HOW NOVICE LANGUAGE TEACHERS TALK ABOUT TEACHING WRITING

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ABSTRACT

HOW NOVICE LANGUAGE TEACHERS TALK ABOUT TEACHING WRITING

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This microethnographic study investigates the classroom interactions and demonstration teaching sessions of novice English language teachers in a M.S.Ed.-TESOL course on teaching writing. The purpose of this investigation is to examine how novice language teachers integrate theory and practice in teaching writing to English language learners during routine interactions in a teacher-education course. First, it examines how novice English language teachers interpret the theory and research presented in a M.S.Ed.-TESOL course on teaching writing. Specifically, it investigates what theory and research are presented to novice language teachers and how they then select among and reinterpret course subject matter, based on their own pre-existing ideas and based on their professional goals and aspirations. Second, the study examines how novice English teachers enact research-based theories of writing pedagogy. Focusing on demonstration teaching sessions, the structure and content of the demonstration teaching activity is analyzed. Student behavior during these demonstration teaching sessions reveals their interpretation of the subject matter being enacted. Findings from this study may help language teacher educators to craft curricula that better address the issues of socializing novice teachers to make theory-practice connections. Furthermore, this study also contributes to our knowledge of how theories of writing are interconnected with actual teacher practices, and thus may lead to theory construction in the field of rhetoric and composition.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The Executive Summary of the *Report of the AERA[1] Panel on Research and Teacher Education* (2005) begins:

> It is now widely agreed that teachers are among the most, if not the most, significant factors in children's learning and the linchpins in educational reforms of all kinds. Despite the growing consensus that teachers matter, however, there are many debates about why and how they matter or how they should be recruited, prepared, and retained in teaching (p.1).

The summary continues by outlining the panel's research agenda including the topics they pursued, what they learned about the topics, the different types of research methods used to investigate the topics, and finally, what research was still needed. Among the topics discussed is "Research on Methods Courses and Field Experiences" (pp. 14-17). In this section, the authors note that much of the research in this topic area has been qualitative studies comprised of observations and interviews focusing on how such courses socialize novice teachers into the profession by affecting their beliefs and attitudes. They suggest that research is still needed that moves beyond individual teachers and their beliefs and instead examines teacher learning in multiple contexts and across multiple activities. The language of the Executive Summary is echoed in that of two volumes sponsored by the National Academy of Education, *Preparing Teachers for a Changing World* (2005) and *A Good Teacher in Every Classroom* (2005). In the introduction to the former, Bransford, Darling-Hammond & LePage discuss the

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[1] AERA is the acronym for the American Educational Research Association.

knowledge-base and skill-set effective teachers need to have. In the latter, editors, Darling-Hammond and Snowden raise *"the problem of enactment"* (emphasis original) described as the problem of "[h]elping teachers . . . not only to 'think like a teacher' but also . . . to put what they know into action" (p. 33). As these reports indicate, researchers in teacher education, more generally, continue to investigate classroom-based methods courses; however, their research has shifted to focus on the knowledge growth and practices of future teachers.

Similarly, researchers in language teacher education (LTE) have begun to explore how novice teachers gain and apply knowledge about applied linguistics and language teaching across multiple contexts. Since Long (1983) first suggested that classroom language instruction did "make a difference" in second language acquisition, language teacher education has grown from inquiry into how to train language teachers in best methods to questions of teacher "identity, socialization, and situations of practice" (Freeman, 2009, p. 14). Freeman (2009) suggests that three elements might serve to help define the current scope of LTE research: (a) substance, content knowledge and novice teacher learning processes; (b) engagement, ongoing professional development; and (c) influence/outcome, the results of language teacher education. Research in all three areas is not without debate. Considering only research on substance within LTE, one debate that has ensued is whether or not learning the metalanguage associated with research and theory in applied linguistics may help future language teachers with their language instruction. (e.g., Bartels, 2003; Clarke, 1994, 2008; Crookes, 1998; Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 2004, 2005; Hedgcock, 2002, 2009; Johnson,

2006, 2009; Kramsch, 1995; Markee, 1997; McDonough & McDonough, 1990;

Pica, 1994; Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Van Lier, 1991; Yates & Muchisky,

2003). This debate precedes Darling-Hammond and Snowden's (2005) "problem

of enactment" in that researchers are still trying to reach a consensus about

whether talking like an applied linguist means thinking like a language teacher.

Yet, if researchers do demonstrate that talking like an applied linguist may

indicate thinking like a teacher, the problem of enactment then arises.

Applied linguistics research has demonstrated that classroom talk in LTE courses

rarely approximates talk in language courses, if for no other reason than the participants'

different levels of communicative competence. Language teachers, usually the more

expert language users in language courses, may modify their speech to accommodate

their students, who are novices in this new language. Chaudron (1988) describes some of

the features that have been found to be characteristic of "teacher talk" in language

classrooms. Teachers may speak slowly, use longer pauses, appear to speak louder and

with more distinct articulation, use shorter utterances, fewer marked structures, and use

more declarative sentences rather than questions. In other words, language teachers

simplify their speech to make themselves understood to the language learners. In contrast,

in LTE courses, instructors and students usually have similar, if not equal, levels of

linguistic proficiency in the language of instruction.   Yet, although instructors in LTE

courses may not have to modify their language to accommodate their students' level of

linguistic proficiency, they may have to introduce students to new ways of talking about

language learning and teaching (Hedgcock, 2002, 2009). Coursework in LTE programs

regularly includes subjects such as second language acquisition, sociolinguistics,

pedagogical grammar, instructional methods, and assessment (Grabe, Stoller & Tardy, 2000; Grosse, 1991; Kramsch, 2000). In talking about these subject areas, instructors in LTE courses utilize specialized vocabulary and grammar, a disciplinary metalanguage, to describe different phenomena in language learning and teaching, including "teacher talk". The question, thus, becomes whether or not this disciplinary metalanguage taught in LTE courses socializes novice language teachers so that they may enact practices shown to promote language learning. This study further explores this relationship between learning the metalanguage of applied linguistics and potential classroom practices. Specifically, this study examines how students in a Master's program in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)[2] talk about, contextualize, and enact educational research about teaching second language writing.

To investigate the relationship between learning the metalanguage of applied linguistics and potential classroom practices, a microethnographic study was conducted in two sections of a course on Teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) writing in a M.S.Ed.-TESOL program in a graduate school of education in the northeastern United States during the fall 2005 semester. In a microethnographic study, the researcher conducts a traditional ethnographic study while videotaping the research context (Erickson, 1996). In traditional ethnography, the researcher participates in a community for a prolonged period of time to learn the "native" point-of-view while taking detailed fieldnotes during the course of participation. The researcher then analyzes data from

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[2] TESOL is used as an umbrella term for Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL), Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), Teaching English as an International Language (TEIL), Teaching English as an Additional Language (TEAL) and similar programs unless otherwise indicated.

these detailed fieldnotes using disciplinary frameworks in order to elucidate the community's social practices (Geertz, 1973; Hymes, 1980). By also collecting videotaped data, microethnographic research provides the opportunity for additional fine-grained analysis of multiple semiotic resources, including talk-in-interaction, gesture, eye gaze, etc., in other words, the enactment of practices (Goodwin, 1994/2009; Duranti, 1997; Erickson, 1996). While conducting a microethnographic study allows for the inquiry into the relationship between learning the metalanguage of applied linguistics and enactment of practices related to this language, the context of the study provides both an opportunity to further knowledge of a particular research area as well as expand that research to a new context. The study situates itself within a course on teaching second language writing because on the one hand, as a study of a methods course, it furthers research about how such courses may affect teacher knowledge growth and practices. On the other hand, the study is situated in a course on teaching second language writing because few studies have been conducted in this context and none have examined teaching learning and activities. Therefore, this research responds to the need to investigate of teacher learning across multiple activities and across multiple contexts.

Chapter 2 further situates the study through a review of the literature relating to language teacher education and the theoretical frameworks of linguistic anthropology of education and language socialization. The chapter begins with a diachronic summary of language teacher education research and then compares current research and theory about LTE. Following this overview, the chapter continues by presenting studies about language teacher education specifically related to writing. As the review reveals, few studies have explored LTE in this context. The chapter then places the study into the

larger field of linguistic anthropology of education and language socialization. As a study of the metalanguage of applied linguistics and its potential enactment, the concepts of entextualization and recontextualization – how a text becomes a bounded artifact and moves to a new context – are presented from the linguistic anthropology of education. Additionally, the study is placed within the context of studying language socialization across the lifespan, in particular within the context of language socialization in higher and/or professional education. The chapter ends by introducing the current study and specifying the research questions.

Chapter 3 details of the research design of this microethnographic study. The chapter begins with a description of the setting and participants. Following this description, researcher access and the ethics of the research are also addressed. Next, what type of data and how the data were collected are presented including fieldnotes from participant observation; video and transcripts from videotaping; transcripts from interviewing; and, class handouts, discussion board transcripts and teaching portfolios from artifact collection. In this section, transcription conventions are also discussed. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the analytical techniques employed to answer the research questions. Since the study examines language socialization across the course of the semester (Wortham, 2005), analysis focuses across three dimensions of language in use: social context, interactional context, and individual agency (Rymes, 2009) using Goodwin's (1994/2009) practices of seeing – (a) coding; (b) highlighting; and (c) producing and articulating material representations – for this purpose. Limitations of the research methodology conclude the chapter.

Examined within the context of Rymes' (2009) three dimensions of language in use, how the professor presents second language writing theory and research is discussed in Chapter 4. Drawing on course readings and handouts in addition to field notes and videotape logs and/or transcripts, this chapter addresses relevant social context and different interactional contexts that affect classroom talk. Additionally, the chapter explores how the professor exercises her personal agency by selecting among and emphasizing different aspects of the course material. Within these dimensions, the professor's coding scheme for second language theory and research is discussed and the semiotic resources that she uses to highlight and produce material representations of professional practice are investigated. This analysis demonstrates that the professor utilizes multiple activities across multiple contexts to socialize novice language teachers. Additionally, she both provides the text that the novice language teachers use to engage in the processes of entextualization and recontextualization as well as models how to do so as a language teahcer.

Chapter 5 builds on the findings presented in Chapter 4 by focusing the activities of the novice language teachers in the classroom. Once again, classroom activities are considered across Rymes's (2009) three dimensions of language in use; however, these activities are considered from the point-of-view of the novice language teachers rather than the course professor. Although the novice language teachers and the professor may share the same interactional context for some activities, the social context that the novice language teachers find situationally relevant and their individual agency affect the coding schemes, highlighting practices, and material representations of course material. Thus, how the novice language teachers come to entextualize and recontextualize course

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material differs somewhat from the practices presented by the professor. Yet, despite these differences, similarities relating to being a professional within applied linguistics and language teaching emerge.

The analyses of demonstration teaching sessions, called "What Works Reports," in Chapter 6 further elucidates language socialization and the processes of entextualization and recontextualization for novice language teachers. The close analyses of two exemplary sessions across the three dimensions using Goodwin's (1994/2009) framework, demonstrate how differing contexts and/or practices produce different enactments of the metalanguage of applied linguistics introduced by the professor. Previous modeling and the individual agency they exhibit in enacting second language writing practices suggested by applied linguistics theory and research become particularly significant.

The study concludes by returning to the discussion of the relationship of the metalanguage of applied linguistics and actual practices. The use and enactment of this metalanguage across multiple activities and multiple contexts exhibited in this study suggest that this metalanguage may socialize novice language teachers to think and act like a teacher. However, different social contexts and individual agency may affect how the teachers come to entextualize and recontextualize the course material in their future teaching. Thus, this study supports the literature that suggests that novice language teachers should learn the metalanguage of applied linguistics; however, it also evidences the need for novice language teachers to have multiple opportunities to entextualize and recontextualize course materials across multiple contexts.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Deliberate inquiry into how language teachers learn to teach a language has trailed behind the investigation of second language acquisition, pedagogical grammar, instructional methods, and assessment. In 1987, Richards lamented the paucity of research regarding the preparation of language teachers; a little over a decade later, Freeman and Johnson (1998) renewed Richard's lament in a special issue of *TESOL Quarterly* on language teacher education. They argued, "Teacher education has been much done but relatively little studied in the field" (p. 398). Thus, they proposed a reconceptualization of "the knowledge-base of language teacher education" and promoted a research agenda to study language teacher education. Their proposal has prompted both a productive debate about what comprises this knowledge-base as well as a number of studies about language teacher preparation. These studies have included research about teacher cognition and expertise (e.g., Borg, 2003, 2006; Putnam & Borko, 2000; Tsui, 2003), teacher identity and the question of native-speaker status (e.g., Braine, 1999; Kahmi-Stein, 2004; Lin, Wang, Akamatsu & Riazi, 2005; D. Liu, 1998; J. Liu, 1999; Llurda, 2005; Varghese, Morgan Johnston & Johnson, 2005), content area knowledge (e.g., Freeman & Johnson, 2004, 2005; Mullock, 2006; Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson, 2002; Watzke, 2007; Yates & Muchisky, 2003), contextual influences (e.g., Halbach, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006; Ramanathan, 2002; Ramanathan, Davies & Schleppegrell, 2001), and professional development practices (e.g., Henning, 1999; Richards, 1998). This study focuses on how classroom

discourse by participants in one course of a Master's TESOL program socializes future language teachers to utilize research and theories from applied linguistics in their instructional practices.

