also invited to work with two outside experts, two MOE English teacher developers, and two MOE curriculum developers to write training resources for teachers. Said (T) reported that these resources fill a gap for teacher resources that fit “the Djiboutians’ reality....something which [is] good for us that our teachers can do and [is] also more appropriate to our situation” (November 4, 2006). The extent to which these teacher resources are centered in CBE remains unclear. English officials are also in the process of identifying “an adequate [student text] book” (Ismael, (O) November 5, 2006) to aid teachers in their implementation of the reformed curriculum.

Both general and reform-centered classroom observations by MOE English officials occur as part of MS English teacher development. Regarding the reform, Ismael looks for whether “the lesson is teacher-centered or student-centered...[and] contextualized... close to the Djiboutian reality” (Ismael (O), November 5, 2006). Yusuf (O) observes whether the goals for the

integration of language forms and functions are clear and how the teacher is “conducting the integration” of language forms and functions (November 4, 2006).

What Do Teachers Need to Know and Be Able to Do to Use the Reformed Curriculum?

The CBE-based English curriculum places considerable responsibility on teachers who must design contextual, meaningful, communicative situations for language production and assessment, and use assessment data to inform instruction. In order to answer what teachers need to know and be able to do, I also observed how teachers used the reformed curriculum. As I observed the pilot MS English teachers’ classrooms prior to interviewing them, I saw the kind of form-based instruction characteristic of how they had learned English. Error correction was the major form of ongoing assessment I observed. However, during an interview, one teacher showed me a trimester test made up of three situations which demonstrated this core principle of CBE (Hanad (T), November 1, 2006). The roles teachers played also varied considerably. Two teachers demonstrated learner-centered monitoring of student learning as they moved around their classrooms. Two others demonstrated a more teacher-centered approach as they remained stationary at the front of the class and checked answers, providing form-based feedback. Limited use of pair work and group work were also observed. Surface level contextual content, such as the use of local names and places, was observed in several classrooms. One teacher took a reading on environmental pollution and designed a problem-based activity concerning their school environment. (Observations conducted on October 31, November 1, 2 and 5, 2006). These observations may reflect teachers’ prior experience as learners, but they may also reflect where they were in the syllabus at the time of my visits. One MOE English official summarized that the reformed English curriculum requires teachers who are “mixers”—able to integrate language forms and functions, design interactive, communicative, contextually relevant situations, and “mobilize the language resources” that they have taught (Yusuf (O), November 4, 2006).

Summary of Findings

As the case study illustrates, pilot MS English teacher development occurs in general teacher development workshops, in a very limited component of those workshops dedicated to the reform, and in reform-based teacher materials. Additionally, development occurs in communities of practice among MS English teachers, Ministry of Education English officials,

sometimes including expatriate teacher developers, and through classroom observations by MOE officials, as well as through outside opportunities such as those sought by Hanad. Through these development opportunities, teachers learn to design contextual situations that integrate language forms and functions, and to use those situations for practice and for assessment. A discussion of Djibouti's MS English teacher development in light of the situated teacher development framework (Figure 1) follows.

Where is Middle School English Teacher Development Situated in Relation to the Reformed Curriculum?

The content and practices of Djibouti's MS English teacher development are analyzed in light of the spheres of knowledge in Figure 1 and are elaborated upon in Figure 2.

Knowledge of Learners

Teacher development for the reformed middle school English curriculum is situated in the knowledge of learners, the knowledge of teaching, and the knowledge of subject matter and curriculum to differing degrees (see Figure 2). The knowledge of learners, the first sphere, is addressed as teachers learn to design meaningful, contextual situations that elicit specific language forms and functions for communicative language practice and assessment and as they learn to use assessment data to inform instruction (remediation). The knowledge of learners is also addressed as English officials observe classrooms, looking for evidence of learner-centered teaching and integration of language forms and functions. In addition, the knowledge of learners is addressed as teachers experience new roles in small group activities and microteaching during the week-long teacher development described earlier. However, there is little evidence of the use of student work in the TD or that the knowledge of learners is explicitly or intentionally addressed through these new experiences.

The gap regarding the knowledge of learners may be addressed as teachers reflect on new experiences and activities such as small group work, and see these activities from students' points of view. Using classroom practice records is important to teacher learning and teacher change, and connections to classrooms may be fostered by bringing artifacts from teachers' classrooms into professional development (including lesson plans, assignments, student work samples, and videotapes) (Borko, 2004). Dubetz's (2005) study, which connects teachers' beliefs and practices to student work through an integrated process of inquiry, reflection and analysis of student work may be informative to Djiboutian teacher development.

Knowledge of Teaching

The knowledge of English teaching, the second sphere in Figure 2, is addressed among the pilot MS English teachers through off-site workshops, as they experience learner-centered, participatory pedagogy in those workshops, and through observations and feedback regarding their teaching. These general English teacher development workshops, primarily conducted by Djiboutian MOE English officials, deal with topics such as teaching the four skills, and implementing pair and group work. These workshops provide teachers, at least to some extent, with activities that mirror the learner-centered pedagogy privileged by the reformed CBE curriculum. This experience contrasts with what Clark (2003) found in India where

“teacher trainers instructed teachers with the content of the reform pedagogy using traditional instructional methods and knowledge given during the training programmes. Teachers...were not involved in active learning...rarely asked questions nor did they engage trainers in discussion or argument. Most importantly, teachers’ experiences in the classroom were not validated and unpacked with reference to the new instructional methodology” (p. 38).

While it is often assumed that curricular change results in teacher change (teacher learning), curricular change demands teacher learning (understanding) in order to be successful (Sykes, 1999). That teacher learning changes teacher practice is an often overlooked notion. However, traditional teacher education and development does little to counteract the strong influences of teachers’ prior educational experiences (Ball & Cohen, 1999). Teacher development needs to challenge teachers’ understandings and misunderstandings acquired through their own educational experiences (the apprenticeship of observation), and to provide them with experiences as learners that mirror the reform. The contrast between the learner-centered, meaningful, communicative approach of the reformed curriculum and the teacher-centered, form-based instruction that the MS English teachers (except Nima) experienced as learners (see Study II, Dudzik, 2008) has implications for language teacher development in Djibouti. The general teacher development experienced by these MS English teachers that employed small groups and microteaching offered teachers new learner-centered experiences. However, it remains unclear to what extent these experiences are made explicit or critically examined through reflection and inquiry. Local teachers’ understandings regarding their own prior educational socialization is an asset that could be made explicit through reflection (see Dudzik, 2005).

Knowledge of Subject Matter and Curriculum

The third sphere (Figure 2) in which language teacher education is situated is in the knowledge of subject matter (including English language proficiency, phonology, grammar, and theoretical knowledge of second language acquisition) and curriculum (in this case, the reformed CBE English curriculum). The knowledge of the subject matter (English language) is implicitly addressed to a limited extent as English is used as the language of instruction in the workshops. There is no evidence, however, that the teachers' English language proficiency is explicitly addressed. This omission is of particular concern as the reform begins to be introduced countrywide for teachers in the outlying districts whose proficiency may be more limited. There is also little evidence of explicit instruction in the principles of second language acquisition or how this knowledge informs instruction. In contexts like Djibouti where there has been no preservice English teacher education, teacher development must address subject matter knowledge—at the least, English proficiency and second language acquisition—in addition to the knowledge of language teaching pedagogy. Flowerdew's (1998) study of teacher development through additional language learning and reflection might inform contexts like Djibouti where teachers' multiple language learning experiences might be made explicit.

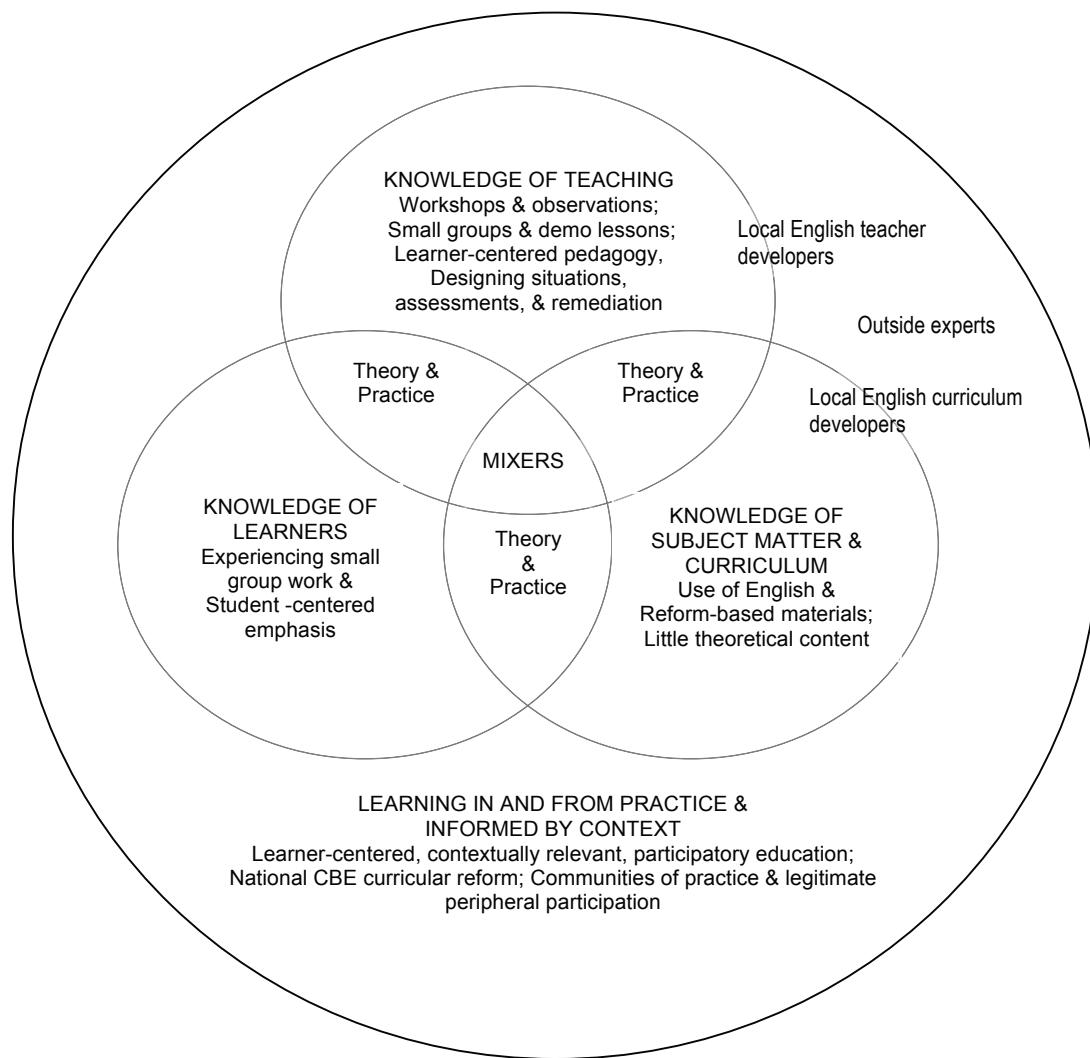
As Said (T) and Dekka (T) described, the knowledge of the reformed curriculum is addressed to a great degree through reform-based materials. Knowledge of the curriculum is also addressed during one day dedicated to CBE as part of the week-long workshop, and somewhat in classroom observations by MOE English officials. However, it is evident that the MS English teacher development is not centered in the reform.