Focusing on classroom discourse builds on the work of scholars who have characterized language-teacher education as a process of language socialization into the communicative practices of the discipline (e.g., Bartels, 2004; Clarke, 2008; Crookes, 1998; Freeman, 1994; Gee, 2004; Hedgcock, 2002, 2009). While these scholars argue that language teacher education is a process of language socialization, they do not agree on what constitutes the communicative practices of the discipline. Instead they have questioned (a) whether or not applied linguistics and language teaching are two distinct discourses and (b) whether the disciplinary metalanguage – the theory and research – from applied linguistics helps future practitioners with their language instruction. Drawing on Gee's (1996) distinction between discourse, "stretches of language that make sense, like conversations, stories, reports, arguments, essays, and so forth" and capital "D" Discourse, "ways of being in the world, or forms of life which integrate words, acts, values, beliefs, attitudes, and social identities, as well as gestures, glances, body positions, and clothes" (p. 127), Hedgcock (2002) argues that the metalanguage of applied linguistics is an intrinsic part of the Discourse of language teaching rather than its own unique Discourse. By invoking Gee's concept of Discourse, Hedgcock implies that utilizing a metalanguage of applied linguistics is not only speaking in a specialized register but also enacting the "ways of being the world" discussed in applied linguistics research and associated with being a language teacher. In contrast, Bartels (2004) suggests that theories and research in applied linguistics and actual teaching practice

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represent two competing discourse communities. Bartels does believe that applied

linguistics researchers and language teachers inhabit the same community of practice;

thus, they do not share a common Discourse. What constitutes, or should constitute,

these communicative practices remains one of the primary questions in language teacher

education. Describing the debate over what should comprise the knowledge base of

language teacher education, Johnson (2006) writes, "Fundamental to this debate is

whether the knowledge base should remain grounded in 'core disciplinary knowledge

about the nature of language and language acquisition' or focus more centrally on how

L2 teachers learn to teach and how they carry out their work" (p. 239, citing Yates &

Muchisky, 2003, p. 136). Different conceptualizations regarding the knowledge base for

teacher education represent trends in approaches to research in the social science as well

as different conceptualizations of sociopolitical climates.

2.1   Research in Language Teacher Education

        Authors of reviews about research in language teacher education (Borg, 2003,

2006; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2006) suggest that researchers have adopted one of three

epistemological stances: (a) a behavioral approach; (b) a cognitive approach; and, (c) a

sociocultural approach. More recently, scholars have also adopted a critical approach to

language teacher education research as well. These stances roughly coincide with four

time periods: (a) pre-1980s; (b) 1980-1990; (c) 1990 – 2000; and (d) 2000-present.

Neither these epistemological stances nor time periods offer ideal categories for

differentiating research in language teacher education. Reported research may include

only tacit acknowledgement of a particular approach, represent more than one approach,

or suggest yet another alternative approach. Similarly, approaches to research are not firmly bounded by these set time periods. For example, research from a cognitivist perspective occurred before the 1980s and continues today. Despite these inconsistencies, these categories offer a useful heuristic for tracing the progress of research in language teacher education.

Behavioral approaches to research in language teacher education focused upon linking specific teacher practices to student language acquisition. Teacher educators could then provide novice language teachers with an effective skill set that could be used in the classroom. In this "process-product" approach (Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2006; Richards, 1987), researchers examined what a teacher did in the class and whether or not it led to learning gains. Researchers, thus, began a program of systematic classroom observation to discover what might constitute the best methods in language teaching. Elaborate observation and coding schemes, such as the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme (COLT; Allen, Frölich & Spada, 1984) and the Target Language Observation Scheme (TALOS; Ullman & Geva, 1985), were developed to aid researchers as they observed classroom practices such as use of the target language, use of the first language, teacher talk time, questions, positive and negative reinforcement, evaluation, pacing, gestures, etc. In a seminal study, Long et al. (1984) examined the efficacy of instructing teachers on the difference between display and referential questions and the benefits of longer wait-time. They concluded that this type of intervention "affected teaching behaviors, and that the new behaviors affected student participation patterns in ways believed to be significant for these students' language acquisition" (p. vi). Data from studies like Long et al. (1984) were used to identify

patterns of behavior that appeared to be instrumental in language learning and these behaviors were then taught to language teachers as strategies for effective language teaching (Freeman, 2002). As this approach did not examine the reasons for these instructional behaviors, Richards (1987) and other critics suggested that this approach to teacher preparation led to a training paradigm in which teachers only implemented others' ideas.

General education research into the "mental life" of teachers (Walberg, 1977) changed the research approach in language teacher education from a process-product one to one that concentrated on "elucidat[ing] the concepts and thinking processes that guide the effective language teacher" (Richards, 1987, p. 222). This cognitive approach to research focused on how teachers use their knowledge in the classroom and how their decisions affect instructional practice. Although this research also considered content knowledge and teaching methods, its primary focus was on the role of the teacher in the classroom (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).   To elucidate the mental life of teachers, researchers examined teachers' decision-making processes (e.g., Bailey, 1996), their pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) – a hybrid of content and pedagogy (e.g., Bartels, 1999), their personal practical knowledge – the experiential history of teachers (e.g., Golombek, 1998; cf. Freeman 1996b), the hidden pedagogy – teachers' implicit beliefs about the purpose of teaching (e.g., Breen, 1991; Burns, 1996), and language use (e.g., Mitchell, Brumfit & Hooper, 1994). Language teacher educators then attempted to use findings from this research to teach future teachers to make effective instructional decisions based on their personal experiences and professional education rather than to merely execute a particular skill set. Yet, although this research acknowledged the

agency of future teachers in their own learning and teaching, it still did not always capture the entirety of the process.

Recent research builds on work on teacher cognition, but frames its work within a sociocultural paradigm that defines "human learning as a dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts, and distributed across persons, tools, and activities" (Johnson, 2006, p. 237). In their 1998 call for a reconceptualization of language teacher education research, Freeman and Johnson suggest that researchers should attend to three issues: "(a) the nature of the teacher-learners; (b) the nature of schools and schooling; and (c) the nature of language teaching, in which we include pedagogical thinking and activity, the subject matter and the content, and language learning" (p. 406). As in research on teacher cognition, Freeman and Johnson (1998, 2004, 2005) focus upon the teacher-learner in their reconceptualization of the knowledge base of language teacher education, but they also assert that researchers and language teacher educators need to understand sociocultural contexts which influence and affect a teacher-learner's decision making. Additionally, they suggest that researchers and language teacher educators need to understand how teachers make sense of disciplinary knowledge. Their focus on the teacher-learner has fueled much of the debate about their model. Johnson (2006, p. 239) summarizes issues that have arisen from this debate: any repositioning of the core knowledge base would lead to greater attention to the personal and experiential at the expense of the empirical and theoretical (citing Yates & Muchisky, 2003); this repositioning takes away from the subject matter that makes language teachers and their teaching unique (citing Tarone & Allwright, 2005); and, this conceptualization of the knowledge-based of teacher education erodes the authority and professionalism of

language teachers (citing Widdowson, 2002). These critiques suggest that Freeman and Johnson have dismissed the value of the empirical educational research in favor of personal and experiential discourses. Freeman and Johnson (2004, 2005) have responded to these critiques by arguing that teacher education should attend to how teacher's prior knowledge and context, which would include their knowledge of empirical research and pedagogical theories, influences them in making sense of language teaching, i.e. the situated, socially constructed nature of language teaching (see also Bartels, 2003; Clarke 1994, 2008; Crookes, 1998; Kramsch, 1995; Markee, 1998; McDonough & McDonough, 1990).

Ramanathan (2002; Ramanathan et al., 2001) and Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2006) also have suggested a reconfiguration of the foci in language teacher education research that attends to the situated, socially constructed nature of language teacher education; however, using a critical lens, they frame language teacher education within the global context. Kumaravadivelu (2006) argues that programs should move beyond current disciplinary practices to encourage awareness of "local knowledge" (Canagarajah, 2005), the knowledge located in the environment where English is being taught. As World Englishes flourish and English is increasingly being taught as an international language (McKay, 2002), Kumaravadivelu (2006) argues that the sociopolitical context greatly impacts both language teaching and language teacher education. Furthermore, he argues that these conditions have created a "postmethod condition." Given the diverse contexts in which English is taught, no one method proves most effective. Thus, he has proposed a "postmethod pedagogy" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006). He suggests that language teaching should consist of three parameters: (a) a pedagogy of particularity – situational

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understanding; (b) a pedagogy of particularity – pedagogical thoughtfulness; and (c) a

pedagogy of possibility – critical pedagogy based on a Freiren model. He argues that

language teacher education programs should move beyond a transmission model of

education to a transformative model of education. In a transmission model, novice

teachers learn content knowledge from their teachers and then apply it to the classroom.

In contrast, a transformative model of education encourages students to continually

recreate personal meaning in light of their context. Ramanathan (2002) also suggests that

teacher education programs should encourage students to examine broader sociopolitical

and theoretical constructs that undergird language teaching. She believes that language

teacher education programs should promote a meta-awareness of disciplinary concerns.

In teacher education programs, novice teachers should be asked to interrogate "how . . .

they sustain and reproduce certain valued genres and text types in the discipline, how

their cognitions are shaped by what is immediately available in their environments, how

materials they use in classrooms are not as value free as they seem" (p. 4). In developing

this meta-awareness and encouraging awareness of local knowledge, Ramanathan (2002)

believes that "novice teachers learn to move beyond the oppositions that seem endemic to

teacher education (qualitative vs. quantitative research methods, sociolinguistic versus

cognitive approach to language learning, communicative language teaching versus

traditional methods) toward developing a more nuanced, comprehensive critical theory of

practice" (p. 146). Both Kumaravadivelu's and Ramanathan's models highlight the

necessity of developing critical thinking skills in language teacher education programs.

　　　While these recent approaches to language teacher education attempt to

distinguish themselves from one another by either their epistemological or ideological

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stance, they share some common characteristics. All of the frameworks acknowledge the role that context – whether at the level of schools and schooling, within the discipline of language teacher education, or larger geopolitics – plays in how novice teachers come to understandings about language learning and teaching and how context may promote or impede certain practices. Empirical research supports this focus on context. Ramathan et al. (2001) constrasted two MA-TESOL programs and noted how disciplinary location – one program was in a linguistics department while the other was in an English department – led to different program foci. Lin et al. (2005) share their professional autobiographies to illustrate the tensions that arise when non-native English speaking teacher-learners attend teacher education programs in the West. They suggest that language teacher education programs need to reconsider the status of English and English-teaching outside the West as well as the non-native English speaker construct. This research emphasizes the need to consider context in program planning.

In addition to their focus on context, recent approaches to language teacher education encourage an awareness of how teacher beliefs affect their classroom practices, and how those practices can, in turn affect student learning. Furthermore, despite critiques that suggest that these approaches create a division between theory and practice (e.g., Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Widdowson, 2002; Yates & Muchisky, 2003), all of the more recent paradigms of language teacher education use the disciplinary metalanguage to teach teachers to use theories about language learning and teaching to guide practice. Furthermore, researchers from other linguistic subfields have explicitly connected findings from second language acquisition and sociolinguistics to classroom practices. Pica (1994, 1997, 2000) discusses the relationship between second language teaching and

research, noting how they mutually inform one another about cognitive processes, social processes and processes of implementation. Others have also drawn explicit connections between second language acquisition research and language teaching (e.g. Lightbown, 2000; Long, 1990). Hornberger (2004) has applied the continua of biliteracy framework to bilingual teacher education, using it to demonstrate how teacher education must address various sociolinguistic "dilemmas" in the field: the global/local, the standard/nonstandard, language/content, and language/culture/identity. As all of the models point out, this research offers a vital knowledge base for the novice teacher. However, the models also point out that teacher and/or local knowledge should be equally valued.

Johnson (2006, 2009) has suggested methods for instructing teacher-learners in integrating theory and method; these methods also present opportunities for teachers to develop meta-awareness about their own teaching, the third commonality among the frameworks. Among her suggestions she includes case-based methods and professional development schools. Using case-based methods, teacher educators ask novice teachers to use disciplinary metalanguage to critically analyze the intersection of theory and practice in safe environments. Cases may be presented as narratives, written transcripts or through video. Johnson (2006) notes computer mediated communication may also serve as another venue for teachers to further reflect on the intersection of theory and practice in particular cases (see also e.g., Hawkins, 2004). Professional development schools are similar to medical schools in that teachers participate in course work at the school while actively engaged in teaching at either an affiliated school or a "lab-school" located at the professional development school. In this context, novice teachers have the

opportunity to actively apply theory to practice, interrogate their success, come to understand the contextual factors that impacted their decisions and their impact, etc. This environment presents the novice teachers with near-peer mentors that help socialize them into the community of practice in which they are teaching. Other field experiences that have been suggested have included ethnographic research about novice teachers' teaching contexts, including community, institutional, historical and sociopolitical contexts (e.g., Johnson, 2006; Rymes, 2002).

Thus, recent theory and research in language teacher education emphasizes developing teacher awareness of practice, integrating theory and practice, raising consciousness about context, and learning to talk about it using the disciplinary metalanguage of applied linguistics. However, despite the growing number of students about language teacher education, more generally, few studies have examined how teachers learn the metalanguage of teaching second language writing and how they subsequently use this metalanguage to help them reflect upon and enact theory in their own teaching.

2.2   Learning to Teach Writing

In his review of the literature on language teacher education, Borg (2003) identifies only eight studies in teacher education that focus on literacy (i.e., Collie Garden, 1996; Johnson, 1992; Meijer et al. 1999, 2001; Tercanlioglu, 2001; Ulichny, 1996). Of those eight, only two examine teacher education within the context of learning to teach writing: Burns (1992) and Tsui (1996). Although Borg does not capture all the studies on learning to teach ESL writing (e.g., Brock, 1994; Scott & Rodgers, 1995;

Winer, 1992), overall, this avenue of research still remains relatively unexplored. This

dearth of empirical research[1] may reflect the relative lack of programs in which to

conduct research. Matsuda (2003) writes, "[U]ntil relatively recently, only [a] few post-

baccalaureate professional preparation programs in TESL [Teaching English as a Second

Language] or related fields offered a course in second language writing in [the] US" (p.