Context of Teacher Development

The outer sphere of the conceptual framework in Figure 2 represents the political, educational, and global context in which Djibouti's Middle school English teacher development is situated. That context includes national adoption of CBE educational reform and the global educational discourse of learner-centeredness, Education for All (Chabbott, 1998), and universal secondary education along with contextual, participatory classrooms, and performance assessment (see Study II, Dudzik, 2008). The context is also comprised of discourse that English is important for global engagement and economic advancement (see Dudzik, 2007; Study I, Dudzik, 2008).

Figure 2: Elaborated Framework (see Dudzik, 2008, p. 168).

Situated Language Teacher Development in Djibouti



Both teachers and officials referred to the importance of contextualizing situations to the Djiboutian reality, and using group work and pair work, interaction, and meaning for student-centered teaching. These issues were also evident in English officials' observation criteria. However, there is no evidence that the teacher development makes these contextual issues explicit through reflection or inquiry.

Vision of “Mixers”

The vision at the center of the Djiboutian English teacher development, according to one MOE English official, is teachers who are “mixers” able to:

- Contextualize content from any textbook to reflect the Djiboutian reality;
- Design communicative situations that elicit specific language forms, functions, and vocabulary and that are relevant and meaningful to students (integration);
- Design appropriate assessments (evaluation);
- Use assessment to inform further instruction (remediation);
- Use group work and pair work effectively in large classrooms so that students produce the language that they have been learning.

This metaphor is synonymous with the vision of teachers as professional practitioners with adaptive expertise. Teacher development needs to facilitate teachers’ ability to learn from practice and from other practitioners, to search for answers to questions regarding teaching, to work with others, and seek the feedback of others (Hammerness, et al., 2005). Teachers learn from practice by adopting a “stance of inquiry” (Ball & Cohen, 1999, p. 11). Second language acquisition research should be presented through this stance of inquiry, viewing research not as product but rather as process, and that teachers should be invited into the process of inquiring about language learning in their classrooms, collecting data regarding student learning and student needs (Allwright & Tarone, 2005).

Intersections of Theory and Practice

Teacher development for the reform is also situated at the intersection of theory and practice in the overlapping domains of knowledge and the vision of teachers as “mixers” (professional practitioners with adaptive expertise) who draw on their theories to enact practice. For example, the CBE component of the week-long workshop begins with a theoretical lecture on the history and principles of the reform, and moves to a hands-on, practical exercise in designing situations that elicit specific language forms and functions based on basic competencies. One teacher, however, indicated that the CBE-based component was more theoretical than practical (Dekka (T), March 16, 2006). The debates in the literature regarding the knowledge base of language teacher education (e.g. Allwright & Tarone, 2005; Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 2005) highlight this intersection.

In contexts with no preservice teacher education, it is particularly important that theoretical content is connected to practice and immediately useful to teachers. Theoretical knowledge includes a basic understanding of how languages are learned, English phonology, and grammar. Broner and Tarone (2007) advocate an approach that addresses the basic understandings of SLA for teachers, combining basic theory with practical application to student work. Burns-Hoffman (2007) also advocates a practice-based approach to the teaching of phonology for teachers, streamlining this knowledge into four critical components and four essential processes for teachers to understand and apply to teaching pronunciation. These approaches can inform situations such as those in Djibouti where teacher development occurs almost entirely in practice.

Variety of Actors and Collaboration

The original conceptual framework (Figure 1) captures the domains of knowledge of this situated teacher development, but does not accommodate the role of a variety of actors within the framework. These actors (in the elaborated framework, Figure 2) include Djiboutian MOE curriculum and teacher developers and, at times, outside experts (beyond the scope of this paper). It is clear that responsibility for the knowledge of teaching lies with the teacher development branch of the MOE and the knowledge of the reformed English curriculum lies with the curriculum branch of the MOE. What is less clear is who bears responsibility for teachers' subject matter knowledge (further knowledge of English grammar, phonology, further development of proficiency, and theoretical understandings of second language acquisition).

The collaboration that Said (T) and Dekka (T) are taking part in with MOE English officials and outside experts to design teacher resources provides an opportunity for them to be scaffolded into the development of training materials through legitimate peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) as they work alongside English officials and outside experts. It also utilizes Said (T) and Dekka's (T) expertise in piloting the reformed curriculum, counteracting the worldwide underutilization of teachers' expertise in international educational reform settings (Calderhead, 2001). Situative research on teacher learning indicates that learning is a lengthy and tentative process and that "strong professional learning communities can foster teacher learning and instructional improvement" (Borko, 2004, p. 6). Designing teacher development that employs both communities of practice and legitimate peripheral participation has potential to prepare experienced teachers to play a significant role in countrywide English teacher development. The teacher shortage, referred to by many as the "tsunami", that is expected to

result from a language education policy change to introduce English in grade 6 rather than grade 8 (see Study I, Dudzik, 2008) could be impacted by teacher leaders such as Dekka (T) and Said (T) in communities of practice in which more experienced teachers assist novice teachers to use the reformed curriculum through legitimate peripheral participation. Designers of teacher development in settings such as Djibouti would do well to consider how teacher development might nurture or foster communities of practice and how the process of legitimate peripheral participation could be further exploited.

Teacher Development Not Centered in Reform

As the data indicate, general teacher development in Djibouti has contributed considerably to the teachers' understandings of alternative roles for teachers and of how make classrooms more learner-centered and participatory within the Djiboutian classroom reality. This teacher development has been delivered in both off-site workshops and through classroom observations. The content centers on pedagogical and technical skills which contrast with teachers' prior socialization. General teacher development seems to support teachers' understandings of how to move from teacher-centered to learner-centered classrooms, how to facilitate communicative, participatory activities, and how to manage those activities with large class sizes. Teachers' beliefs and values that may be based upon prior socialization and the apprenticeship of observation must be made explicit through reflection and teacher inquiry. The data do not indicate the presence of reflective and inquiry-based activities.

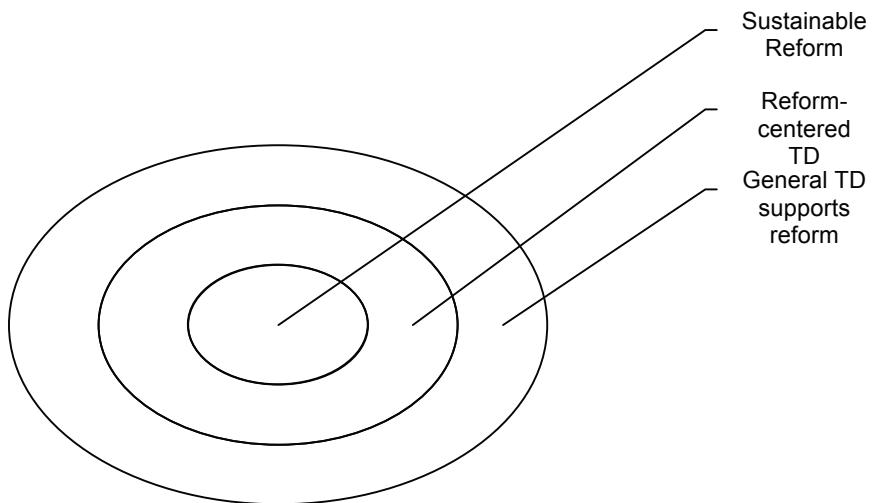
However, the data indicate that the middle school English teacher development is not centered in the reform. This fact calls into question the sustainability of the reform because "new curricula, when filtered through and shaped by old beliefs, [turns] into something more traditional than not" (Wilson & Berne, 1999, p. 177). In order for educational reform to be sustainable, teacher development should be connected to the reform, in its pedagogy and in content (Thompson & Zeuli, 1999), and in its connection to learners. In order for transformation to take place, development must be delivered in ways that represent the reforms rather than through a model of information transmission. Attention to substantive content and pedagogy will insure that teacher professional development accomplishes more than merely "tinkering" (Thompson & Zeuli, 1999, p. 355) with techniques and tools while maintaining the status quo. One English official expressed the desire for teacher development to equip teachers

"to deal with their work according to the competencies based approach...and it's not something that is done for [English] language... [Teachers] must see

everything now through the competencies based approach...the pedagogy, and the reading, the writing, all those things starting with the competencies based approach" (Yusuf (O), November 4, 2006).

Yusuf's (O) words are consistent with the target in Figure 3. If sustainable reform is the goal, then teacher development should be centered in that reform. The importance of reform-based materials as a source of teacher development implies the need to invest in carefully designed teacher resources and teaching materials that are coordinated with the reform-based curriculum. Because this teacher development is shared by different institutions, it is imperative that educators seeking to contribute in this context understand the roles of those institutions and the responsibilities of people in those institutions in order to contribute appropriately, avoid redundancy, and serve as potential catalysts to increase collaboration.

Figure 3: Sustainable Reform Through Reform-centered Teacher Development Supported by General Teacher Development (Dudzik, 2008, p. 179)



I began this research with a suspicion that general teacher development in Djibouti was not centered in the reform. However, while not being centered in the reform, the learner-centered, participatory activities that teachers have gained through the general development support the approach that the reformed curriculum is built upon.

Limitations of This Research

This case study is limited with respect to the length of time I spent in the context, the participation of only English-speaking Djiboutian educators, and the limited background research available in English. This study would also benefit from the perspectives of outside English teacher educators. My position as an Inner Circle, white female researcher with no prior experience in this African context is also a limitation to this research.

Further Research

Further research is needed regarding teacher development in educational reform contexts like Djibouti. How are teachers in Djibouti using the reformed curriculum? How does teacher development pedagogy address the apprenticeship of observation? What additional roles does teacher development need to play in the absence of or limited access to preservice teacher education? What countervailing forces can be brought to bear in teacher development contexts such as Djibouti? If “learning can not be designed, it can only be designed *for*—that is, facilitated or frustrated” (Wegner, 1998, p. 229), what kinds of teacher development will facilitate sustainable educational reform in contexts like Djibouti?

Conclusion

It would be difficult to overstate the importance of carefully designed, carefully facilitated teacher development in contexts like Djibouti where there is an absence of preservice English teacher education and where teachers are the major factor in the sustainability of national educational reform. According to Fullan (2001), educational change is dependent on teacher change. Teacher development “may be the reform, for teacher learning is central to the reform idea itself and to its effects on students” (Sykes, 1999, p. 153). While teachers like Hanad pursue additional opportunities for teacher education, teacher development must address the needs of teachers without access to additional opportunities. The fact that most MS English teachers in Djibouti have two-year English degrees and no preservice teacher education suggests the need for continuing development in the target language and theoretical knowledge about language learning and teaching. Teacher development in contexts like Djibouti must be designed to facilitate the construction of teacher knowledge, to connect to student learning, and to connect to the context and purposes of educational reform.

The development of professional practitioners with adaptive expertise among English educators in international educational reform contexts requires teacher development that

challenges the beliefs and assumptions gained through years of the apprenticeship of observation. Teacher development in these settings needs to include adopting a stance of inquiry and reflection, experiencing as learners the activities and classroom tasks of the reformed curriculum, using the artifacts of the reform, and examining student work. In addition, teacher development will be more contextually relevant and appropriate if it is viewed as situated within a particular international, national, policy and cultural context. As teachers learn to inquire and reflect on their assumptions, their students, their pedagogy, and their context, and to incorporate new knowledge of the subject matter in their practice, professional practitioners with the kinds of adaptive expertise required in international educational reform contexts will be developed.

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Note

¹ From “*Preparing Teachers for a Changing World: What Teachers Should Learn and Be Able to Do*” (p. 11) by J. Bransford and L. Darling-Hammond et al., 2005. San Francisco, CA. Copyright 2005 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Adapted with permission.

Instructional Choices of Mississippi Foreign Language Teachers

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This research investigated the effect of education in language study and pedagogy on the instructional choices of Mississippi foreign language teachers. Teachers were asked to rate how often they employed certain instructional activities in their classrooms. They were also asked to report on selected teacher variables including education and professional experiences. A MANOVA statistical analysis was used to determine if a relationship existed between teacher demographics (subject area preparation and pedagogical training) and implementation of the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework* (2000). The data suggested that increased language study increased the frequency of some classroom activities in the area of communication and culture.

Teacher shortages in math, science, and foreign languages exist in Mississippi. Like other states, Mississippi has employed many teachers with either Alternate Route or Emergency Certification to fill the need. Mississippi has put into place a set of measurements that ensure accountability in math and sciences, but there is nothing in place to ensure teacher quality and levels of student achievement in the area of foreign languages. Many university language departments have voiced concerns that there is little standardization among foreign language programs in Mississippi secondary schools. In 2000, Mississippi adopted a new foreign language curriculum. One of the purposes of the new curriculum was to equalize what students could do with a second language, allowing students to advance seamlessly from one school to another, and from high school to college in order to proceed to the next level of instruction (*Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework*, 2000). This transition, it was presumed, would take the pressure off of the overcrowded elementary-level courses. The Mississippi Department of Education spent much time and resources providing workshops across the state to help foreign language teachers adjust to the new curriculum (*Mississippi Foreign Language Innovative Professional Development*, 2003). Little change seems to have occurred. If the gaps of student achievement in foreign languages cannot be explained by “what” teachers are teaching, then perhaps it can be explained by “how” they are teaching the material.

Related Literature

The focus of the review of literature is divided into two categories: (1) to link teacher quality to student achievement, and (2) to define some of the variables among teachers involved in defining teacher quality.

Teacher Quality and Student Achievement

Teachers are the most important factor in producing student achievement. Evidence-based research as well as anecdotal evidence suggests that student achievement greatly depends upon the instructor (Wayne & Young, 2003). Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (2001) confirm that teacher quality is the most important factor explaining student achievement among elementary school children. High quality teachers have been shown also to raise student performance among high school students. A study by Goldhaber, Brewer, and Anderson (1999) found that teacher effects accounted for 8.5% of the variation found in student achievement of tenth graders.

Curriculum is prescribed for students by the state, but teachers are responsible for its organization and implementation. Teachers must determine the appropriateness of instructional activities. They must effectively communicate the curriculum to their students (O'Neill & Perez, 1994). According to Good (1984), there are statistically significant correlations between student achievement and teacher behavior. The more active the teacher is in the planning and implementation of the curriculum, the higher the gains in student achievement. In the review of literature in an article by Laczko-Kerr and Berliner (2003), they state that evidence-based research has shown that variation between 4% and 18% in student achievement can be attributed to teachers' classroom practices.

Highly effective teachers have been shown to have a positive influence in raising the achievement of low-achieving students. Based on data of Tennessee schools, Haycock (1998) suggested that master teachers raised the achievement of low-achieving students 53 percentile points compared to less qualified teachers who raised students' achievement scores by only 14 percentile points. Another study by Hanushek (2003) also provided evidence that the students of high quality teachers within a large urban district learned much more than the students of less qualified teachers over a one-year period. He found that, over a five-year period, master teachers can overcome the achievement deficit of children of low-income families when measured against the achievement of children of upper-income families.

Teacher Variables Contributing to Quality

Teacher quality refers to “a teacher’s quantifiable ability to produce growth in student achievement” (Goldhaber & Anthony, 2003b, p.11). There are, however, many variables that contribute to teacher quality. According to Goldhaber and Anthony (2003a), the indicators of teacher quality include teacher degree levels, teacher preparation, licensure, experience, and academic proficiency. Many empirical studies have been done on teacher efficacy in both general and specific subject areas, but very few studies deal with foreign language teachers specifically. The variables to be discussed here include the effects of subject matter preparation and pedagogical preparation on teacher efficacy.

Subject Matter Preparation

Several studies examined the effect of subject matter preparation on teacher effectiveness. Overall, the results are mixed, but research findings do indicate that subject matter preparation has an overall effect in areas that require a higher level of understanding on the part of the teacher, such as mathematics and science (Goldhaber & Anthony, 2003a). In 1995, Chaney surveyed 24,599 eighth grade students and their teachers to determine if student achievement varied according to the educational level of the teacher. Overall, he found no relationship. However, when the teachers were divided into groups according to subject taught, he found that student achievement in mathematics and science was higher for those whose teachers had an advanced degree in math or science.

Little evidence-based research addressing the effect of subject matter preparation exists, specifically in the area of foreign language education. Johnson (1994) surveyed English Second Language (ESL) teachers concerning their past educational experiences and course work, as well as their professional development experiences. She found that “ESL teachers are more influenced by their past educational experiences than education courses” (p. 449). This echoes the same conclusion put forth by Golombok (1998), stating that it is the practical knowledge that language teachers receive as language learners that serves as the framework for making sense of their classroom practices as language teachers. Other articles also address the need for high standards in language proficiency among high school language teachers. Tedick and Walker (1995) see second language education as fundamentally different from other content areas. This is primarily because the subject matter is not only the target of communication but also the means of communication.

Pedagogical Preparation

Another teacher variable, pedagogical preparation, has been found to affect students' achievement. Here again, research results are inconsistent. In 1984, Cornett, in a survey of teachers in 3 states, compared performance on certification tests to see whether possessing a Bachelor's degree in an academic subject area or in education affected their scores. Overall, no statistically significant difference based upon educational degree was found. However, another study by Grossman (1990) found large differences in how secondary school teachers prepared to teach based on pedagogical training. Those teachers without formal teaching methodology courses tended to equate planning with the level of their own knowledge, while teachers with formal educational training saw planning to be separate from personal knowledge of subject matter.

In foreign language education, there seems to be more anecdotal and position papers than empirical studies related to pedagogical training. Throughout many parts of the world, pedagogical studies are considered to be vastly important in the preparation of foreign language teachers (Pufahl, Rhodes, & Christian, 2001), but in the United States pedagogy is still seen as one of the least important facets of foreign language education (Moore & Bresslau, 1996). Hammadou-Sullivan (2001) makes a strong case for the inclusion of foreign language pedagogy over general methodology courses in order to create an effective foreign language teacher. Generic teacher preparation programs inadequately train foreign language teachers because foreign language methodology is different from all other subject areas.

This review of literature has produced several questions. Research seems to clearly point to the importance of the teacher in regards to student achievement. High quality teachers are an important factor in raising student achievement. There are a several variables that contribute to high quality teachers. Two of the most commonly mentioned variables are content area education and pedagogical training. The research is not as clear with regards to these individual teacher characteristics. Results of previous studies seem to be limited by subject area. This limitation, combined with a paucity of studies specifically addressing foreign language instruction, creates a gap in the literature that this study has tried to address.

Research Question and Justification

The guiding question of this study was to try to determine if there were any differences among Mississippi foreign language teachers in how they implemented the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework* (2000) based on differences in the teachers' subject area

knowledge and previous pedagogical training. If differences do exist, then perhaps changes could be made in either the educational preparation or professional development of foreign language teachers that would allow them to better follow Mississippi's mandated curriculum and allow a smoother transition for students into university language programs.

If differences exist among foreign language teachers in how they implement the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework* (2000), this study could provide insight for the Mississippi Department of Education as well as state university teacher education programs as to what education and experience is most beneficial to foreign language teachers in the state. Adjustments could be made to certification requirements and university programs that will ensure that future foreign language teachers are better prepared to teach their subjects and produce students who are prepared to enter the workforce or transition into university foreign language programs.

Method

Research Design and Participants

A survey was administered obtaining demographic information about Mississippi foreign language teachers, and the frequency of selected instructional choices they reported making in their classrooms. The participants for this study were foreign language teachers currently teaching in the state of Mississippi. A list of teachers was obtained by the Mississippi Department of Education, and all teachers were contacted by e-mail, fax, phone, or letter.

A sample of $n = 124$ surveys were collected for this study, representing approximately 25% of the 472 foreign language teachers teaching at the time in Mississippi. Surveys were sent by mail to each school and individual teachers were also contacted by e-mail when that information was available. The majority of teachers surveyed taught at the secondary school level ($n = 114$). The participants ranged in level of teaching experience (0-7 years, $n = 51$; 8-15 years, $n = 37$; 15+ years, $n = 32$, $n = 4$ participants declined to answer the question). The languages taught by the teachers surveyed included Spanish ($n = 93$), French ($n = 24$), German, Latin, Italian, and Japanese ($n = 13$ collectively). Some teachers taught more than one language so these numbers do not add up to $n = 124$.

Instrument

Foreign language teachers were asked to complete an online survey (see Appendix) which asked them to rate how often they do certain activities in their classrooms. A Likert-type scale

was used to indicate how often teachers employed 15 different types of activities found in the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework*, (2000). A rating of one indicated that the teacher never used that activity. A rating of two indicated that the teacher rarely used that activity. A rating of three indicated that the teacher sometimes used that activity. A rating of four indicated that the teacher often used that activity. A rating of five indicated that the teacher always used that activity. The survey items were tested for reliability and reduced to 3 focuses: Communication, Culture, and Language Instruction. Demographic information was also collected concerning the teacher's education and professional backgrounds.

Data Analysis

The data from the survey were analyzed to see if there were differences in how often teachers reported doing certain activities from the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework* (2000) based on the demographic information supplied by the survey participants. The sample of Mississippi foreign language teachers was analyzed using a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). A MANOVA was chosen as the test for data analysis because (1) there were three dependent variables, and (2) the two independent variables were categorical. The null hypothesis for this analysis stated that there were no statistically significant differences among the means of the composite ratings based upon independent variables.

Independent Variables

The independent variables were hours of foreign language (FL) college course work completed and hours of education (ED) college course work completed. The hours of foreign language course work were divided into three categories: Minor (0-18 hours of course work), Major (19-30 hours of course work), and Grad (31+ hours of course work). The hours of education college course work completed (both general and foreign-language specific) were also divided into three categories: Minor (0-9 hours of course work), Major (10-18 hours of course work), and Grad (19+ hours course work). A cross-tabulation of the independent variables showed that the majority of the teachers sampled rated themselves as having a grad-level of course work in foreign language and/or education course work, while there was only minimal representation in the other minor and major levels of study. The cross-tabulation of the independent variables appears in Table 1.