22), and Uysal (2007) suggests that even fewer courses are offered in English as a

Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. Despite the limited number of studies, research in this

area demonstrates that studying how teachers learn to teach writing may provide further

insight into how novice teachers integrate theory and practice.

     Several studies investigate whether or not courses on teaching writing could

change negative teacher attitudes caused by their own anxiety about writing and

identifying "good" writing (Brock, 1994; Winer, 1992). Winer (1992) discusses a

writing practicum in which students observed writing courses and recorded their

observations through daily journal writing. Five instructional strategies were identified

by the students as changing their negative attitudes about writing and teaching writing:

designing and providing feedback to writing tasks, mandatory revisions of their own

writing product, guided peer-coaching, and keeping journals. Similarly, Brock (1994)

describes how teachers' attitudes and classroom practices about teaching writing can

change if they are trained in innovative practices and encouraged to critically reflect on

their innovations.

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[1] Several papers provide suggestions for about teaching novice or pre-service language
teachers to teach writing, but are not empirical research articles (e.g., Raimes, 2002;
Uysal, 2007).

Other studies (Burns, 1992; Tsui, 1996; Scott & Rodgers, 1995) examine how novice teachers learned to change their approach to teaching writing. Scott and Rodgers (1995) describe how teachers changed their methods for teaching and grading writing assignments following a 9-week collaborative project involving a process approach writing course in which the teachers wrote and learned theories and techniques relating to holistic grading and giving written feedback. Tsui (1996) presents a case study in which an EFL writing teacher positioned the teaching of writing as a problem-solving activity and attempted to find solutions as she encountered various problems. This approach allowed her to change her attitude about writing from that of a technical skill to creative activity. Collectively, these studies demonstrate that language teacher education combats negative attitudes regarding the teaching of writing and may allow teachers opportunities to critically reflect on the intersection of theory and practice. Yet, these studies do not explicitly interrogate whether or how the teachers learn the disciplinary metalanguage related to second language writing pedagogy and how this metalanguage might help them integrate theory and practice.

2.3   Linguistic Anthropology of Education and Language Socialization

Although they may disagree on what discursive practices novice teachers need to learn, a number of scholars consider language teacher education, in general, and language teacher education about writing, in particular, as a process of language socialization into disciplinary discourses (e.g., Bartels, 2004; Clarke, 2008; Crookes, 1998; Freeman, 1994, 1996a; Gee, 2004; Hedgcock, 2002, 2009). Additionally, they suggest that the language of teachers should not only be viewed as a representational data source for teacher

thought, but rather as a dynamic vehicle that teachers employ to recreate professional

knowledge and identity. Freeman (1996a) specifically suggests that researchers use

concepts from linguistic theory to study how teachers construct knowledge. Yet while

Freeman (1996a) focuses on using linguistic theory to study teacher education, discourse

analytical studies in education are not new. Early studies on classroom discourse

investigated classroom interactional patterns between teachers and students (e.g., Cazden,

1988; Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), differing participation structures (e.g.,

Heath, 1983; McDermott, 1976; Philips, 1982), code-switching (e.g., Martin-Jones, 1995

reviewing two decades of research). Such research continues today and has been

informed by theories from language socialization as well as the linguistic anthropology of

education. While teacher education courses have not been of central focus, scholars have

studied communicative practices in higher education more generally (e.g., Benwell &

Stokoe, 2002; Mori, 2002; Stokoe, 2000) as well as other professional education contexts,

such as medical education (e.g., Erickson, 2004), legal education (e.g., Mertz, 1996,

2007), anthropology (e.g., Goodwin, 1994/2009), physics (Jacoby & Gonzales, 1991;

Ochs, Gonzales & Jacoby, 1996), and cosmetology (Jacobs-Huey, 2003, 2006). This

study draws on theories and methods from the linguistic anthropology of education

(Wortham, 2008; Wortham & Rymes, 2003) and language socialization (Rymes, 2008) to

explore the classroom discourse of participants in a course on second language writing

pedagogy.

The linguistic anthropology of education (LAE) emerges from scholarship in

linguistic anthropology and sociolinguistics that focused on educational contexts

(Hornberger, 2003). Under the umbrella of the ethnography of communication (Gumperz

& Hymes, 1972/1986), early anthropologists and sociolinguists examined communicative practices in educational institutions (e.g., Cazden & Hymes, 1972; Gumperz, 1982; Heath, 1983; Philips, 1983). Current linguistic anthropologists of education continue with this tradition and draw on fundamental concepts from linguistic anthropology. Wortham (2003) identifies three concepts that were of central concern to early linguistic anthropologists of education: (a) a focus on studying language in use rather than in the abstract; (b) understanding the point-of-view of the social actors in the context; and, (c) trying to connect micro- and macro-level social processes (p. 4). Although linguistic anthropologists of education continue to draw on these concepts, Wortham (2003) points out that they also have other theoretical models available to them. Among these models are intertexuality and the natural histories of discourse, or the process of entextualization and recontextualization. These models represent a means for understanding how novice language teachers select among and reinterpret course subject matter as they learn to teach writing.

The processes of how a text – the discourse of the lived experience – comes to be a bounded and defined as a movable artifact and how this text artifact is temporally transmitted and positioned can be considered through the theoretical lens of the natural histories of discourse (Silverstein & Urban, 1996), or in other words, the processes of entextualization and recontextualization (Bauman & Briggs, 1990). This theoretical paradigm builds on the work of social scientists such as Ricoeur (1981) and Geertz (1973) who conceive of culture as a text or texts that can be read. The lived experience may be entextualized, described by Urban (1996, p. 21) as "rendering a given instance of discourse a text, detachable from its local context" and then recontextualized or re-

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embedded into a new context (Silverstein & Urban, 1996). Although the process of

entextualization may allow for the possibility of text artifacts being transmitted through

time carrying durable inherent meaning, the process of recontextualizing the text also

presents the possibility of text artifacts being positioned in new contexts so that they

acquire new and/or different meanings (Silverstein & Urban, 1996, p. 2). This possibility

of a text artifact acquiring a new and/or different "interpretative meaning" is often

realized in classroom discourse about empirical research and theory.

 Classroom discourse about empirical research and demonstration teaching

sessions may be portrayed as mere replication, attempts to reproduce text artifacts

(Urban, 1996), albeit in a shorter form. Some rhetorical strategies, such as reported

speech, do appear to closely replicate the text artifact. Other strategies, such as

paraphrase, change the text artifact by truncating and overtly altering the denotational

text. However, the realization of the replication of a text and its inherent meaning may be

an elusive goal. Even an exact replication of the original text artifact, to say nothing of

the discourse of the lived experience, would still occur in a new temporal context and be

intended for a new audience (Silverstein & Urban, 1996). Furthermore, lexical and

grammatical devices used to paraphrase or report speech position the text artifact vis-à-

vis its new context. These new positions are suggestive of the "interpretative meaning"

of the text for the author (Wortham, 2001). The lexico-grammatical devices used to

create these new positions may be, among other things, personal pronouns (Wortham,

1996), adjectives (Carter & McCarthy, 2006), and metapragmatic descriptors (Silverstein,

1976). In the classroom discourse and demonstration teaching session in this study, these

devices are used extensively to recontextualize text artifacts from the course material to

present a new "interpretative meaning" about how to teaching second language writing.

How novice language teachers come to learn the process of entextualization and recontextualization of research and theory in applied linguistics may be considered through the lens of language socialization. Garrett and Baquedano-López (2002) define socialization as "the process through which a child or other novice acquires the knowledge, orientations, and practices that enable him or her to participate effectively and appropriately in the social life of a particular community" (p. 339). To define language socialization, Schieffelin and Ochs (1986; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1983, 1984) built on a similar definition of socialization. They (1986) describe language socialization as the process in which a child or other novice learns to use language of a community, and they also represent language socialization as a practice in which more experienced community members use language to socialize novices. Novices, however, are not merely passive receptacles of language and sociocultural knowledge; they interact with other group members to co-construct meaningful utterances (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002).

Early research on socialization, in general, and language socialization, in particular, focused primarily on the socialization of children. For example, Ochs and Schieffelin (1984) describe different care-giver speech patterns of members of an Anglo-American white middle-class community, a Kaluli community and a Samoan community. Ochs and Schieffelin propose that these different patterns represent orienting features that guide children through their development. However, they do not consider such orienting features fixed signposts towards development. The orienting features are participatory activities that allow children to learn the language of the community and learn through

this language its practices. Although Rogoff (1991) does not specifically address language socialization, she also suggests that collaborative activities contribute to the process of learning the knowledge and practices of a community. In her study, Rogoff demonstrates how children working as apprentices to adults or more experienced children could complete a problem-solving activity involving maps more rapidly than those who worked alone or without a more experienced mentor. Rogoff concludes that she considers the process as "one of appropriation in which through participation, children transform their understanding and skill in solving the problem" (p. 362). Although Rogoff considers the general concept of socialization and Ochs and Schieffelin (1984) consider language socialization in particular, the three researchers demonstrate the importance of guided, interactive instruction in the process of teaching the novice the mores of the community.

More recent studies have also examined language socialization across the lifespan, and some research has investigated how interactions within professional education socialize novices into the discourses and practices of the community. Mertz (1996, 1998, 2007) describes how interactions within the law school classroom socialize law students into the ideologies of the legal discipline and prepare them for their eventual profession. Jacoby and Gonzales (1991) and Ochs, Gonzales and Jacoby (1996) examine how physicists and their graduate students interact with one another and their environment to (a) explore natural phenomena and (b) actively contribute to scientific knowledge. While their research demonstrates how interactions guide novices to full participation in the community, it also problematizes the concepts of novice and expert. Jacoby and Gonzales (1991) show how shifts in focal events may affect who is

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acknowledged as an expert and who is acknowledged as a novice. Additionally, they suggest that expert-novice interaction may cause innovation and add new knowledge to the community (Ochs, Gonzales & Jacoby 1996).

Thus, children and adults in novice roles must participate in interactions in order to learn the language, knowledge and practices of a community. Yet, as non-expert members of the community, they cannot fully participate in all activities. They do not have the tools with which to do so. Instead, they engage in "legitimate peripheral participation" (Lave & Wenger 1991; Wenger 1998). Those who engage in legitimate peripheral participation do not stand on the outside of the community observing. Legitimate peripheral participation represents social interaction within community less than but moving towards full participation. Furthermore, neither legitimate peripheral participation nor language socialization are activities that occur in defined spaces. Rather, novices are socialized into the ethos of a particular community of practice. Lave and Wenger (1991) define a community of practice (CofP) as "a set of relations among persons, activity, and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice" (p. 98). Most people belong to more than one CofP: some informal such as their extended family or neighborhood; others more formal such as their academic field, religion, profession. Yet for each CofP in which someone participates, they must be socialized into the relations specific to that community of practice. This study considers the community of practice of applied linguistics and language teaching and how novices are socialized into the communicative practices of teaching second language writing.

2.4   The Current Study

Situating itself within the traditions of studies in the linguistic anthropology of education and language socialization, this study contributes to research in language teacher education about second language writing pedagogy by exploring how novice English language teachers interpret and enact the theory and research presented in a Master's TESOL course, Teaching Writing to ESL Students, at a graduate school of education in the northeastern United States. First, it investigates how novice language teachers select among and reinterpret course subject matter, based on their own pre-existing ideas and based on their professional goals and aspirations. Second, the study examines how novice English teachers act when they teach writing in demonstration teaching sessions, "What Works Reports." The following research questions will be addressed:

(1)   How do novice language teachers interpret theory and research presented in a M.S.Ed. – TESOL course on teaching writing to ESL students?

a.   How are the theories and research of writing pedagogy presented in the M.S.Ed. – TESOL course?

b.   How do novice language teachers select among and reinterpret subject matter, based on their own pre-existing ideas and on their ideas about what they will face as teachers in the field?

(2)   How do novice English language teachers act when they teach writing in demonstration teaching sessions? Do their actions match their interpretations of what should be done? Although data are not yet available to answer this question in students' own future work as writing teachers, preliminary answers can be gathered from students' behavior in in-class demonstration teaching sessions.

a.   What theories and research on writing pedagogy does a novice language teacher present in his or her demonstration teaching activity? What do these presentations reveal about the student's interpretation of the subject matter?

b.   What is the structure of the demonstration teaching activity? How do teacher, student teacher and students organize themselves so as to role-play an instructional activity with one of the students as teacher?

c.   Does the student teacher's behavior reveal anything about his or her interpretation of the subject matter being enacted—in how s/he structures the lesson, presents material, and treats the other students?

d.   Are there similarities across students in how they do this demonstration teaching activity? Do all students approach it in the same way, or are there different patterns among different types of students?

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

To answer these questions, a microethnographic study was conducted in two

sections of a course on teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) writing in a

M.S.ED.-TESOL program in a graduate school of education in the northeastern United

States during the fall 2005 semester. Over the course of the semester, I engaged in

participant observation, videotaped class time, interviewed students, and collected course

artifacts. This data was then analyzed using Goodwin's (1994) practices of seeing.

Details of the research methodology are described below.

3.1   Setting

This study occurred in an elective course of a M.S.ED.-TESOL program in a

graduate school of education during the 2005 fall semester. The graduate school of

education is part of large research university, in the eastern United States that is

internationally known for the excellence of its graduate programs and professional

schools. This recognition extends to its graduate school of education and TESOL

program. Thus, the TESOL program attracts students from around the globe, and the

majority of students enrolled in the program are international students. During the year

of this study, the 2005-2006 academic year, a total of 104 students were enrolled in the

program and 85, or approximately 82%, were international students. Of those 85

students, one student came from China, one from Israel, eight from Japan, 34 from South

Korea, one from Turkey, and 40 from Taiwan (program administrator, personal

communication, June 4, 2006). While many of the students in the TESOL program are international students, they are either advanced learners or expert speakers of English. In order to be admitted to the university, they must demonstrate their communicative competence in English on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) or the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) exam.[1] In keeping with the international character of the student body, at the time of the study, all four members of the standing faculty in the TESOL program had taught and/or conducted research outside the United States, and one of the faculty members was an international scholar.