Table 1: Cross Tabulations of Independent Variables (n = 124)

Education Course Hours	Foreign Language Course Hours			Totals
	Minor	Major	Grad	
Minor	6	6	19	31
Major	6	6	21	33
Grad	7	19	34	60
Total	19	31	74	124

Dependent Variables

The ratings from the individual survey items were combined to form three composite ratings which were retained for analysis. The first composite rating was named Communication, and was comprised of five survey items that all focus on spoken or written communication in the target language. The second composite rating was named Culture, and was comprised of seven survey questions focusing on various aspects of the target culture being studied. The third composite rating was named Language Instruction, and focused primarily on explicit language instruction. The Language Instruction rating was comprised of the remaining three survey items. A list of each individual survey item assignment is found in Table 2. The means and standard deviations of the composite ratings are found in Table 3.

Table 2: Combination of Individual Survey Items Into Composite Ratings

Communication	Culture	Language Instruction
Q1: Class conducted in TL	Q2: Show films in TL or relating to TC	Q4: Grammar
Q5: Student dialogues in TL	Q3: Literature from TC	Q10: Phonetics
Q9: Student presentations in TL	Q6: Holidays from TC	Q14: Vocabulary
Q13: Play games in TL	Q7: Stories, jokes, proverbs from TC	
Q15: Ask/answer questions in TL	Q8: Songs from TC	
	Q11: Fine arts from TC	
	Q12: Others subjects related to TC	

Table 3: Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variables (n = 124)

Name	Means	SD
Communication	3.56	.573
Culture	3.19	.584
Language Instruction	4.00	.634

Internal Reliability of the Survey

The reliability coefficients were calculated for the three composite ratings. Cronbach's Alpha was used as the test statistic, which is measured on a scale of 0 to 1. The closer the alpha is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the instrument. For the composite ratings of Communication, Culture, and Language Instruction, the test yielded a figure of $\alpha = .65$, $\alpha = .68$, and $\alpha = .60$, respectively. There is no set interpretation as to what is an acceptable alpha value, and alpha tends to increase as the number of variables increase. Generally speaking, an alpha less than $\alpha = .50$ is considered unacceptable, and a score of $\alpha = .80$ or higher is good (George & Mallery, 2003). Since the goal of this study was exploratory and conducted primarily to describe the instructional choices Mississippi foreign language teachers, the reliability of the composite factors was deemed acceptable for further analysis.

MANOVA Assumptions

Before running a MANOVA, the data had to be checked to see if assumptions for using a MANOVA were met. The normality of the 3 composite ratings was checked using the Shapiro-Wilk test at an $\alpha = .05$ (Hair, Tatham, Anderson, & Black, 1998). The test showed that Culture was normally distributed (.984, $p = .168$), but Communication and Language Learning were not normally distributed (.973, $p = .013$ and .935, $p = .000$ respectively). However, inspection of histograms showed that Communication followed a normal curve. In order to test homoscedasticity, Box's M was calculated and rendered a result of 58.235, $p = .464$, indicating that the covariance matrices for the dependent variables were not significantly different (Hair, Tathm, Anderson, & Black, 1998). Although some caution is warranted, it was concluded that the data were appropriate for analysis using a MANOVA.

Results

A factorial design was used for the MANOVA. Because the cells of the independent variables were uneven, the type III Sums of Squares was employed, which is a simultaneous

regression solution. The MANOVA was analyzed using Pillai's Trace (Hair, Tatham, Anderson, & Black, 1998). The results of the overall test appear in Table 4. The null hypothesis was rejected. There was statistically significant evidence that foreign language course work had an effect on the 3 composite scores, $F_{.05} = 2.308, p = .035$. The partial η^2 statistic ($\eta^2 = .057$) indicated that the independent variable FL had a small effect on the overall variance. Inspection of the observed power of the analysis was .795 indicating the probability of finding a significant result with the sample size and effect size reported (Hair, Tatham, Anderson, & Black, 1998). There was no statistically significant evidence that general education course work had an effect on the 3 composite ratings, $F_{.05} = .337, p = .917$. There was no statistically significant evidence that an interaction between foreign language course work and general education course work had an effect on the 3 composite ratings, $F_{.05} = 1.118, p = .344$.

Table 4: Multivariate Tests, Type III SS, Pillai's Trace (n = 124)

Source	Value	F	df 1	df 2	p	Partial η^2	Power
FL	.115	2.308	6	228	.035	.057	.795
ED	.018	.337	6	228	.917	.009	.114
FL*ED	.112	1.118	12	345	.344	.037	.646

Follow-up univariate tests and post hoc tests were employed to further investigate the effect of foreign language course work on the dependent variables. Tests of Between-Subjects Effects indicated that foreign language course work had an effect on Communication ($F_{.05} = 3.909, p = .023$) and Culture ($F_{.05} = 1.567, p = .011$), but did not have an effect on Language Instruction ($F_{.05} = .035, p = .965$). The mean estimates for the main effects showed an increase in teacher ratings when teachers had more course hours in foreign language in the areas of Communication and Culture (See Table 5). These differences obtained were statistically tested using a Scheffé test, which was chosen because it is one of the most conservative tests, and because the data had failed to meet the normality assumption for all the dependent variables (Hair, Tathm, Anderson, & Black, 1998).

Table 5; Mean Estimates for Independent Variables (n = 124)

Dep. Variable	FL	Mean	SE	ED	Mean	SE
Communication	Minor	3.402	.116	Minor	3.533	.129
	Major	3.456	.116	Major	3.587	.116
	Grad	3.765	.089	Grad	3.502	.068
Culture	Minor	2.890	.120	Minor	3.096	.133
	Major	3.213	.119	Major	3.178	.120
	Grad	3.350	.091	Grad	3.179	.069
Lang Instruct	Minor	3.953	.132	Minor	3.886	.147
	Major	4.000	.131	Major	4.009	.132
	Grad	3.350	.091	Grad	4.407	.077

The estimated means showed that there was an increase in the Communication ratings as the level of foreign language course work increased. The Scheffé test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean ratings of teachers with a Minor level of foreign language course work and teachers with a Grad level of course work in foreign languages in the area of Communication ($p = .044$). Although the mean increased, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean ratings of teachers with a Minor level of foreign language course work to those with a Major ($p = .526$), or between the mean ratings of teachers with a Major level of foreign language course work to those with a Grad level ($p = .446$) in the area of Communication.

The estimated means showed that there was also an increase in the Culture ratings as the level of foreign language course work increased. The Scheffé test indicated there were no statistically significant differences between the mean ratings of the teachers based on hours of foreign language course work. The estimated means ratings also did not show any discernable pattern of increase or decrease in the Language Instruction ratings based upon the amount of foreign language course work taken. The Scheffé test did not yield any statistically significant differences between the mean ratings of Language Instruction for the teachers based on hours of foreign language course work

Discussion

This study tried to determine if there were differences among Mississippi foreign language teachers in how they implemented the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum*

Framework (2000) based on the survey questions and teacher variables collected from the surveys. The independent variables were the number of college course hours completed in foreign language (FL), divided into three levels (Minor, Major, and Grad), and the number of college course hours completed in general education (ED), divided into three levels (Minor, Major, and Grad). The dependent variables were the 15 survey questions reduced into three composite ratings: Communication, Culture, and Language Instruction.

The null hypothesis was testing using a MANOVA. The results of the MANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant difference among the mean ratings of the dependent variables based on the independent variable of courses hours completed in the foreign language. However, the test did not reveal a statistically significant difference among the mean ratings of the dependent variables based on the independent variable of course hours completed in general education. There was no statistical evidence to suggest that the amount of college course work a teacher completed in general education had any affect on how she implemented the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework* (2000). There was also no evidence to suggest that there were any interactions between the amount of college course work in foreign languages and general education that had an effect on how often teachers did the activities measured in the survey instrument.

Inspection of the follow-up univariate tests showed that hours completed in foreign language study did have an effect on two of the dependent variables: Communication and Culture. Mean estimates also showed that the frequency that teachers employed Communication and Culture activities increased as the number of hours in foreign language coursework increased. *Post hoc* tests revealed that one of these differences was statistically significant, namely the difference in how often teachers did Communication activities. The sample data indicated that teachers who had a Grad level of course hours in foreign language study implemented Communication activities more often than teachers with only a Minor level of course hours in foreign language study. These findings are consistent with other research that has suggested that teaching efficacy for foreign language teachers is related to the teachers' subject matter preparation (Chacón, 2005; Golombok, 1998; Johnson, 1994).

Based on the results of the analysis, no statistical differences could be found in how often Mississippi teachers selected activities based upon their pedagogical training. Inspection of the mean estimates did not provide any discernable pattern or increase or decrease based on number of course hours in general education coursework. These results do not support previous research that found that teacher behaviors are more closely associated with pedagogical training (Darling-

Hammond, Berry, & Thoreson, 2001; Grossman, 1990; Ridley, Hurwitz, Hackett & Miller, 2005).

The results of this research seem to indicate that teachers' ability to implement the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework* (2000) is more closely related to increased levels of subject-area knowledge than to pedagogical training. The results of this survey seem to indicate foreign language teaching is similar to teaching mathematics and science; they are technical fields that require greater subject-area knowledge than other areas (Chaney, 1995; Goldhaber & Anthony, 2003a). While the value of pedagogical study is not in question, the data suggest that teachers need higher proficiency in language and cultural knowledge in order to implement a variety of activities that comprise a foreign language course.

According to the Mississippi Department of Education (MDE), there is currently a tremendous shortage of licensed foreign language teachers in Mississippi. To fill this need, MDE has implemented several programs allowing prospective teachers to enter the classroom with a wide variety of educational backgrounds. University teacher programs and alternate routes to certification need to stress course work / proficiency in the target language. The evidence supplied by this current study suggests that among the teachers surveyed, those who had spent more time in language study were better equipped to implement the current state curriculum.

The findings from the present study are limited. The validity of the survey instrument with the reduction of the survey items has not been tested through the use of confirmatory factor analysis. The sample collected was quite small, and other contributing variables to teacher quality, such as experience, and continued professional development could not be included. Also, frequency of implementation of survey items was self-reported. Finally, hours in course work does not necessarily accurately reflect teacher proficiency and knowledge in either foreign languages or education.

There are several recommendations for further research in the area of the effect of teacher variables on foreign language instruction. Another study should be conducted with a larger sample size that would allow for the inclusion of variables omitted in this study. Research should be conducted to directly link the implementation of the *Mississippi Foreign Language Curriculum Framework* (2000) with student achievement. Research should also be conducted using other measures of teacher quality than those included in this study.

In short, today's foreign language teachers must be prepared to implement a variety of activities and instructional techniques based upon National Standards and state-mandated curriculum frameworks. A solid foundation in the target language is one of the greatest tools a

teacher can take into the classroom. University programs and state agencies responsible for teacher licensure need to ensure that language study remains the key component in any foreign language teacher education program.

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Appendix

Foreign Language Instructional Choices Survey

Part 1: Please indicate how often you feel you do the following activities within a major unit of study.

1—Never 2—Rarely 3—Sometimes 4—Often 5—Always

1. I conduct my classes in the target language.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I show films related to the target language/culture.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I present authentic works of literature (i.e. entire works, excerpts, abridged works, simplified works) in class.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I explicitly discuss the relationships of words in a sentence.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Students do dialogues in the target language.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My classes discuss/observe holidays in the target culture whenever possible.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I present stories, fairy tales, proverbs, anecdotes, and/or jokes in the target language.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My students listen/sing songs from the target culture.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My students give presentations (oral or written) in the target language.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I do activities where students can recognize differences between the phonetic systems of the target language and native language.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I present examples of the fine arts (i.e. paintings, music, dance) from the target culture.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Students obtain information that is typically studied in other subject areas (i.e. math problems, weather, geography, biographies, history).	1	2	3	4	5
13. My students play games using the target language.	1	2	3	4	4
14. I make comparisons between vocabulary and idiomatic expressions in English and the target language.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Students ask/answer questions about a variety of topics (i.e. school, family, hobbies, likes, dislikes, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2: Demographic Information. Please complete your appropriate demographic profile.

16. What language(s) do you teach?
17. In the language you teach, how many hours of college course work have you completed? (If you teach more than one language, describe the one you have the most experience in.)
18. Are you a native speaker of the language you teach?

19. Have you spent more than 4 weeks in another country/community where the target language is spoken?
20. How many hours of college course work have you completed specifically in foreign language methodology and/or pedagogy?
21. How many hours of college course work have you completed in general education?
22. How many years have you taught a foreign language?
23. Are you an active member of any professional organizations specifically for foreign language professionals/educators?
24. Have you completed any professional development workshops dealing with how to implement the MS Foreign Language Curriculum Framework?
25. Did you complete a period of student teaching or another type of mentoring program under another foreign language teacher?
26. In your opinion, and considering the above statements, what educational and/or professional experience(s) have made the greatest impact on you as a foreign language teacher?

The Professional Development of Teachers of Heritage Language Learners: A Matrix

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“The linguistic and cultural makeup of our nation and the need for America’s [students] to have ‘communicative competence’ in their own as well as others’ languages provide the most cogent argument for taking a new look at second language education” (Tedick & Walker, 1994, p. 300).

According to the American Community Survey 2005-2008, 20% of the U.S. population speaks a language other than English at home. Many teachers who were educated as teachers of foreign languages thus find themselves teaching languages that are not at all foreign to their students. The terms ‘heritage language’ (HL) and ‘heritage language learner’ (HLL) were coined and have become mainstream over the past ten years, but teachers continue to struggle to find successful approaches to teaching HLLs. A pressing need to prepare foreign language teachers to teach heritage languages is broadly acknowledged in the profession. This article presents a series of steps that could be included in teacher preparation courses and programs to better equip future teachers for the contemporary foreign language classroom. These steps constitute a matrix that derives from knowledge and understanding of the heritage language community and heritage learner characteristics, including students’ sense of identity and language specific linguistic features.

Introduction: Why Heritage Language Instructors Need Special Preparation

The heritage subfield of second language acquisition developed in foreign language programs in the U.S. beginning in the early 1990’s when, because of the rapidly changing demographic composition of the country,¹ students whose home language is not English began to enter college foreign language departments in large numbers. Language teaching faculty reacted with dismay for the most part, finding that these students did not have the same needs or learning objectives as the traditional foreign language students who are learning a second language (L2). Faculty drew different but mainly negative conclusions that the “heritage” students already knew the language and therefore had no place in their classes, or that they were enrolled in the classes solely to get an “A” grade or to place out of a language requirement.² All of

these perceptions contributed to the same conclusion in the eyes of the instructor: the heritage students were disruptive and an obstacle to learning for L2 students and therefore had no place in their programs. Over time, instructors did begin to pay serious attention to heritage language learners (HLLs) and to search for effective pedagogical approaches; however, they usually focused on the deficits in HLLs' linguistic knowledge. More recently, we have been emphasizing the assets that HLLs bring to the learning experience. One of the fundamentals of preparing teachers of heritage languages (HLs) is to inculcate positive attitudes.

Lee and Oxelson (2006) discuss how teacher preparation and awareness may be the key elements in determining the quality of language teaching and also are crucial factors in the teachers' attitudes to heritage language speaking students. The researchers found that BCLAD/ESL teachers (The Bilingual, Crosscultural Language and Academic Development (BCLAD) Certificate, required for credentialing of foreign language and ESL teachers in California) who were prepared for dealing with HLLs were more positive toward HL maintenance, whereas non-BCLAD/ESL teachers did not feel it was their job to help students maintain their home languages. The authors conclude that "...positive attitudes toward bilingualism and heritage languages" (p. 466) may depend on teacher preparation.

Spanish is by far the most widely spoken language other than English in the United States, according to the U.S. Census Bureau (2007).³ It is therefore not surprising that Spanish departments were the first responders to the "heritage challenge," and they began to open sections of "Spanish for Native Speakers." The pioneers in heritage language research also came from Spanish. Scholars like Guadalupe Valdés, who formulated the original definition of the heritage speaker, were the first to conduct and publish research on the heritage phenomenon and to author heritage language textbooks. Over the course of about 15 years, instructors and programs in Chinese, Russian, Filipino, Vietnamese, and other languages also began to develop materials aimed specifically at HLLs. Nevertheless, it is still true today as it was in 2001 that "[f]ew teacher preparation programs include training in heritage language issues, and those that do find little to guide them in the development of instructional methods and curricula" (Schwartz, 2001, p. 229). The positive current development is that the need for heritage language instruction is now acknowledged by educators and government agencies, as witnessed by the funding of the new National Heritage Language Resource Center (NHLRC)⁴ dedicated to expanding research in the field so that instructor training and materials development will reflect a deeper understanding of how the HLLs and L2 learners differ.

Foreign language teachers are trained and experienced in instructing L2 learners. As language programs expand their curricula to accommodate heritage speakers, dedicated teachers struggle to meet these students' needs. Meeting this challenge requires the development of approaches that are sometimes counterintuitive to current practitioners' training and experience with L2 students. Therefore, professional development for the new generation of foreign language teachers, as well as for the experienced ones, should include an emphasis on heritage language teaching as standard practice.

Certainly teachers of languages that attract large numbers of HLLs are in urgent need of training in how to teach these students, either separately or in mixed classes. If teacher educators focus exclusively on non-heritage students, they are handicapping the teachers as well as the students, given the demographic reality that brings HLLs to foreign language classrooms. A key component of a teacher training program ought to be the incorporation of "reflective practices" (Geyer, 2008) of self-observation in the classroom. Teacher educators need to ensure that trainees reflect on the nature of the heritage learner as well as the nature of heritage language learning. Understanding the difference between heritage and non-heritage learners' needs is of paramount importance in educating foreign language teachers. To that end, we have developed the matrix presented in this paper to serve as a guideline for those who are starting to prepare or re-tool instructors to teach HLLs.

The Proposed Matrix

Foundations and Rationale: Learner Characteristics

Our matrix is based on the research that has been conducted thus far on HLLs (e.g., Brinton, Kagan, & Bauckus, 2008; Kondo-Brown, 2006; Peyton, Ranard, & McGinnis, 2001; Potowski, 2002; Roca & Colombi, 2003; Webb & Miller, 2000; *Heritage Language Journal*, 2003-2008) and on our experience in offering heritage teacher training workshops during which participants from various languages posed the questions of greatest concern to them (see Appendix and Endnote 4). Also informing our recommendations are the early results of a large-scale, online national survey of post-secondary HLLs currently being conducted by the NHLRC (National Heritage Language Resource Center, 2009).

The purpose of the online survey is to gather information about HLLs' backgrounds, attitudes, and goals in studying their heritage language so as to better inform the NHLRC's efforts in HL curricular design, production of HL materials, and professional development projects. As of December 2008, more than 1,700 HLLs have participated in the survey.

Polinsky and Kagan (2007) suggest that HLLs can be assigned to one of two categories: *broad definition* and *narrow definition*. *Broad definition* refers to the HLLs' emotional attachment to the language and culture as a connection to their family background and history. *Narrow definition* describes those who have actual proficiency in the language. Both groups have a familial tie to the language. However, for the purposes of teacher preparation, in this paper we are primarily concerned with the *narrow definition* of HLLs while also retaining awareness of the significance of "emotional attachment." The survey referred to in this paper was administered to *narrow definition* HLLs, who are the speakers of immigrant languages (Fishman, 2001).

One of the most significant factors affecting *narrow definition* HLLs' language proficiency is the age at which they start their education in the majority language. The figure below shows that HL use declines sharply when children enter kindergarten.