During the 2005-2006 academic year, the TESOL program required students to complete twelve credit units, the equivalent of twelve courses at the university. Three of the twelve courses are required of all students: Approaches to Teaching English and Other Modern Languages, Educational Linguistics, and Sociolinguistics in Education. Additionally, students had to complete one fieldwork course: TESOL Observation or TESOL Practice. As a final requirement, students completed a thirty-hour project or internship in partial fulfillment of their comprehensive exam. International students also had to take Language for Specific Purposes as an "introduction to the academic language use at the University" (Language for Specific Purposes syllabus, fall 2005); however, the course could count as one of their electives. In addition to their required courses, students also took seven elective courses (student handbook, 2005-2006). Although students were permitted to take as many as five courses per semester, most took three and graduated from the TESOL program sometime during their second year of study. This

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[1] International students who hold a degree from an institution whose primary language of instruction is English do not have to meet this requirement.

study investigates the classroom practices in one of the elective courses in the TESOL program, Teaching Writing to ESL Students.

3.1.1   Teaching Writing to ESL Students

An elective class, Teaching Writing to ESL Students, is usually offered in the fall semester. Because of the course's timing, students who enroll in this class usually do so during their second year in the TESOL program. The required courses, Approaches to Teaching English and Other Modern Languages and Educational Linguistics, as well as Language for Specific Purposes, also meet in the fall semester. Many students take these required courses first, and then enroll in elective courses such as Teaching Writing. However, some students do take Teaching Writing during their first semester in the TESOL program. During the fall 2005 semester, two sections of Teaching Writing were taught. Each section of the course was held from 12-2pm on Monday and Tuesday, Section 1 and Section 2 respectively.

The physical settings for each section of the course were similar. Each class was held in a first-floor seminar room in the graduate school of education. The rooms had blackboards on two walls, and a projection screen could be lowered in front of one of the chalkboards. Furthermore, they were equipped with computers, VCR/DVD players, and overhead projectors. The chairs in the rooms for both sections of the course faced the primary blackboard, the blackboard over which the projection screen could be lowered. Although the chairs in both sections faced in the same direction, they had different configurations. In the room used for the Section 1 of the course, the chairs were aligned in rows; in the room used for Section 2 of the course, the chairs were arranged in two

semi-circles. Regardless of their usual configuration, the chairs were often moved during

class to form clusters for small group discussions. Furthermore, in both rooms, a lectern

containing the computer, VCR/DVD player, and overhead projector was located to the

left of the blackboard when facing towards the lectern. In the room in which Section 1

was held, the lectern directly faced the students, but the lectern in the room used for

Section 2 was perpendicular to the primary blackboard. Both the professor and the

students used the lectern, equipment, and blackboards during large group discussions and

presentations. The classroom used for Section 2 also had windows. (See Figures 3.1 and

3.2 below for visual representations of the classrooms.)

Figure 3.1   Section 1 Classroom
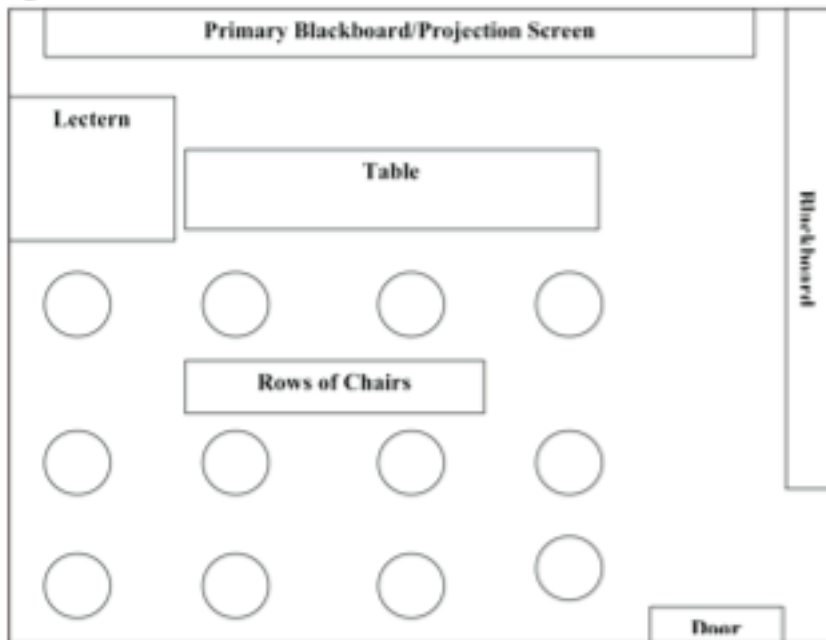
Figure 3.2   Section 2 Classroom
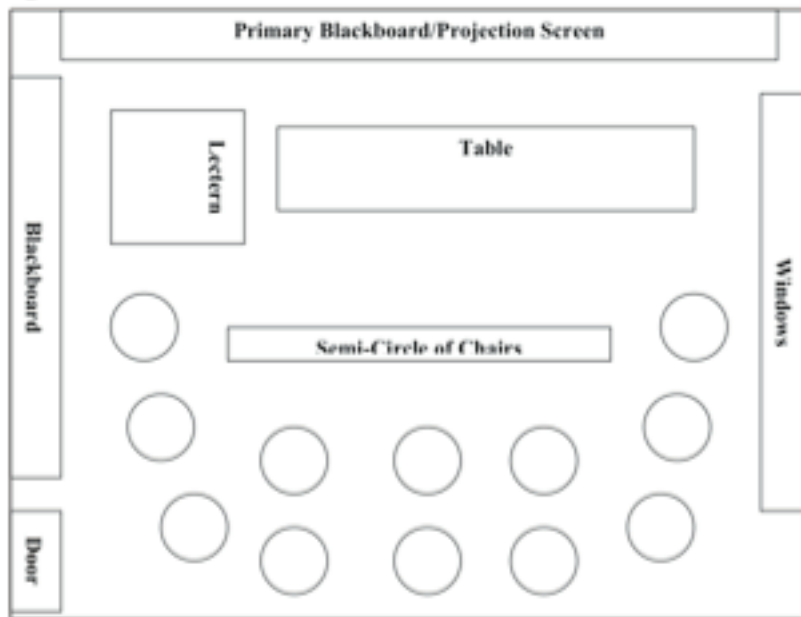
The syllabus outlined the course goals, materials, and requirements (see Appendix A for copy of course syllabus). The course goals were described as follows:

> This course explores various theories of composition and rhetoric, especially as these relate to ESL/EFL writers and the teaching of writing to these students. We will examine the pedagogical implications of these theories for composition teachers in a variety of settings, and we will explore and critically reflect on the practical applications of these approaches in the language classroom. Students will begin to develop their own philosophy of teaching composition in linguistically diverse settings, and gain "hands-on" experience in developing and implementing teaching materials, classroom activities, lesson plans, assessment tools, learning communities, uses of technology, and a wide range of teaching strategies. (course syllabus, fall 2005, p. 1)

Required course materials included two textbooks: *Teaching ESL Composition: Purpose, Process and Practice* by Dana Ferris and John Hedgcock (2005) and *Understanding ESL Writers: A Guide for Teachers* by Ilona Leki (1992); other required readings were compiled in a bulkpack. In addition to reading, students were expected to attend class and participate in discussions and contribute to on-line discussion boards. Furthermore,

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they were expected to complete three assignments: a teaching portfolio, a "What Works" report, and a final group project. During "What Works" reports, students first reported on theoretical and/or methodological points raised in the literature about a topic in the teaching of writing that interested them. They then demonstrated a teaching activity or strategy relating to the topic discussed. The final group project required students to "develop materials for one unit in a composition course leading up to, and through, a major writing project." Student groups presented their projects during the final class and received critique from the professor so that they might improve their project prior to submitting it for evaluation.

3.1.2   Site Selection, Access, and Ethics

The course, Teaching Writing to ESL Students, offered an ideal location for the study of how novice teachers in TESOL integrate theory and practice within the confines of a teacher-education course. First, because it is an elective course, students may enroll in Teaching Writing because of genuine interest in the subject area as opposed to being required to take the course. Such student interest allows for the possibility of lively engagement with the course materials as well as in discussion and projects. Second, since students usually enroll in Teaching Writing after they have completed at least some of their required coursework, they are not true novices. In other words, they already have been exposed to theories and practices in TESOL and gained some expertise with TESOL's professional discourse. International students, who represent the majority of this program's population, have also had time to accustom themselves more generally to the academic discourse of the university. As Gee (2004) notes, graduate students are

unable to actively participate within their community of practice when they lack knowledge of the community's discourse. In this instance, however, the students have the ability to critically engage the literature and illustrations of practice instead of merely decoding what is being said or done. Third, this course was taught by a member of the standing faculty who had previously taught the course. Her position and experience made her intimately aware of the composition and needs of the student body of the TESOL program. This allowed her to create a curriculum suited to the goals of the TESOL program as well as her students' professional goals.   Finally, one of the course goals of Teaching Writing to ESL Students was critical reflection upon the pedagogical implications of the theories of composition and rhetoric – the topic of inquiry for this dissertation.

Reflecting on the pedagogical implications of educational theory does not represent a unique stance in a graduate school of education. Most courses, including those in the TESOL program, share this goal, and many also offer opportunities to apply theory to practice either through classroom activities or in actual teaching situations. Yet, this course did afford opportunities to examine teacher training in a particular subject area, second language composition and rhetoric, an area that has not been widely studied. As noted previously, only a handful of studies have focused on learning literacy instruction in language teacher education, and even fewer specifically address learning to teach writing to second language learners. Additionally, none of these studies have analyzed classroom interactions within teacher education courses on second language writing pedagogy. This study, thus, adds to the literature on teacher education within the

field of second language composition and rhetoric, and employs a new research methodology to investigate teacher learning within this context.

In order to gain access to the Teaching Writing course during the fall 2005 semester, I initially met with the course professor during the first week of the semester and explained my research interests and my desire to investigate her class. During our discussion, we established the scope of my inquiry and data collection methods. She was enthusiastic about my research questions and gave me permission to approach the students in the class about my study the following week. She further suggested that prior to my attending class she send out an introductory e-mail from me to the students; the e-mail was sent later that day (see Appendix B for copy of introductory e-mail). I then came to both sections of the course the following week. The professor introduced me and I then outlined my study to the students, provided them with my contact information for questions, and distributed a consent form (see Appendix C for a copy of the consent form). I asked that they read over the consent form, contact the course professor or me if they had any questions, and then return it to me the following week if they were willing to participate in the study. All of the students in both sections of the course agreed to participate in the study. Additionally, when my study was completed, some students also agreed to share their teaching portfolios with me and/or be interviewed (see Appendices D and E for copies of portfolio and interview requests).

3.2   Participants

As the focus of inquiry, the students enrolled in Teaching Writing to ESL Students were the primary participants in the study. In total, 36 students were enrolled in

the course and all of them participated in the study. Additional participants included the course professor and a visiting scholar from the People's Republic of China who occasionally sat in on the Monday section of the course. Because it was an elective course within the TESOL program, most of the participants were candidates for the M.S.ED.-TESOL degree. However, a few students from other graduate programs were also enrolled in the course. Below, some of the characteristics of the participants in each section of the course are described. These characteristics are derived from a variety of sources: (a) a brief e-mail survey that requested information about their country of origin, first language(s), years of English language study (if applicable), program, and expected graduation date (see Appendix F for copy of e-mail survey); (b) interviews; and/or, (c) in-class statements that contained biographical information. Because some students chose not to complete and return the demographic survey, information is missing for some participants.

3.2.1 Students[2]

Sixteen students were enrolled in Section 1 of the course. Of the 16 students, 12 students were international students, 75% of the class composition. In this section of the course, all of the international students were from East Asia. Countries of origin included Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan. Two students were from programs other than TESOL. In addition to their participation in the study itself, 10 of the 16 students, 62.5% of the class, agreed to share their teaching portfolios with me. Four students, 25% of the class,

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[2] All student names of pseudonyms.

also agreed to be interviewed. Three of the four students interviewed had shared their

teaching portfolios with me. Table 3.1 below summarizes these characteristics.

Table 3.1   Section 1

Name	Citizenship	L1(s)	Yrs EFL/ESL	Degree
Benjamin**	US	English	N/A	TESOL
Nai-Hsin				TESOL
Shih-Yuan				TESOL
Ting-Ting*				TESOL
Ayumi*	Japanese	Japanese	11	-
Mayuko**	Japanese	Japanese	12	TESOL
Seon-A*	Korean	Korean	11	TESOL
Yumiko				TESOL
Sharon				TESOL
Hoseok**	Korean	Korean	16	TESOL
Chun-Yu				TESOL
Kelly*	US	English	N/A	-
Harumi*	Japanese	Japanese	6	TESOL
Hyun Jung*	Korean	Korean	15	TESOL
Janna**	US	English	N/A	TESOL
Chunhui*	Taiwanese	Chinese	10	TESOL

*Student agreed to share teaching portfolio.
**Student agreed to share teaching portfolio and be interviewed.

In Section 2, 20 students were enrolled. Of the 20 students, 18 students were

international students, 90% of the class. Although the international students primarily

came from East Asia – Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan, one student came from Turkey.

The majority of students were in the TESOL program. Ten students, or 50% of the class,

agreed to share their portfolios with me in addition to participating in the study. Six

students, or 30% of the students, also agreed to be interviewed. Four of these six students

interviews had shared their teaching portfolios with me. Table 3.2 summarizes these

characteristics for Section 2.