Figure 1: NHLRC Survey: Language Use by HLLs in Relation to Age

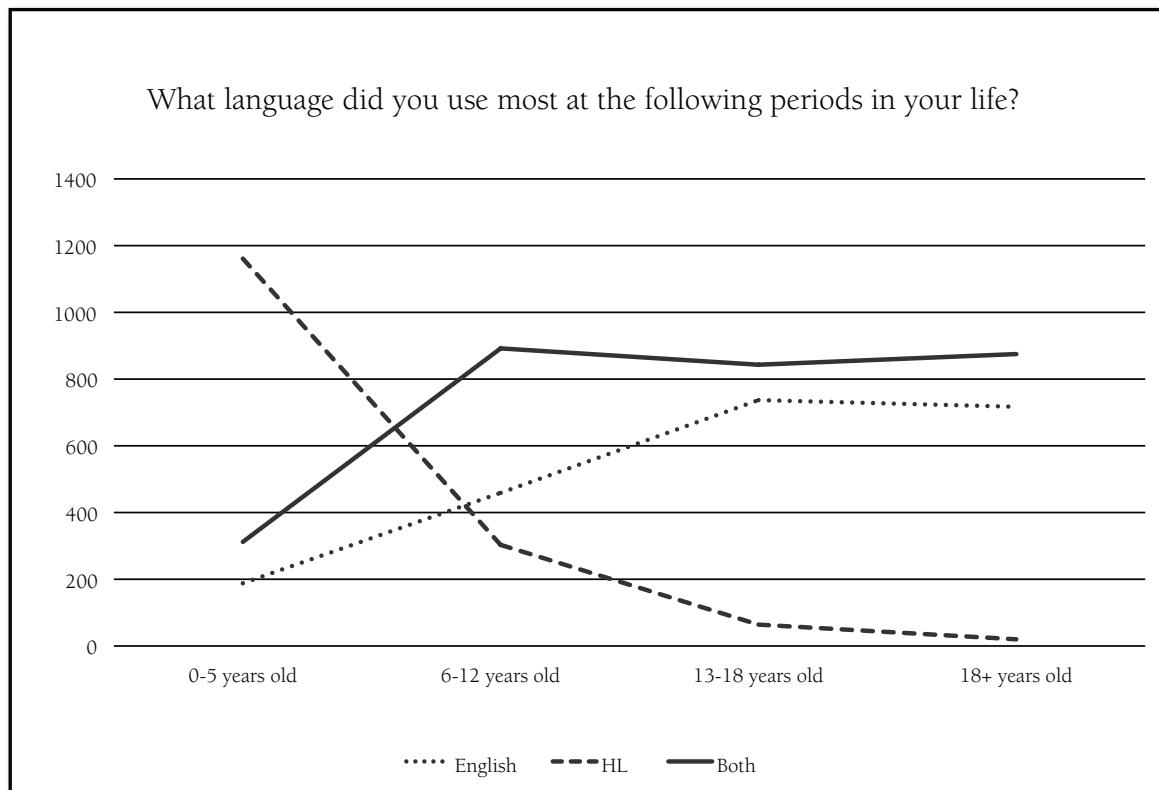
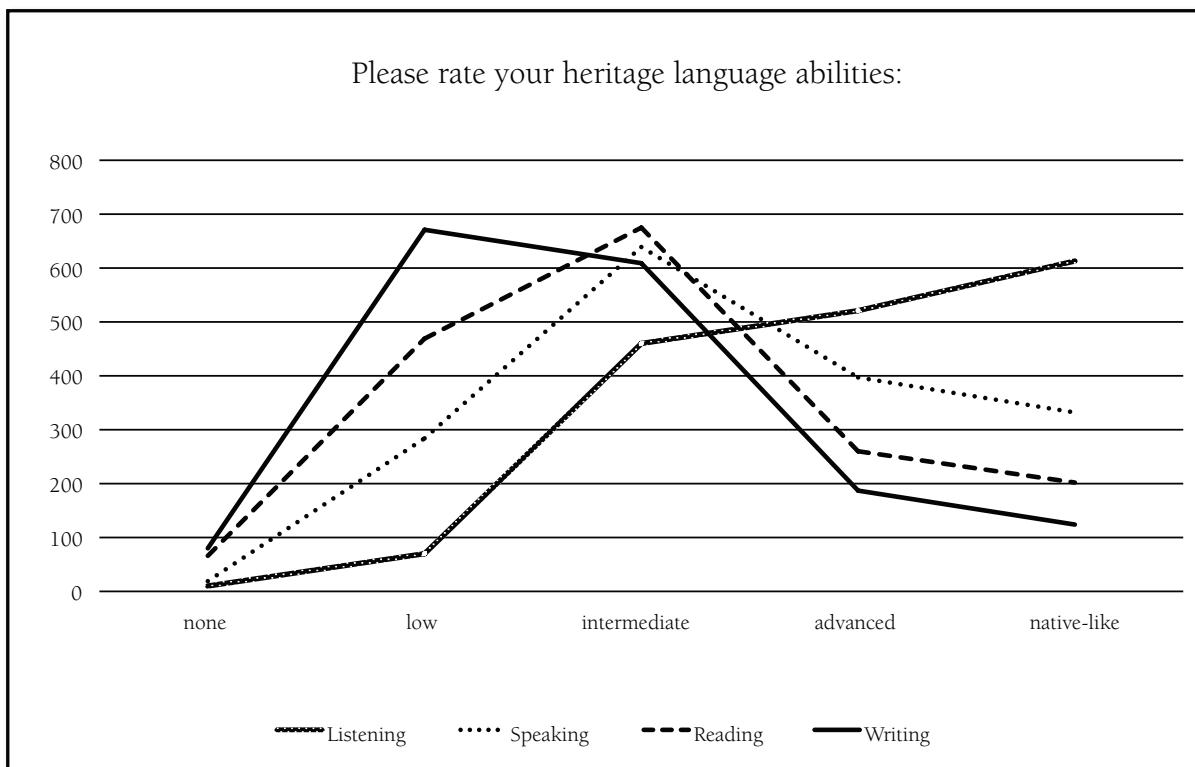


Figure 2 below demonstrates that HLLs are well aware of the strengths and limitations of their proficiencies in the home language. Few of them regard their reading and writing, or even speaking abilities as native-like, and a high percentage of respondents assess their listening

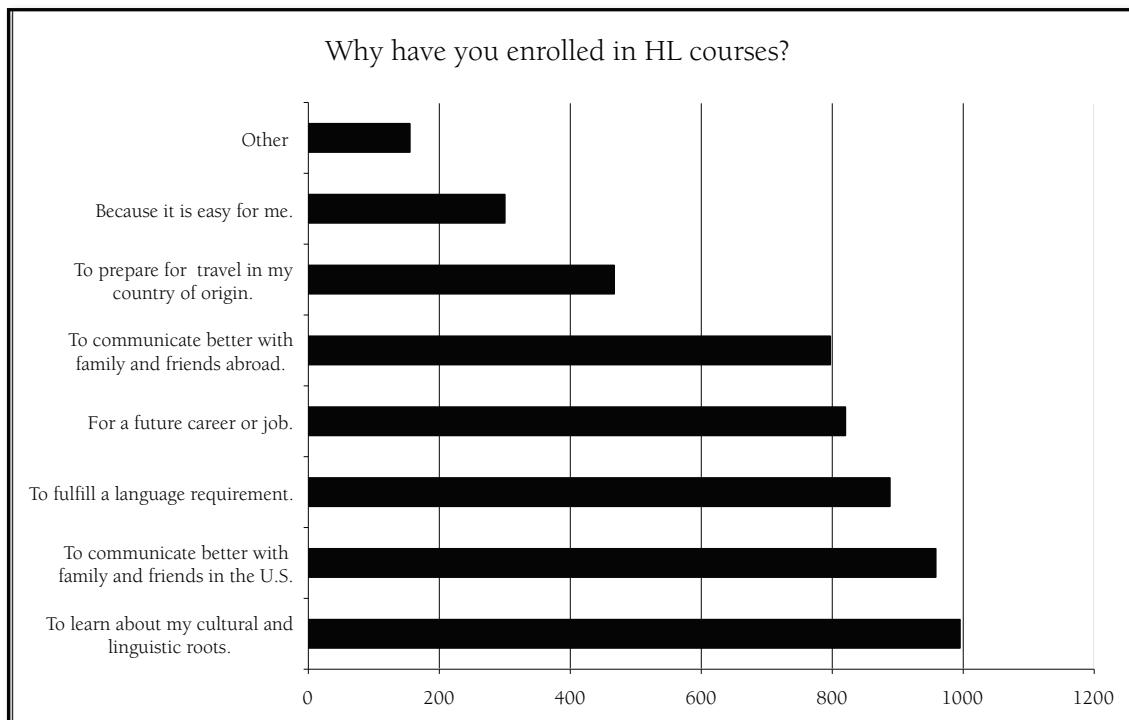
comprehension as the most developed skill. Instructors who teach HLLs generally concur with these perceptions.

Figure 2: Self-Assessment: Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing.



Our proposed matrix derives from this basic understanding about the different starting points. Whether at minimum or high levels of competence, HLLs in our classes are building on some knowledge of the target language and culture (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL, 2006). Studies for several different languages (e.g., those mentioned in Endnote 4) indicate that even HLLs without literacy have speaking proficiencies between Intermediate-Low and Advanced on the ACTFL scale (Kagan & Friedman, 2004; Sohn & Shin, 2007). Classroom experience and students' self-evaluations indicate that listening comprehension ability is generally higher. This is easily explained by the substantial meaningful input that HLLs receive from home and community as well by the amount of their language output up to at least the age of five. The role of the community also explains why HLLs' motivation for taking a course in the language may also be significantly different from the L2 learners'.

Figure 3: HLLs' Motivation for Studying the Home Language



As Figure 3 indicates, HLLs are primarily motivated to acquire and improve their language skills by a desire to learn about their cultural and linguistic roots and to strengthen their connections to their families and communities in the United States. Awareness of all these factors must inform the design of a syllabus for a HL class or for a combined HLL and L2 group. As part of the preparation process, we suggest that teachers explore approaches that will raise the students' awareness of their implicit knowledge and its value and then work toward making that knowledge explicit. One of the fundamentals of preparing teachers of HLs is to inculcate positive attitudes a) in the instructor toward the heritage students, communities, and cultures and b) in the HLLs toward their baseline proficiencies and toward their language and culture, as they are encountered in both the home country and in the diasporas.

To be successful in motivating HLLs and in maximizing their chances to increase their proficiency, the instructor needs to be sensitive to the heritage communities and the cultures that are embedded in them. Another factor that must inform a heritage curriculum is awareness of the fact that HL preservation is of great importance and benefit to the heritage community. Members of heritage communities are stakeholders in the enterprise and can become supporters of and participants in it. It is difficult to disagree with Lynch (2008, p. 332) who writes that "HL

programs will not survive without the understanding and support of the HL community.” Lynch also outlines ways to include the community when designing a program for HLLs (pp. 329-331).

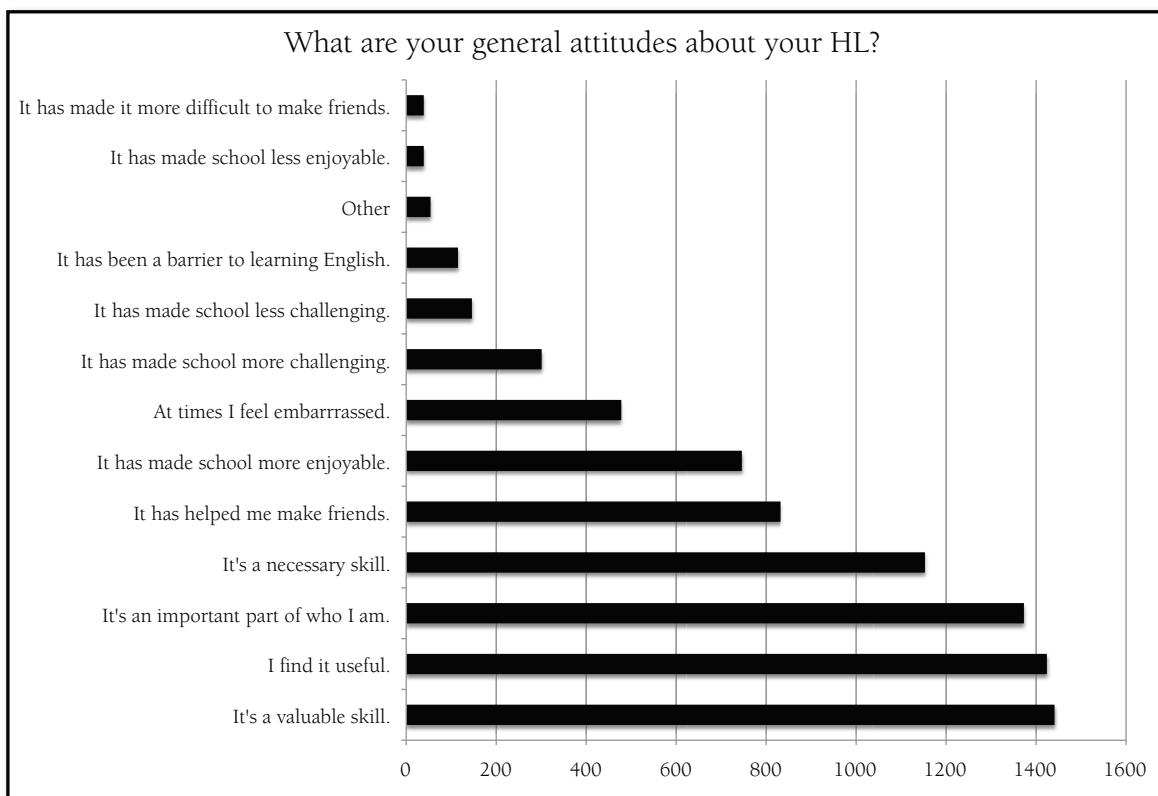
Step 1. Building on the Knowledge of the Heritage Learner

The first step in the teacher preparation process is to examine the research. It is essential for HL instructors to know what has been written about heritage speakers in general and what language-specific studies have revealed that can inform the structure of a course syllabus.

Richards (1990) discusses needs analysis in teacher preparation, his first question being “Who are the learners?” (p. 2). The more the instructor knows about the group and the individuals that comprise it, the more connected and successful the teaching will be. This is especially true in HL teaching, where the affective factor has an even stronger impact (see Figure 3 on HLLs’ motivations above).

The survey of the *narrow definition* HLLs indicates that the learners want to learn or relearn the home language because they want to know about their “cultural and linguistic roots” or because they want to be able to communicate better with their family members (Figure 3). Their families (98% according to the survey) also overwhelmingly want them to maintain their home language. The survey provides evidence (see Figure 4 below) that HLLs express mainly positive feelings toward their heritage language. One may argue that these students are enrolled in HL classes and are thus a self-selected group. This may be true, but our matrix is intended for teachers of just such students and for teacher educators whose job it is to train language teachers.

Figure 4: HLLs' Attitudes to Their Home Language



The majority shares the viewpoint that “it is a valuable skill” and “a necessary skill” and finds the language “useful.”

Step 2. Building on Knowledge of Community

HLLs are situated not only in their families but also in their communities. Demographics as well as the history of immigration must be taken into account in order to meet HLLs’ needs. Thus, the notion of the learner-centered classroom and curriculum acquires a special meaning. Patrikis (2007) suggests that instructors need to have a strong background not only in the language but also in the target culture.

The culture of communities speaking a minority language is a culture in contact, and the language spoken by immigrant communities is a language in contact. The baseline of both is different from the monolingual ‘national’ culture that we tend to consider the target culture. A heritage language instructor needs to be familiar not only with the history and culture of the language in its primary locus, but also with history of immigration and the community’s sociopolitical preferences and idiosyncrasies. One of the fundamentals of a successful heritage

language program is that teachers know the heritage community and culture as well as they know the culture from the target country. As Wiley, de Klerk, Li, Liu, Teng, and Yang (2008) explain in their examination of Chinese HLLs, “it is necessary to understand the notion of heritage language among Chinese, first among their home region settings, and secondly within the United States... instruction efforts may be ignoring the subtleties of language varieties, usage, and attitudes that exist in the home region” (p. 72). In her survey of Vietnamese instruction in the United States, Lam (2006) notes that instructors primarily teach the North Vietnamese dialect while the majority of the students come from South Vietnamese families. The conflict is not purely linguistic, as it also reflects Vietnamese history. Instructors who insist on teaching the northern dialect without regard for their students’ backgrounds understandably have encountered resistance from students and particularly their families.

A community-based curriculum might include students interviewing family and community members, recording oral histories, researching the history of the country, and the history of immigration. To ensure that heritage language curricula are learner-centered and community-based, a successful protocol for preparing instructors of HLLs should include instruction on how to collect and assess (1) local demographic data, and (2) biographical-linguistic data that include information about place of origin, age at immigration, language/s or dialect/s spoken at home, and prior study of the HL. This knowledge will inform the content of the curriculum and the level of instruction. (The NHLRC website provides some information about the use of demographic tools in teaching.)

Step 3. Building on Prior Knowledge: Assessing the Heritage Learner’s Starting Point

Placing learners into a language course based on a placement examination is a standard procedure in foreign language departments. The tests typically consist of discrete grammatical items that can be supplemented by an essay. Placing HLLs in language courses presents difficulties if the department only offers this type of test. HLLs may have no literacy and are thus unable to take the written test. If they have literacy, it is not textbook-based like the literacy of the L2 learners. The same can be said about HLLs’ other competencies. It is critical that instructors be taught to measure HLLs’ proficiencies in ways different from assessing L2 learners. Since HLLs’ background knowledge is more heterogeneous because it typically depends on family background, naturalistic language input, attendance in community schools, and frequency of travel to the country, among other factors, a one-test-fits-all is not likely to be appropriate.

Instructors need to be trained in general assessment techniques (e.g., administering questionnaires) and more global assessments such as Oral Proficiency Interview-like procedures (ACTFL, 1999), that take HLLs' specific abilities into consideration.

For the placement test, a three component instrument can be used (Polinsky & Kagan, 2007). It consists of a short lingua-biographical questionnaire, a written test (if the students are literate), and a short interview for HLLs without literacy. The questionnaire provides information about place of birth, age of immigration, and language use in the home. If the instructor is not familiar with the community and pathways of HLLs' language acquisition and attrition, this information would not be of use. There are ways to 'assign' heritage learners to proficiency groups (Kagan, 2005; Kagan & Dillon, 2001; Kwon & Polinsky, 2005; Valdés, 2001). This can only be accomplished if the instructor already has access to language-specific data on HLLs.

Instructors should also be taught to do error and needs analysis and have a general idea of what kinds of proficiencies and deficiencies can be expected in the HLL populations. In order to facilitate this process, it would be helpful for researchers (and instructors as well) to catalogue typical areas of HL difficulties in a particular language that are the result of incomplete acquisition. Some research has been done and can be used to create such lists (for Russian, see Andrews, 1998; Bermel & Kagan, 2000; Polinsky, 2000; for Spanish, see Montrul, 2004; Roca, 2000; for Korean, see Kim, 2006; for Japanese, see Kanno, Hasegawa, Ikeda, Ito, & Long, 2008). Over the course of HL professional development it would also be useful for teachers to learn how to analyze both spoken and written samples of HLs and create lists of areas that need improvement. The best approach may be to start with more global areas of difficulties such as gender in Russian (Polinsky, 2008) or register in Korean (Kwon & Polinsky, 2005), then move to morphology and syntax.

Step 4. Building on Students' Interests and Proficiencies

Preparing teachers to work with HLLs involves explaining the rationale for an approach that may seem counter-intuitive for teachers of foreign languages. HLLs possess global but imperfect and incomplete knowledge of the language. Many of them sound (almost) like native speakers, and they can produce natural sounding chunks of speech, including word order and tones (Shuhan Wang, personal communication August 27, 2007), but the language disintegrates at the level of lexicon and pragmatics. HLLs typically do not have a repertoire of lexical items for many domains, and their lexical retrieval is slow. By giving HLLs resources to improve their

overall performance, instructors encourage them to speak more as they gain confidence, which in turn leads to increased input and output and thus more successful and advanced interaction (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). If a course is focused on correcting errors of morphology or spelling only rather than developing the learner's global proficiencies, it may not produce the desired effect since learners would be more aware of their deficits than their assets.

HLLs of all languages surveyed thus far concur that their greatest need is vocabulary development (Table 1). This collective realization indicates an approach that would stress skill development rather than error eradication. While attention does need to be paid to accuracy, constant error correction is not the most efficient way to address HLLs' needs.

Table 1: Respondents' Goals for Skills Improvement in HL Classes, on Scale of 1 (Least Important) to 5 (Most Important)

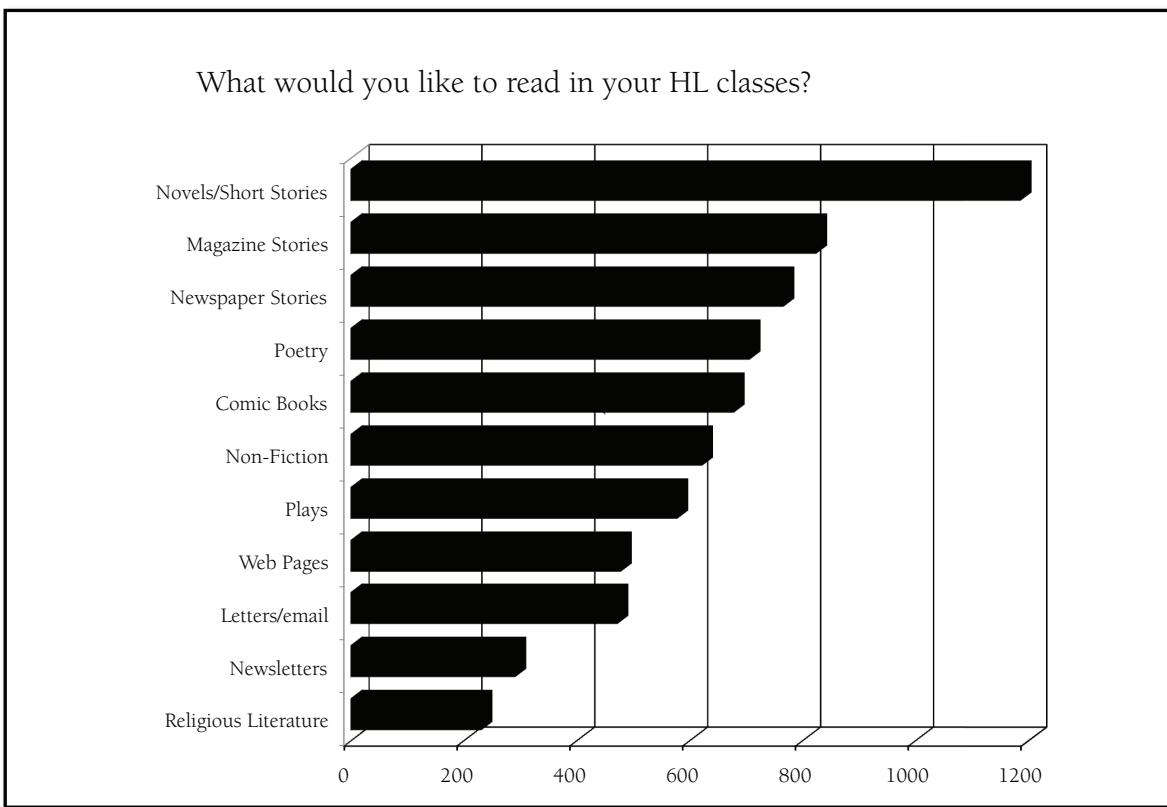
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five
Improve speaking	121	85	144	232	1030
Improve listening	126	113	210	292	868
Improve reading	120	63	143	283	1000
Improve writing	108	53	133	245	1070
Improve grammatical accuracy	109	56	167	287	990
Increase vocabulary	111	44	101	240	1109

Note: Not all 1,701 survey respondents answered this question, and total respondents may not have chosen all six skills listed.

HLLs' self-expressed goals for HL classes. Respondents were asked how important it was for them to accomplish the following goals in their HL class using the scale from 1 to 5 (1 being the least important, and 5 being the most important).

Figure 5 indicates that HLLs want to read literature which would certainly lead to the vocabulary growth that the learners are seeking.