Table 3.2   Section 2

First Name	Citizenship	L1(s)	yrs EFL/ESL	Degree
Oznur*	Turkish	Turkish	5	TESOL
Hsin-Hsiao*	Taiwanese	Chinese	20	TESOL
Jason**	US	English		TESOL
Hee-Sun†				TESOL
Chiung-Chi				TESOL
Yu-Ting*	Taiwanese	Chinese	12	TESOL
Chia-Fang**	Taiwanese	Chinese	20	TESOL
Hyung				TESOL
Pei-Tzu				TESOL
Yung-Hsiang				TESOL
Hsiu Wei*	Taiwanese	Chinese	12	TESOL
Shiori*	Japanese	Japanese	13	TESOL
Christina**	US	English		-
Hsin-Ying				TESOL
Wan-Chen	Taiwanese	Chinese	10	TESOL
Yi-Chen*				TESOL
Yukiko				TESOL
Chia-Yi†				TESOL
Satomi				TESOL
Ya-Chuan**				TESOL

*Student agreed to share teaching portfolio.
**Student agreed to share teaching portfolio and be interviewed.
†Student agreed to be interviewed.

3.2.2   Professor

The professor of the course had been a standing faculty member at the graduate

school of education and part of the TESOL program faculty since fall 2003. Her research

interests include language socialization across the life span, language pragmatics and

discourse analysis, first and second language acquisition of communicative competence,

and the socialization of academic literacy. To explore these interests, she has conducted

research in northern Thailand and is currently conducting research within the university's

language programs. Preceding her appointment at the university, she taught English

language learners of various proficiencies in Japan, Thailand, and the United States. This work included teaching academic English to undergraduates at a university on the west coast of the United States. Additionally, she prepared pre-and in-service teachers to teach English language learners in both the United States and Thailand.

At the graduate school of education, she taught Educational Linguistics, Sociolinguistics in Education, and Microethnography in addition to Teaching Writing to ESL Students. Thus, in addition to having taught Teaching Writing, the professor taught sections of two of the required courses for the Master's TESOL degree. She had previously taught Teaching Writing to ESL Students during Fall 2003, and prior to teaching Teaching Writing in fall 2005, she taught Educational Linguistics in fall 2004, a course that many of the TESOL students enrolled in Teaching Writing had taken. Her research and teaching experience demonstrate her expertise in the teaching of writing to English language learners as well as the preparation of novice teachers. Furthermore, her previous teaching experience within the TESOL program at the graduate school of education gave her insight into the abilities and needs of the program's students, especially those whom she previously taught.

The professor has been a mentor to me throughout my time as a doctoral student. She previously advised me on earlier research about classroom discourse, as well as instructed me on methods and theoretical models of discourse analysis. Because of my relationship with her, I felt comfortable approaching her about conducting a study in her course. After I approached her, she not only granted permission for me to approach the students, but also facilitated my introduction to them. Throughout my study, she continued to support and advise me. I met with her both informally and formally to

discuss my impressions of classroom activities. Additionally, she advised me about data collection and analysis.

3.2.3   Researcher Participation

In conducting a microethnographic study, I also participated to some degree in the course, Teaching Writing. Integral to any ethnographic study is participant-observation, in which the researcher takes part and observes the practices of the community in order to gain an insider's or emic perspective about these practices (Duranti, 1997; Hatch, 2002; Hymes, 1980; Johnstone, 2000). The degree of participant-observation can vary. Spradley (1980) proposes five levels of participation: nonparticipation, passive, moderate, active, and complete. My level of participation in this study was moderate, described by Spradley as "a balance between being an insider and an outsider, participation and observation" (p. 60). During the course of my research, I did spend a significant amount of time as an observer. I attended twelve of the fourteen classes for each section. During my time in class, I videotaped the classroom interactions and took fieldnotes throughout. Additionally, each week I read the on-line discussion boards and took fieldnotes about topics and communicative practices that occurred within this medium. Yet, I was not only an observer; I also read and outlined the course material assigned for each week and participated in all of the small group discussions and several of the large group discussions. I did not, however, participate in on-line discussions or complete the course assignments. Thus, although I observed the students' "What Works" report, I did not present one myself. Collectively, my research practices allowed me to

become familiar with the students and their classroom practices, but I neither acted as nor was considered an enrolled student in the course.

While participant-observation allows a researcher an opportunity to gain an emic perspective about the community of practice, the researcher's personal subjectivity confounds this process to some extent. The researcher's personal attitudes and practices affect his or her interpretation of what is occurring during participant-observation (UK Linguistic Ethnography Forum, 2004). In this instance, my educational background and professional experience presented both some benefits and obstacles during my research. On the one hand, I began my study already familiar with the academic discourses of American universities, and TESOL in particular. I hold an A.B. in religion and a M.S.Ed. in TESOL from private universities in the northeastern United States. During my course of study for my TESOL degree, I took a course similar to the one that I investigated. Furthermore, I also teach or have taught courses in ESL and teacher education. Familiar with the academic community, discourse, and the subject matter, I was able to comfortably converse with the students about the topic area and their experience as graduate students in TESOL or a related field. As a former TESOL graduate student and current teacher-educator, however, I also held preconceived ideas about how to be a TESOL graduate student and how to teach writing to ESL students. Throughout my research, I often struggled against making judgments about the validity of student assertions and/or attempting to lead them to what I believed was the correct way of approaching the material.

3.3 <u>Data Collection</u>

      Data collection occurred over the course of a 14-week semester. As a

microethnographic study, data were primarily derived from videotapes of classes. For

each section of the course Teaching ESL writing, I was a participant observer for entire

class periods, taking fieldnotes while videotaping the class. In total, I observed and

videotaped 12 classes per section and collected 48 hours of video data. Following each

class, I typed my fieldnotes and created a tape log chronicling the activities from the class

period. From these fieldnotes and tape logs, recurring activities were identified and

representative examples from videotapes were transcribed using Jefferson's (1984)

transcript notations:

[[	Double brackets indicate overlapping utterances.
=	An equal sign indicates no interval between adjacent utterances.
(0.1)	Intervals times to the tenth of a second.
((pause))	Untimed intervals.
::	Colons indicate an extension of sound.
.	A period indicates a fall in tone.
,	Comma indicates a continuing intonation.
?	A question mark indicates a rising intonation.
!	An exclamation mark indicates an animated tone
-	A single dash indicates a halting, abrupt cut off.
<u>Emphasis</u>	Emphasis is indicated by underlining.
°°	A degree sign is used to indicate a passage of talk is quieter than

surrounding talk.

((description)) Double parentheses are used to enclose transcriptionists interpretation of

some phenomenon not addressed using these transcription notations.

In addition to fieldnotes from participant observation and tape logs and transcripts

from videotapes, I interviewed 10 students about their experiences in the course (see

Appendix G for interview questions). Furthermore, I also collected text artifacts

including the course syllabus, handouts, online transcripts of course discussion boards,

and 20 volunteered teaching portfolios. This additional data was used to triangulate

findings from transcripts of videotaped classes and fieldnotes based on participant

observation. Table 3.3 describes what the method of data collection and type of data was

used to address each research question.

Table 3.3

	Method of data collection	**Type of data yielded**
Question 1: How do novice English language teachers interpret theory and research presented in a M.S.ED.-TESOL course on teaching writing to ESL students?	• Videotaping • Participant observation • Interviews • Artifact collection	• Video transcripts • Fieldnotes • Interview transcripts • Teaching portfolios • Transcripts of on-line discussion boards
Question 2: How do novice English language teachers act when they teach writing in in-class demonstration teaching sessions?	• Videotaping • Participant observation • Interviews	• Video transcripts • Fieldnotes • Interview transcripts

3.4 <u>Data Analysis</u>

Recurring patterns of activities that addressed the research questions were analyzed

across three dimensions using an analytical framework suggested by Goodwin

(1994/2009). Rymes (2009, p. 14) identifies three dimensions that affect language in use. The first, social context, represents variables outside the immediate interaction that may shape how participants use particular types of talk. The second, interactional context, represents the local sequential and/or other patterned talk that permits or prohibits certain types of talk and how others interpret such talk. The final dimension, individual agency, represents the influence a single participant may have on how words are used and interpreted. By analyzing classroom discourse across these three dimensions, circulating and local models (Agha, 2007; Wortham, 2006) emerge that suggest how participants use and are shaped by, in other words, are socialized by, particular types of talk, such as, "teacher talk" or the talk of applied linguists, as they entextualize and recontextualize second language writing theory and research in classroom activities.

Within each dimension, Goodwin's (1994) practices of seeing contribute to language socialization and the processes entextualization and recontextualization. Goodwin investigates three practices that play a part in the socialization of participants so that they identify with a particular profession: coding, highlighting, and producing and articulating material representations. Goodwin examines all three practices from a visual standpoint, but Bucholtz and Hall (2004) note that these practices may also be discursively employed. "Coding" is a strategy that changes particular activities that occur in a particular setting into "objects of knowledge that animate the discourse of a profession" (p. 606). "Highlighting" uses semiotic resources to mark a particular aspect of a social situation as salient. Semiotic resources used to highlight a particular aspect of a social situation may include various contextualization cues (Gumperz, 1982) – extralinguistic features of language used to interpret how interactants are using language

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– such as gesture, eye gaze, change in register, and change in variety (Bloome et al. 2005). Producing and articulating material representations may be construed as either the graphical and/or physical enactment of coding schemes and highlighting practices. While tempting to consider these practices solely from the viewpoint of individual agency, by investigating them across Rymes's three dimensions, these practices reveal how language socialization and entexutualization and recontextualization emerge within activities across multiple contexts.

3.5   Limitations of Methodology

While this study allows for an examination of the processes of language socialization and entextualization and recontextualization within a language teacher education course, by only investigating activities within one setting, the study does not necessarily offer insight into what novice teachers will do in their own classrooms. Demonstration teaching activities may suggest future behavior, but the participants' multiple roles as graduate students and student teachers confound their practices. Having their instructor and peers rather than English language learners as their audience may influence their actions. Are they using the coding scheme based on applied linguistics as graduate students or as teachers? Are they highlighting a specific aspect of a social process because they see it relevant as a graduate student in applied linguistics or as a language teacher?   Despite this limitation, by moving beyond study of individual teacher beliefs, this study, by examining multiple activities in multiple contexts, does provide insight into what novice teachers may do in their future classrooms.

CHAPTER 4

Teaching Second Language Writing

How novice language teachers interpret theory and research of writing pedagogy

is based, in part, on how their professors present the theories and research in class. A

study of the themes of second language writing theory and research only offers a static

picture of the denotational, that is to say, the literal, text presented in a course of teaching

ESL writing. Such exploration does not investigate the practices associated with

language socialization and the processes of entextualization and recontextualization that

represent how both expert and novice language teachers come to select among and

reinterpret second language writing theory and research. In contrast, the examination of

Goodwin's (1994) practices of seeing – (a) how professors present a coding scheme

based on a metalanguage from applied linguistics; (b) highlight what they perceive as the

more salient aspects of second language writing theory and research; and, (c) provide

material representations in the forms of visual aids as well as their own performances –

across the multiple dimensions of language use (Rymes, 2009) provides insight about

how novice language teachers may come to understand theory and research in applied

linguistics. By engaging in these practices, professors provide local models of the

circulating global model of a language teacher who entextualizes certain theories and

research of writing pedagogy and then recontextualizes these theories to fit a particular

teaching situation (Agha, 2007; Wortham, 2006). These practices serve to socialize

novice language teachers into the profession of teaching second language writing through

the use of the metalanguage of applied linguistics (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002;

Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984). This chapter examines the practices of one professor in a course on teaching ESL writing.

4.1   Coding and Social Context

       In this study, multiple social contexts of the graduate course, Teaching ESL Writing, and the professor's practices of seeing, particularly coding, mutually influence one another. Rymes (2009) notes that social context and language-in-use exist in a dialectic relationship. Social context affects how language is used, and how language is used affects social context (p. 21). In professional and professional training settings, language-in-use may be comprised of particular coding schemes. Goodwin (1994/2009) defines coding schemes as "one systematic practice use to transform the world into categories and events that are relevant to the work of the profession" (p. 454). One of Goodwin's extended examples of coding schemes is how archaeologists classify different types of dirt by comparing the color of the dirt to a color chart, the Munsell chart. By classifying the dirt, archaeologists imbue significance in dirt variation. However, if colors of dirt did not suggest meaningful differences, archaeologists would have no need to classify them. In a similar example, Hutchins (1996) describes how ship navigators use charts to guide them through the water and how the physical reality of the water and land influence the navigators' use of charts. Goodwin and Hutchins' examples of coding schemes are derived from visual categories and not linguistic ones. Goodwin, however, does briefly touch on alternate types of coding schemes; he names phonetic distinctions used by linguists and variables such as sex and class used by sociologists as examples. Mertz's (2007) discussion of the language of law schools, while not explicitly portrayed

as an example of Goodwin's coding scheme, also serves to demonstrate how members of a profession may use language "to transform the world into categories and events that are relevant to the work of the profession." Because they are in a law classroom, law professors and students use particular lexis and rhetorical styles – legalese – to discuss everyday activities as legal questions. Yet, using legalese to discuss everyday activities within a classroom environment transforms the class into a law course. Whether in the dirt or in a law school, the coding scheme shapes the context and the context shapes the coding scheme. In this study, social contexts that shape what the professor teaches and how she teaches it include the curriculum of this particular course, graduate course norms, the students' projected career goals, and native-English-speaking status. The professor's coding scheme derived from applied linguistics, in turn, shapes what social contexts become situationally significant.

Applied linguistics is an interdisciplinary field that has eluded precise definition. Davies (1999) notes that applied linguistics has been narrowly construed to applications of theoretical linguistics, sometimes termed linguistics applied (Widdowson, 1980), as well as broadly construed to encompass any study of language. Others have suggested problem-based formulations: " 'Applied linguistics' is using what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world" (Schmitt & Celce-Murcia, 2002, p.1; cf. Grabe, 2002). These more problem-based formulations perhaps offer a compromise to the very narrow and very broad definitions. Such definitions encompass linguistics – "the study of language" – but also include education and psychology – "how it is learned" – and anthropology, sociology, economics, etc. – "how it is used, in order to achieve some

purpose or solve some problem in the real world" (Davies, 1999; Schmitt & Celce-Murcia, 2002). Even by limiting the definition by using a problem-based formulation, the field of applied linguistics covers a wide range of topics including language teaching, second language acquisition, language policy, language assessment, language and gender, language and politics, forensic linguistics, stylistics and rhetoric (Davies & Elder, 2004). As demonstrated in the Table 4.1, an overview of the course investigated for this study, second language writing pedagogy includes many of these topics; therefore, it falls within the field of applied linguistics.

Table 4.1 Course Overview of Teaching ESL Writing

Week and Topic
Week 1: Introduction
Week 2: Issues and approaches to teaching ESL/EFL writing
Week 3: Understanding ESL/EFL writers
Week 4: Composing and the process approach
Week 5: Academic writing and the discourse community
Week 6: Teaching genre
Week 7: Designing courses, materials, lessons and tasks
Week 8: Evaluating student work
Week 9: Reading in the composition classroom
Week 10: Focusing on form in the composition classroom
Week 11: Teaching revision and responding to student texts
Week 12: Conferencing, peer evaluation and the writing workshop
Week 13: Teaching writing through technology
Week 14: **Presentations of Final Project**

Table adapted from course syllabus, fall 2005, p. 2

A coding scheme derived from the field of applied linguistics might be articulated as a particular register. The term, register, has related but not identical meanings across subdisciplines in linguistics. In corpus linguistic studies, registers have been defined as "language varieties characteristic of particular situations of use" (Finegan and Biber, 2001, p. 239). Within systemic functional grammar, register represents the linguistic

consequence of context defined across three aspects: (a) field – topics and actions; (b) tenor – the roles and relationships of the interactants; and, (c) mode – semiotic resources (Coffin, Donohue & North, 2009). In linguistic anthropology, a register is defined as "a repertoire of speech forms . . . widely recognized . . . as indexing the same 'social voice' by many language users" (Agha, 2005, p. 45). What unifies these three definitions is the belief that the use of a specific group of linguistic features together may indicate participation in a particular context. While the use of a particular register may indicate a participation in a general social context, such as the use of ritual speech to engage in religious activities (DuBois, 1993), the use of some registers is associated with specific professions. Describing two children engaged in play, Hoyle (1993) demonstrates how the participants use and recognize a particular register comprised of linguistic features such as action verbs in simple present, utterances without subjects, utterances without auxiliaries, utterances without lexical verbs, etc. (cf. Ferguson, 1983) as a means of impersonating sportscasters. Similarly, in her treatment of the language of law school, Mertz (2007) presents a register associated with the law. When a register is associated with a profession, a "speech repertoire" that links "typifications of actor, relationship, and conduct" (Agha, 2004), use of the register may signal a "systematic practice used to transform the world into categories and events that are relevant to the work of the profession" (Goodwin, 1994/2009). For applied linguists, metalanguage – language about language (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 13) – including names of grammatical terms, ways of describing language, etc. – represents the speech repertoire that creates categories and events relevant to their profession, in other words, a register as coding scheme.

Graddol, Cheshire & Swann (1996) suggest that metalanguage may be used to discuss sounds, grammar, and meaning in language. They note that terms and concepts from phonetics/phonology (cf. Goodwin, 1994/2009), morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics can create categories, such as sounds and word classes, and events, such as speech acts, that would be relevant for applied linguists who want to teach or study language. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) similarly present a grammatical metalanguage that can be used to describe and refer to language, but present the metalanguage at the level of the word, the level of the sentence, and the level of discourse. When teaching and/or discussing theory and research relating to second language writing, metalanguage at the levels of the word and sentence are sometimes used, especially when discussing focus on form. However, the primary metalanguage used is that at the discourse level or that relating to meaning. In this study, throughout the course of the semester, the professor uses this applied linguistics register as a coding scheme for second language writing pedagogy.

4.1.1   Approaches to Teaching Second Language Writing

A professional register that signals membership in a particular community of practice (Lave & Wegner, 1991) and provides a particular coding scheme to orient particular issues and behaviors as relevant for the participation in the CofP often emerges from literature written and interpreted by those considered experts in the field (Mertz, 1996); in this instance, the professor uses the register in which research literature about second language writing pedagogy is written. The coding scheme from this register provides a means for students to distinguish among different approaches to teaching

writing and the tasks associated with those approaches. Thus, from the beginning of the

semester, the professor utilizes terminology that names the collective thoughts and

behaviors associated with particular writing pedagogies, specifically (a) the process

approach, (b) academic writing; and (c) the genre approach. Furthermore, as the primary

social context is a graduate course in writing pedagogy for students pursuing a future

career in TESOL, the professor employs a variety of methods to model use of the coding

scheme, including "short mini-lectures on the weekly topic, accompanied by class

discussion, student presentations, observations of writing classrooms, and in-class

practical application activities" (course syllabus, fall 2005, p. 2). In the following two

exemplary excerpts from week 4 of the course – *Composing and the process approach* –

the professor explicitly presents the professional register of applied linguistics as a coding

scheme for approaches to teaching writing as she gives her mini-lectures in each section

of the course.

In both sections, the professor lectures on three incarnations of the process

approaches to writing. For that week the students were supposed to have read "On the

Structure of the Writing Process" by Hayes & Flower (1987), "L2 Composing: Strategies

and Perceptions" by Leki (1992), and "English Learners and Process Writing" by

Peregoy & Boyle (2005). My reading notes, written prior to the class meeting times,

synthesize the three articles as a discussion about the differences between types of writers

– L-1 and L-2 writers (Leki, 1992) as well as inexperienced and experienced writers

(Hayes & Flower, 1987) – and suggest activities in a process-approach to teaching L2-

writers based on the Peregoy & Boyle reading (2005) (reading notes, 10/3/05-10/4/05). I

conclude:

L1- and L2-writers may share more similarities than differences, but differences still exists. While all novice writers need to be coached through the writing process so that they can gain expertise, L1- and L2-writers may confront different obstacles in this process due to topic, genre, language proficiency, culture and other contextual issues. (reading notes, 10/3/05-10/4/05).

The professor concludes class with a discussion similar to my reading notes during the discussion and in-class practical application activity portions of the class, but she devotes her lecture time to introducing the "three incarnations of process approaches to teaching writing" (fieldnotes, 10/3/05). In her mini-lecture, the professor continues to reinforce the coding scheme originally presented during Week 2 – *Issues and Approaches to Teaching ESL/EFL Writing* - used to talk about the approaches to writing pedagogy as well as incorporate the new reading. While my reading notes do not focus on different versions of the process approach, I use similar terms to code for aspects of writing pedagogy including "focus on form," "cognitive overload" and "fluency" throughout the rest of my synthesis. The professor, thus, takes this coding scheme from second language writing research and entextualizes it to recontextualize within her broader lecture about the process approach.

Excerpt 1 presents the portion of the professor's mini-lecture from the Monday section that focuses on the Expressivists' process approach. My fieldnotes describe the lecture preceding this excerpt:

She first listed key scholars of this approach in parentheses: Elbow, Coles, Macrorie, and Murray. Similar to the Leki reading, she then noted that this approach was developed in the L1 context. She said that expressivists view composing as an internal process that is non-directive and personal similar to therapy. She stresses that the emphases of the approach is fluency and voice. (fieldnotes, 10/3/05)

In *Excerpt 1*, the professor continues to stress the Expressivists' emphases on fluency and voice. "P" indicates that the professor is speaking.

Excerpt 1

```
10 P:ok so the student will:: right there's this whole

11    thing about the fact that focusing on your grammatical

12    correctness can sort of block you from making meaning

13    (0.2) and coming up with a longer text (0.2) right so

14    focusing on form can be can be a cognitive block to um

15    writing (0.2) a lot more and and thinking about the

16    meaning of what you are writing so I guess the

17    assumption is that? (0.2) you know writing um personal

18    texts will help you to write more flu::ently just

19    easily without thinking about um so much about the

20    grammar and your accuracy when you're first writing

21    the first draft I guess. so fluency just fluency just

22    writing without thinking about accuracy and grammar

23    (1.2) ok. and voice coming up with? being able to

24    write in a way that sounds like you. (0.2) coming up

25    with your own wa::y of expressing yourself. thus

26    Expressivists. (2.2) ok
```

```
27

28   (3.0)

29

30 P:the kinds of um:: (0.8) the kinds of things that you

31    would see here are in a an expressivist writing

32    classroom would be things like free writing and

33    journal writing um:: which encourages students to

34    develop fluency to discover their individual voice and

35    explore ideas through invention (0.8) so really?

36    there's two things that this (0.2) pedagogy (0.2)

37    emphasizes one of them is as we've said self-discovery

38    and through self-discovery it's kind of a radical.

39    um:: concept but? this kind of concept the students

40    would be empowered by discovering their own voice by

41    discovering their own ideas (0.2) and? sort of writing

42    about things that are important to them. (2.0) ok so

43    those are the Expressivists,  [do you guys have

44    questions=
```

In this excerpt, the professor introduces specialized vocabulary used in an applied linguistics register that allow the students to code for certain types of behaviors associated with the process approach to writing. Furthermore, the professor's verb choices suggest a fair degree of certainty about her use of this register and interpretation of theory relating to this subject matter.

The professor uses vocabulary unique to applied linguistics such as "Expressivist," "fluency," "voice," "grammar" and their derivations, as a means of recontextualizing information from the reading into her mini-lecture and continuing to socialize the students into the coding-scheme of the discipline. Although these terms do have more common meanings, in *Excerpt 1*, they have specialized meanings related to second language writing pedagogy. Based on the professor's lecture and the course readings, in this instance, fluency can be defined as the ability to write without hesitation due to concerns about word-choice, grammatical accuracy, etc. Focus on form relates to attention to grammatical accuracy and at certain times can be seen as an impediment to writing fluently. Finally, voice might be considered the student's personal writing style (Hayes & Flower, 1987; Leki, 1992; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005). Such usage of specialized vocabulary is not reserved to applied linguists. Academic discourse, in general, is distinguished by the predominance of rare words used vis-à-vis other types of discourse; which rare words are used usually depends on the discipline (Biber, 2006). However, within a classroom situation, such as a lecture that occurs in real time, as opposed to written text, more common words are used as the speakers and/or interactants must react to the event as it unfolds (Biber, 2006; Erickson, 2004). Despite what might be conceived as a limitation in spoken discourse, experts do employ rare words associated with their discipline. In *Excerpt 1*, the professor collectively uses what could be considered specialized vocabulary 13 times in 262 words, or approximately 5% of the time, a percentage that exceeds that of rare words used in classroom teaching reported by Biber (2006, p. 36).

The professor, however, does not just merely list these words as descriptors as the process approach or just repeat the literal text from the assigned readings; rather, she recontextualizes them as a means of describing the Expressivist incarnation of the Process Approach and also presents them as important to the coding scheme through her word repetition, pauses, stress, intonation and epistemic stance. In addition to the marked number of times that the professor uses the vocabulary from the coding scheme, she also uses specific terms repeatedly, sometimes within a couple of words of one another: "so fluency just fluency just writing without thinking about accuracy and grammar (1.2)" (*Excerpt 1,* line 21-23). In these 12 words from *Excerpt 1*, the professor uses fluency twice, once with an intensifier "just" (Biber, Conrad & Leech, 2002; Carter & McCarthy, 2006) and set in an oppositional relationship to "accuracy and grammar." Furthermore, this statement, and others like it in the excerpt, are sometimes followed by a long pause, here 1.2 seconds. Such pauses offer time for interlocutors to attend aurally and orient to the importance of the statement (Goodwin, 1980). The professor also emphasizes the words through her stress, for example on the word "voice" (*Excerpt 1,* line 23) or through elongated intonation, for on example as with the word, "flu::ently" (*Excerpt 1*, line 18). Finally, with one exception when the professor hedges her account with the phrase, "so I guess the assumption is" (*Excerpt 1*, lines 16-17), she primarily presents her interpretation of the Expressivists' views as fairly accurate through the use of the copula and modal verbs such as "can," "being able to," "will," and "would be" that suggest ability and the likelihood of future happenstance (Biber, Conrad & Leech, 2002; Carter & McCarthy, 2006; Rymes, 2009). Collectively, these contextualization cues, word repetition, pauses, stress, intonation and epistemic stance (Bloome et al., 2005) point to

her belief in the importance of this coding scheme as a means of describing approaches to writing pedagogy.

In addition to presenting key terms associated with the register of applied linguistics, the professor's mini-lecture provides a model for students so that they might be socialized into use of the coding scheme. Knowledge of this coding is important for students engaged in this social context, that is to say, attending graduate school so that may eventually teach English to speakers of other languages and potentially even ESL writing. Language socialization research has demonstrated the importance of expert modeling so that novices can then engage in legitimate peripheral participation as they learn the practices of their community (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002; Lave & Wenger, 1991). *Excerpt 2* is a version of that same mini-lecture about Expressivists, but given the following day in her Tuesday section. In this excerpt, the professor explicitly identifies her modeling activity as well as presents the coding scheme. My fieldnotes from the same class as *Excerpt 2* read: "[S]he then said that she would give a mini-lecture that would be a model on how the students could teach writing. She indicated that she would use the "What Works" report as an example writing task, although she acknowledged that the report was not technically a writing assignment" (fieldnotes, 10/4/05). Specifically, the mini-lecture would be a model for the element of the "What Works" report in which the student "briefly synthesiz[e] what [they] read, and [discuss] how these readings relate to the topic" (course syllabus, fall 2005, p. 4)

Excerpt 2

```
1 P: That was a (0.2) sort of? a writing prompt now I'm
2    going to do a synthesis! now I'm going to give a
```

3   lecture on the process approach. and this is an

4   example of a synthesis (0.2) ok so you can see what I

5   mean by synthesis. (0.2) I'm going to give you three

6   different <u>syntheses</u> here. ok there are different

7   approaches to the process approach there are different

8   strands or threads of the process approach.