Figure 5: HLLs' Responses to the Questions About What They Would Want to Read in Their HL Class



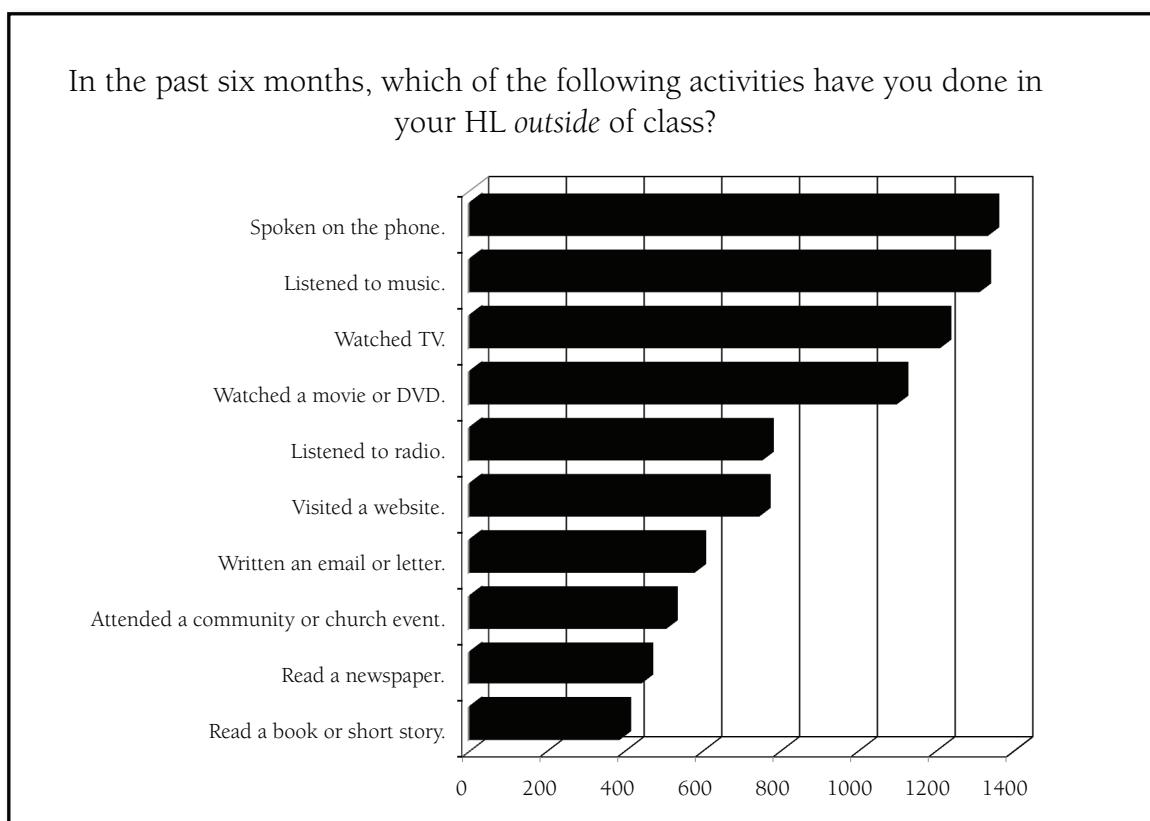
It should be noted, however, that the purpose of incorporating reading in a HL curriculum is not to engage in literary analysis. Instead, the goal is for the HLLs to understand the history and cultural tradition of both the country of origin and the local community.

Judging from previous experience in HL courses, in planning the reading syllabus, it is helpful to realize that because of their prior exposure to the language, HLLs' path from acquiring literacy to reading large texts is considerably shorter than what is a typical path of L2 students.

Step 5. Building on Global approaches: Macro Approaches to Teaching HLLs

Students indicate in the survey that the most common activities they conduct in their HL are speaking on the phone, watching TV, and watching movies.

Figure 6: Tasks that HLLs Perform in the Heritage Language Outside of Class



The challenge for HL instructors is to translate those activities that are part of HLLs' everyday life at home and in the community into pedagogically sound and motivating tasks, a pedagogical activity that is seemingly unconcerned with the correct use of language as long as the non-linguistic 'real-life' goal has been successfully reached by the learner (Lee, 2001; Nunan, 1989). Preparing HL instructors, therefore, requires training in task-based approaches stemming from what HLLs do in real life outside of class. These tasks should serve to expand students' registers and awareness of interactions in the émigré community and in the home country.

Existing curricula can also be refocused and supplemented to create HL courses that are content-based. In their introduction to the volume on content-based instruction, Stryker and Leaver (1997, p. 3) comment that content-based instruction (CBI) "is a truly holistic and global approach to foreign language education." Because of the HLLs' initial top-down/macro proficiencies, as well as their motivations, the global approach of content based instruction is ideal for HLLs. HL teacher training must also offer guidance in selecting and using authentic materials as the basis for HLLs to increase their proficiencies. The survey highlights the kind of print materials that HLLs are motivated to work with (Figure 5).

Because their language is family based, and because for some students there are also strong connections to an entire heritage community, experiential learning is another approach that HLLs may benefit from. For language-in-community experiences to have strong learning outcomes, instructors need to explore how to make them meaningful and natural both for the students and the community members. Well- planned projects can be powerful tools for the students to authenticate their heritage identity. Ideally, a heritage curriculum would create a need for students to use the HL outside the home and classroom (Beaudrie & Ducar 2005; Weger-Guntharp, 2006).

All of these approaches, task-based, content-based, and experiential, complement each other. They are top-down (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000), or macro approaches (Kagan & Dillon, 2004, 2006) that best fit HLLs' language profiles.

Teaching Mixed Classes

In this paper we argue in favor of providing separate classes for HLLs based on their initial proficiencies. We are mindful, however, of the fact that whenever the subject of separate HL classes is raised, language teachers typically want to shift the focus of discussion to strategies for offering instruction in mixed classes. Sometimes these shifts of attention away from separate classes arise out of misunderstanding of the differences between heritage and non-heritage learners, but more often they are prompted by funding and other administrative realities. We can work toward correcting misunderstandings, but there is little hope for overcoming the economic obstacles to providing special classes for HLLs. If only one language class can be offered, what approaches would make the best of the situation? Differentiated instruction provides a partial answer (Carreira, 2007; Tomlinson, 2003). Following this model, instructors would manage to address the different needs of both kinds of students in the same classroom. Instructors using the differentiated learning approach are in need of a toolbox of classroom management techniques that allow the students to progress at their own pace towards higher levels of proficiency. Juggling a class meeting to address the needs of each student is a challenging task, but it can be achieved if there is no possibility of providing separate instruction for HLLs.

With differentiated learning in a mixed classroom, portfolios may be an appropriate assessment instrument. But portfolios make grading difficult, so many instructors would feel a need for more traditional teaching even if they used portfolios. Teacher educators need to work on developing different ways of assessing HLLs.

Assessment

What kind of testing is appropriate for HLLs? We have already discussed placement tests that incorporate biographical information and oral interviews. Achievement tests need to focus on those areas that present the greatest difficulties for HLLs and correspondingly show the greatest gains. Vocabulary development is of paramount importance for HLLs of all languages. Teacher educators need to focus on ways to test vocabulary acquisition. Oral testing that is typical of communicative approaches also presents a challenge for teachers. Heritage speakers' fluidity of oral expression is not acquired in the classroom. How then should it be graded? The NHLRC is funding a project with ACTFL to create additional guidelines for testing oral proficiency of heritage language speakers. Once such guidelines have been developed, they will help determine ways to test oral competency of HLLs in order to assess their ability and track their progress more accurately.

Conclusion

Preparation of instructors of heritage languages must be based on an understanding of the differences between L2 learners and HLLs, the HLLs' assets, and knowledge and respect for the communities these learners come from. The matrix that we present in this paper can serve as a curriculum framework for teacher preparation programs. To recap the main foci of the matrix, teachers of HLLs should know the learner (Step 1), and the community (Step 2). They should know how to assess HLLs' initial proficiencies and how to build on these proficiencies (Steps 3 and 4), and finally how to use macro-approaches to teaching (Step 5).

We conclude our proposed matrix for training heritage language educators by identifying several areas that remain under investigation and await an infusion from current and future research projects. At this time we can offer no prescriptions for heritage learner assessment. Although we are convinced that some study abroad or in-country experience should be part of a heritage language program, at this time there are no model programs to be imitated, and there is no body of evidence pointing to what makes such experiences successful. We also did not include any templates for actually teaching a heritage language class. There is no "one size fits all" approach to teaching a multiplicity of languages, cultures, and immigration histories. Future research by socio- and psycholinguists and neurobiologists may reveal more about the brain's response to language learning and relearning experiences and provide evidence of the ways heritage language learners process linguistic input. Our matrix is just a starting point for

equipping a new cohort of language teachers for the new generation of language learners who are rich in heritage and potential.

Notes

¹ *Ten languages most frequently spoken at home, the 1990, 2000 Censuses and 2007 Community Estimate: A Comparison*

Language	1990	2000	2007
Spanish	17,356,952	28,077,853	34,547,077
Chinese	1,294,754	2,001,948	2,464,572
Tagalog	825,391	1,238,232	1,480,429
French	1,905,766	2,085,172	1,355,805
Vietnamese	521,053	1,019,889	1,207,004
German	1,556,150	1,366,470	1,104,354
Korean	633,078	882,875	1,062,337
Russian	243,904	704,697	851,174
Italian	1,311,820	993,068	798,801
Polish	713,759	681,424	638,059
Total	26,362,627	39,051,628	45,509,612

Note: Languages are listed in descending order of speakers based on 1990 Census figures. French includes French Creole and Cajun. Spanish includes Ladino. Chinese includes Min, Hakka, Kan (Hsiang), Cantonese, Toishan, Mandarin, Fuchow, Formosan, Fukien, Hokkien, Min Nan, and Taiwanese.

² One of our early workshops, The 2002 Heritage Language Institute, held directed discussions that resulted in the adoption of guidelines across UC campuses, which are available on line (UC Committee on Heritage Language Guidelines, 2002).

³ Approximately 33 million U.S. residents speak Spanish or Spanish Creole at home; the next most frequently spoken language is Chinese, at 2.43 million.

⁴ The National Heritage Language Resource Center (NHLRC) funded by the U.S. Department of Education in 2006 is a joint project of UCLA and the UC Language Consortium at UC Davis. Its mission is to propagate the research base for the teaching of heritage languages, develop materials and curricula, and promote preparation of foreign language teachers to teach heritage language learners.

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Appendix

Selected questions asked by instructors of heritage languages at the First Heritage Language Research Institute, July 29-August 2, 2007, UC Davis; and the Second Heritage Language Research Institute, June 23-27, Harvard. For a complete list of questions see <http://www.nhlrc.ucla.edu>.

1. How can we assess HLLs' achievements in learning their heritage language?
2. How many levels of HLLs are there?
3. How much should be assumed HLLs know when they come to class?
4. What kind of vocabulary did they pick up at home? What is missing?
5. How do we decide what to teach in an HL class and what to include in a textbook?
6. How are we to teach HLLs of different dialects of the same language?
7. How do we teach HLLs with different motivations, such as those who want to know more about their culture versus those who want to use their languages in a career?
8. Why do some people of a certain heritage choose to study the language when they go to college and have this opportunity, and others do not?
9. How do we negotiate for the needs for heritage language learners, such as specific classrooms and curricula, given the enrollment demands and economics of the university bureaucracy and budget?
10. How can one teach mixed classes of HLLs and L2 learners?

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