. . .

46 **P:**   the emphasis in this

47   approach is developing <u>fluency</u> and voice. see the

48   process approach really came about in reaction to

49   previous approaches which were very focused on

50   linguistic <u>accuracy grammar style</u> that kind of thing

51   <u>and</u> what the research showed was that um the focus on

52   <u>form</u> can block writers from writing more text and from

53   writing more fluently. so we can sort of stop writers

54   in their path and block them from developing their

55   ideas more fully. so what this does is helps writers

56   to get over that blockage of worrying whether that

57   word is that right word or whether that grammar is the

58   most correct way to say something and to talk to to

59   develop their ideas more freely and fluently and at

60   leng::th so that was in order to help writers become

61   more fluent and um better at developing their ideas

62   more fully

This excerpt is both similar and different from *Excerpt 1*.

Similar to *Excerpt 1*, in *Excerpt 2*, the professor presents the register of applied linguistics as a coding scheme for talking about the approaches to applied linguistics. The same lexis and contextualization cues are found throughout the excerpt and rest of the lecture. The professor uses vocabulary unique to applied linguistics, such as "fluency," "voice," and "grammar." In lines 46-62, she collectively uses these terms 10 times in 116 words, or approximately 9% of the time, an even higher percentage than in *Excerpt 1*. Additional similarities include the repetition of these words, stress, and epistemic stance. "Fluency" and its derivatives are repeated four times in the 10 instances of specialized vocabulary usage. The professor also emphasizes words such as "fluency" (*Excerpt 2,* line 47) and "accuracy grammar style" *(Excerpt 2,* line 50) through stress as in *Excerpt 1*. Furthermore, by primarily using the copula (Biber et al. 2002; Carter & McCarthy, 2006), the professor suggests her interpretation of the Expressivists' is the actual Expressivists' belief. Once again, the professor uses these contextualization cues to point to a coding scheme for discussing writing pedagogies. Differences such as the number of times the higher percentage of disciplinary specific words and the greater surety in epistemic stance may be due to the fact that she is presenting her lecture for a second time or because she is modeling the activity of synthesizing.

Different from *Excerpt 1,* in *Excerpt 2,* the professor names her mini-lecture as a "model" and further characterizes it as a synthesis. She says in an animated tone with stress on the word, synthesis: "now I'm going to do a synthesis!" (*Excerpt 2,* line 2). She repeats from earlier reference of a model that her lecture on the process approach "is an

example of a synthesis" (*Excerpt 2,* line 4) and notes that the students "can see what [she] mean[s] by synthesis" *(Excerpt 2,* line 5). Although the text is omitted for space purposes, the professor continues to comment on her own activity by overtly naming when she believes that she is synthesizing. This metalinguistic naming and the associated practice serve multiple purposes. The professor models the recontextualization of the register of applied linguistics that is needed for the coding scheme used to distinguish among approaches to teaching second language writing. Additionally, it adds to the coding scheme by reinforcing yet another key term characteristic of the register. The word, "synthesis," can be used by teachers of second language writing to categorize a particular way of writing about multiple texts. Finally, the overt characterization of her practices serves to highlight both the coding scheme and the associated behaviors.

4.2   Highlighting within Interactional Contexts

       Highlighting occurs when professionals employ some semiotic resource to signal the importance of a category, utterance, and/or event for the discipline (Bucholtz & Hall, 2004; Goodwin, 1994/2009, 2003). In the example above, the professor highlighted both the category of a synthesis as well as the event of synthesizing through her metalinguistic naming. The more subtle, almost imperceptible, contextualization cues, may have also served to highlight lexical items from the coding scheme presented in the professor's mini-lectures. Word repetition, pauses, stress, and intonation prompt students to aurally attend to these particular words. Furthermore, because of the word repetition, stress, and intonation are associated with emphasis, these lexical items become perceptually salient. Within the social context of curriculum and projected career goals of the students,

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highlighting elements from the register of applied linguistics presents them as a salient

coding scheme for their future second language writing pedagogy. In the lectures about

the Expressivists, the professor highlighted the coding scheme through verbal and

paralinguistic contextual cues. Highlighting may also take the form of graphic

representations or other semiotic resources such as gesture (cf. Goodwin, 2003) and in

the classroom sometimes these other forms of highlighting emerge as well.

Within the interactional context of a classroom comprised of 16-20 students, non-

verbal practices may amplify this highlighting. As Rymes (2009) notes social context,

interactional context, and individual agency are omnipresent in a classroom. In addition

to the curriculum and career goals of the students that suggest a need for them to be

socialized into the register of applied linguistics, native-speaker status and interactional

norms of classrooms in American universities also factor into the types of practices of

seeing that occur. In a course about teaching ESL writing, native-speaker status becomes

relevant as students assess their own level of expertise as writers and teachers of writing

in English. Non-native-English-speaking (NNES) students often commented to me that

they did not feel confident in their own writing abilities so they felt anxious about

teaching someone to write in English. Yet, as NNES students, these students were

already experts as second language writers and in the same class they would offer their

own insights about their experiences learning to write English, especially when the

professor requested their input (e.g., fieldnotes 11/14/05, 11/21/05). In addition to this

ideological consideration of native-speaker status, language proficiency could affect turn

taking in discussion. During professor-led discussions, most American universities

follow the more traditional Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) pattern of classroom

discourse found throughout the American education system (Bloome et al. 2005; Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979); however, classroom interaction is sometime freer and students need not always wait to be called on to provide their response. Not all NNES students could easily participate in this pattern of interaction (Morita, 2000); in such cases, the professor often used multiple modalities of highlighting to signal the importance of a response or practice, as is the case in *Excerpt 3*.

   Excerpt 3 occurred in the Monday section of the course during Week 10 – *Focus on Form*. Assigned readings for that week included "Improving Accuracy in Student Writing: Error Treatment in the Composition Class" by Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), "Responding to ESL Writing" by Leki (1991) and "Grammar and the ESL Writing Class" by Frodesen and Holten (2003). As the titles of the assigned reading indicate, the coding scheme that the professor had introduced early in the semester to categorize approaches of teaching writing continue to be relevant as the students discussed practices within those approaches. Thus, terms such as "accuracy" and "grammar" and their derivatives once again are relevant in order to characterize aspects of writing methodologies. *Excerpt 3* occurs during a class discussion after the students have had an in-class writing where they answered the following three questions: (a) When do we direct learner attention to form? (b) Which grammatical forms merit attention? and, (c) How do we engage learners in grammar activities that promote writing development? Following the in-class writing, the professor began the discussion asking students about their answers to these questions. As the discussion continues she then asks the native-speakers if they ever had any recurring grammatical problems in their writing. After one native-speaking student provides the example of struggling with the subjunctive, the professor then asks

NNES students the same question (fieldnotes, 10/14/05). In *Excerpt 3*, the professor uses

verbal, paralinguistic and kinesic contextualization cues to highlight one of the NNES

student's answer. "P" indicates the professor and "S2" and "S3" are two different

students.

Excerpt 3

```
43    P: no ok and there are also some problems that um non-

44    native spea:kers face that are very very complex and

45    um some even like very very very advanced students

46    (0.2) don't necessarily ever you know get that

47    completely can you guys think of anything like that

48    that's very hard in English

49

50    S2:[prepositions

51

52    S3:[articles=

53

54    P:=uh let's see what huh (points to S3)

55

56    S3: articles

57

58    P:articles! thank you! sco::re! ((P raises hands to

59    resemble goal posts)) yes you can teach it a billion

60    kagillion times and it might help to some extent but
```

61   does it help to get people to write as they're writing

62   (0.8) I:: don't think so, you might be able to help

63   them to some extent after they write to go back and

64   edit some? of their article problems (0.4) but a lot

65   of non-native speakers even the most advanced, still

66   have article problems after like these are professors

67   you know I am talking about people who are very

68   advanced in English it's very hard to:: do correctly

69   the articles so sort of pounding it into them before

70   they write I think doesn't necessarily really help, in

71   terms of their production of articles what was another

72   one somebody said

Word repetition, intonation, and pauses once again play a part in highlighting the

metalanguage of applied linguistics used as a coding scheme for second language writing,

but the professor also points (*Excerpt 3,* line 54) and raises her arms to resemble a goal-

post (*Excerpt 3,* line 58-59) to first distinguish and then highlight one student's answer.

As when she lectured earlier in the semester on the Expressivists, the professor

repeats and intensifies through paralinguistic cues what she believes is the key lexical

item or concept from applied linguistics. In *Excerpt 3*, this item is articles. The

appropriate usage of articles, the metalinguistic term for, "a," "an" and "the," is a well-

known challenge for English language learners in both spoken and written discourse

(Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1998). To reinforce the metalinguistic term and

related information, in 137 words, the professor repeats the word, "article," 5 times,

approximately 4% of the words she uses beyond the students initial answer. Twice the

professor uses the lexical item as part of the compound noun, "article problem" (*Excerpt 3,* lines 64, 66) to further demonstrate this concept. The professor's intonation likewise

signals the importance of the student's answer. The professor uses and maintains an

animated tone as she repeats the word, "article" and agrees with the students answer.

Additionally, one of the few pauses in the professor's evaluation of the student's answer

occurs after she uses the compound noun, "article problem" for the first time.

As the assessment turn in the IRE sequence, the content, timing, and gestures

associated professor's response also indicate her validation of student's language and

answer. Goodwin and Goodwin (1992) write, "Assessments reveal not just neutral

objects in the world, but an alignment taken up toward phenomena by a particular actor"

(p. 166). In *Excerpt 3*, the professor first aligns herself with S3 by pointing to the student

and latching onto that particular answer without pause when S2 and S3 overlap (lines 50-

54).

The content of the professor's first words to S3 after the answer is repeated further

suggests a positive evaluation of the student's answer. Not only is the professor speaking

in an animated tone, but she also thanks the student and says "sco::re" in a voice similar

to what soccer announcers do when players score goals, the main purpose of a soccer

game (*Excerpt 3,* line 58).

This elongated intonation is even further stressed when the professor's concurrently

raises her hands to resemble goal posts. This iconic representation (Goodwin, 2003) calls

attention to the overall superlative assessment of the student's response. The superlative

assessment, in turn, reinforces behaviors, in other words socializes language behaviors

that the professor believes appropriate for use in the profession. Thus, the professor uses

multimodal highlighting tools to emphasize the student's response as salient to the discipline of teaching second language writing.

4.3   Individual Agency

Although social and interactional contexts constrain the professor to a certain extent within the classroom, the professor has the ability to exercise far more individual agency in deciding how and what to say about second language writing theory and research. As seen in *Excerpts 1-2,* the professor initially introduces students not only to a coding scheme based on the register of applied linguistics but also to a model for recontextualizing the coding scheme in their own practice as she socializing them into this discourse community. Furthermore, *Excerpt 3*, demonstrates how her highlighting practices can validate certain students' responses during the assessment move in the IRE sequence common to discussions in most American classrooms (cf. Mertz, 1996, 2007). Yet another way in which the professor may exercise her individual agency is through the production of material representations (Goodwin, 1994/2009). Goodwin's examples of the production of material representations include the drawing of a map and the sequencing of photos to illustrate a past event during court testimony. While Goodwin confines his definition of material representations to graphic realizations of linguistic text; however, he also names it an "embodied practice" as he discusses how professionals inscribe such representations to organize scientific phenomenon. Taking Goodwin's notion of "embodied practice," more literally, the professor, as an applied linguist and second language writing teacher, may serve as a local model (Agha, 2007; Wortham, 2003) of how to engage in the practices associated with the profession. In *Excerpt 2*, she

names the ways she organizes knowledge as a model or "example" (line 4). In addition to the professor's exercising of individual agency through embodied practices, she may also create other types of material representations, from transient notes on the chalkboard to more enduring course handouts (see Appendix H for a representative handout), as a means of entextualizing and highlighting speech forms from the register of applied linguistics and recontextualizing them to fit her interpretation of the writing pedagogy research and theory. *Excerpt 4* demonstrates this process.

This excerpt occurs during the Tuesday section of Week 6 – *Teaching Genre.* Assigned readings were "Genre in Three Traditions: Implications for ESL" by Hyon (1996) and "Genre-based pedagogies: A Social Response to Process" by Hyland (2003). My reading notes summarize the two articles as follows:

> Hyon discusses their theoretical framework, context, goals, pedagogical methods and the implementation of the methods of English for specific purposes (ESP), New Rhetoric Studies, and Australian genre theories. Hyland offers a laudatory account of genre-based pedagogies. He begins the article outlining limitations of process approaches to teaching and writing, and suggesting that a genre-based theory might be able to address these limitations. He briefly outlines a theory of genre and its importance in gaining literacy in both a first and second language. He concludes with pedagogical models used in genre-based approaches to teaching writing. (reading notes, 10/17/05-10/18/05)

Yet, rather than directly beginning with a class discussion or mini-lectures about these readings, the professor first summarizes the emphases of the two approaches reviewed during the two previous weeks in addition to that of the genre approach (fieldnotes, 10/18/05).

Excerpt 4

```
1    P:((facing board)) ok so today we are talking about

2    the genre approach ((P writes "Process" on board and

3    turns to face class)) and um up until today we have

4    talked about some very general kind of approaches to

5    teaching writing there are these broad categories

6    within which there are a lot of variation ((P points

7    to the word "Process" on the board)) one of the things

8    we talked about was the process approach ((P turns

9    back to board and writes "Academic Writing")) last

10   week we talked about academic writing (4.0) ((P turns

11   to partially face class)) and this week we are talking

12   about ((P turns back to the board and writes "Genre

13   Approach" and she then draws and arrow from the word

14   "Process." She then turns back to face class)) the

15   genre approach (5.0) and as you might remember the

16   process approach focuses on the writer ((P writes the

17   word "writer" on board and draws and arrow from the

18   words "Academic Writing." She then turns back to face

19   class)) (3.2) in other words in is focusing on what

20   the writer the writer's process going through um the

21   stages of composing, preparing to compose and revising

22   (0.2) so it's really about um the individual and what
```

23   the individual has to do in order for the individual

24   to produce some sort of text (0.2) ((P writes "text"

25   on the board and quickly turns back around)) in the

26   academic writing articles that we read last week um

27   they really focus a lot on characteristics of the text

28   <u>what</u> does it mean to write an academic text <u>what</u> are

29   the characteristics of an academic text and to some

30   extent ((P writes "skills" after a backslash next to

31   "text")) <u>what</u> are the skills the specific kind of

32   writing skills required in order to perform and and

33   produce that kind of academic text so these were more

34   like general characteristics of academic writing that

35   might apply across a lot of different genres and types

36   ok and then the genre approach ((P draws an arrow from

37   the words "Genre Approach" and turns back to class))

38   the genre approach does also look at the ((P writes

39   "text" next to arrow after "Genre Approach" while half

40   facing board half facing class)) characteristics of

41   the text and it <u>also</u> ((P writes "situation" after a

42   dash next to "text")) looks at the situation

43   (4.0) ((P then writes "context" after a backslash next

44   to "situation")) or the context (1.2) in which a text

45   is written so it considers that interaction between

46   the text and the context in which it is written the

47   social situation um and other aspects of the context

48   ok so that's kind of a general overview of where these

49   different approaches fall um so this week we are

50   looking at the genre approach ((P crosses to lectern

51   at the side of the classroom))

As in all previous excerpts, in *Excerpt 4,* the professor utilizes the register of applied

linguistics as a coding scheme for different approaches to teaching writing. After coding

each approach by name, she discusses the associated characteristics. Thus, she says "one

of the things we talked about was the process approach" (*Excerpt 4*, lines 7-8) and then

continues later "and as you might remember the process approach focuses on the writer"

(lines 15-16). However, in this *Excerpt 4*, as she is speaking, the professor creates a

material representation of her interpretation of the three approaches on the chalkboard
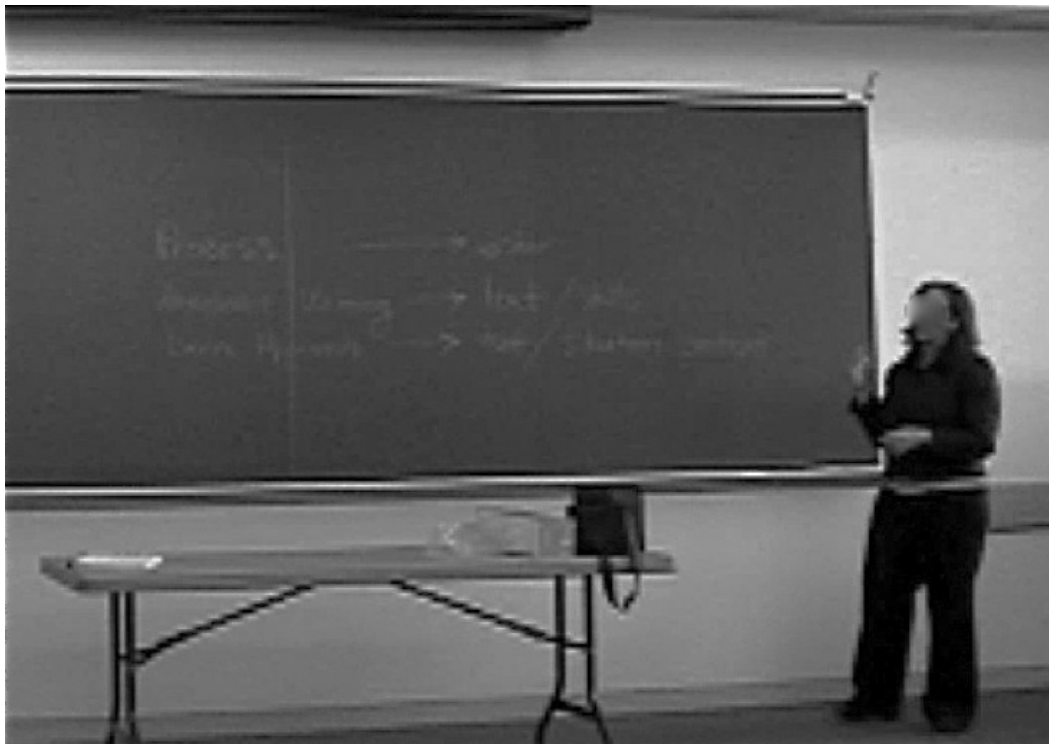
and reproduced in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1

Process → writer

Academic writing → text/skills

Genre approach → text/situation – context

Although not a true inscription (Goodwin, 1994/2009, 2003), this representation does provide a graphic means of organizing the information that she is discussing. The arrow following each approach literally points the reader/observer to the important aspect of the pedagogical approach, whether writer, text/skills, or text/situation – context. Furthermore, as she writes each term, the writing serves as a visual representation of the importance of the lexical item. Accompanied by the pregnant pause, between 3-5 seconds, so that she may finish writing each word, each item is further highlighted as the students now have the time to both aurally and visually attend (Goodwin, 1980) to both the coding scheme and what it represents.

4.4   Conclusion

Social context, interactional context, and individual agency cannot be divorced from one another when analyzing classroom discourse (Rymes, 2009); similarly, professionals often engage in their practices of seeing concomitantly. In a graduate class on teaching ESL writing, these three practices, presented by an individual with power based on her expertise (Bloome et al 2005), serve to socialize the students, relative novices, into practices of extextualizing approaches to teaching writing and

recontextualizing them in their pedagogy. Thus, while the above analyses of the

professor's practices of seeing emphasize different practices within different contexts –

coding within social contexts; highlighting within interactional contexts; and the

production of material representations within the discussion of her individual agency –

the analyses also note how these practices come together across these three contexts. The

social context influenced the professor's use of a particular coding scheme and use of a

particular coding scheme highlighted certain approaches to teaching writing as salient.

Within the interactional context, often these coding schemes were presented as material

representations and then highlighted through verbal, paralinguistic, and kinesic

contextualization cues. As the expert, however, the professor had a great deal of

individual agency as she decided on which coding schemes and material representations

to valorize as she presented her interpretations of second language writing pedagogy. By

engaging in all three practices of seeing concurrently across the three dimensions of

language use, the professor offers the students a local model of how to entextualize

second language writing research and recontextualize it in their own practices of seeing.

Furthermore, these practices also socialize students into engaging in similar practices by

reinforcing particular behaviors. Yet, essential to language socialization across the

lifespan, in general, and professional learning, in this context, is uptake of these practices

by novices or students.

CHAPTER 5

Talking about Teaching Writing

Different professional disciplines, such as TESOL, have unique practices of

seeing and expert use of these practices signals full membership within that particular

community. These practices of seeing, however, do not follow strict rules; rather, they

are ways of speaking, acting, and believing that are constantly jointly-constructed as

community members interact (Goodwin, 1994/2009; Jacoby & Gonzales, 1991; Ochs,

Gonzales & Jacoby, 1996). For teachers of ESL writing, one such practice is the use of

the metalanguage of applied linguistics (Hedgcock, 2009) to serve as a coding scheme

(Goodwin, 1994/2009). Novices must learn to adeptly employ a register derived from

this metalanguage in order to fully participate within the discipline. As the previous

chapter illustrates, professors in language teacher education courses may model use of

this register as a means of socializing students into the practice of entextualizing and then

recontextualizing theory and research from applied linguistics in their language teaching.

Yet, as Darling-Hammond and Snowden (2005) note, teacher educators not only need to

help novice teachers "think like a teacher" but also act like one; thus, modeling

appropriate usage is not enough. Teacher educators must also provide novices with

opportunities to engage in practices of seeing within authentic social situations (e.g.,

Johnson 2006, 2009). Through routine practice, students may both develop the

competence to manipulate models to which they have previously been exposed as well as

participate in the construction of new models (Jacoby & Gonzales, 1991; Ochs, Gonzales

& Jacoby, 1996). In the course in this study, the professor provides these opportunities

in, among other activities, class discussions, group work, student presentations, and practical tasks (course syllabus, fall 2005, p. 2). Students also have the opportunity to continue to engage in practices of seeing outside the physical classroom but virtually on the course's online discussion board. Novice language teachers then select among and reinterpret subject matter, based on their own pre-existing ideas and on their ideas about what they will face as teachers in the field. Focusing on class discussions and online discussion boards, this chapter investigates the novice language teachers' interpretive practices, in other words, practices of seeing (Goodwin 1994/2009), across the multiple dimensions of language use (Rymes, 2009) in the course, Teaching ESL Writing.

5.1   Legitimate Peripheral Participation

The social and interactional contexts of the course, Teaching ESL Writing, offer students the opportunity to exercise limited individual agency through legitimate peripheral participation as they begin to engage in the coding, highlighting, and production material representations (Goodwin, 1994/2009) of approaches to teaching writing and their associated tasks. As graduate students in TESOL and novice language teachers, they are part of the wider social context of the communities of practice associated with the related disciplines of applied linguistics and TESOL. Additionally, as the majority of the students are primarily second year graduate students, they are familiar with the interactional context of courses in the TESOL program. Some non-native English speaking (NNES) students do still struggle with their language proficiency and classroom interactional norms that might require more participation than in their prior educational experiences (Morita, 2000). Yet, regardless of their native-speaker status, all

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the novice language teachers must learn the practices of seeing associated with these overlapping communities of practice. Lave & Wenger (1991) define a community of practice (CofP) as:

> [A] set of relations among persons, activity, and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice. A community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge, not least because it provides the interpretive support necessary for making sense of its heritage. (p. 98)

In this instance, the wider community of practice is that of applied linguists and the more local one is that of the classroom. Goodwin's (1994/2009) practices of seeing may be characterized as Lave and Wenger's (1991) "set of relations among persons, activity, and world" that "is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge" in that they offer ways that professionals make sense of the world. While Goodwin (1994/2009) outlines what such practices might be in professional settings and suggests that novices are socialized into these practices, he does not focus on individuals' learning. He expressly writes that "The relevant unit for the analysis of the intersubjectivity at issue here is thus not these individuals but . . . a profession" (p. 460). In contrast, Lave & Wenger (1991) suggest an analytical approach to explore how novices learn practices within communities – legitimate peripheral participation, which they define as "multiple, varied, more- or less-engaged and –inclusive ways of being located in fields of participation defined by a community" (p. 36). As novices do not yet have full the capabilities to engage totally in the community, they instead participate in less

engaged and less inclusive ways, for example, through discussion and activities in a graduate education course on teaching ESL writing.

Within professional education, legitimate peripheral participation may occur across a variety of social and interactional contexts, including traditional classrooms (e.g., Mertz, 2007), but also in the context of working groups (e.g., Ochs, Gonzales & Jacoby, 1996), trade schools (Jacobs-Huey, 2006), and on the job (e.g., Erickson, 2004). Regardless of the context, novice professionals must learn when and how to employ professional registers so that they might appropriately employ a coding scheme, that is to say, "transform the world into categories and events that are relevant to the work of the profession" (Goodwin, 1994/2009, p. 454). All individuals have a register range and exhibit more or less competency in identifying and using different types of registers (Agha, 2004). Gaining expertise in a professional register often emerges through interactions between novices and experts, such as during ground rounds at a hospital when medical students report information about their patients to the supervising physician (e.g., Erickson, 2004) or when student beauticians consult with a client as in a cosmetology school (e.g. Jacobs-Huey, 2006), or in a physics lab group where the professors and students all contribute to the production of knowledge (e.g., Jacoby & Gonzales, 1991; Ochs, Gonzales & Jacoby, 1996). In classroom contexts, especially during Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) sequences, interactions occur in which novices may attempt to use professional registers with varying degrees of success to code types and events and then receive immediate evaluation of their utterance during the evaluation step of the sequence (cf. Jacoby

& Gonzales, 1991; Mertz, 1996, 2007). *Excerpt 1* briefly demonstrates how novice language teachers in this study may engage in legitimate peripheral participation in IRE sequences during the professor's mini-lectures.

The IRE sequence in *Excerpt 1* occurs during the Monday section of Week 4 – *Composing and the process approach* – when the professor gives a mini-lecture on different versions of the Process Approach to writing. It specifically transpires during the professor's description of the Expressivists, who emphasize fluency and personal voice over all else (Hayes & Flower, 1987; Leki, 1992; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005; see also Chapter 4 for a overview of the professor's mini-lecture). The professor first asks a display question to prompt students to discuss the antecedents of the Process Approach using the metalanguage of applied linguistics. "P" is the professor and "S1" is the student.

Excerpt 1

```
1   P: ok (0.4) what are some other. what is this a

2   reaction?(0.2) against. do you think, like thinking

3   back historically

4

5   S1: the accur::acy will be:: will be:: lower bu::t the

6   students can (0.1) wri::te long sentences long

7   paragraphs maybe paragraphs °if he doesn't have to::°

8   think about writing correctly.

9
```

```
10   P: ok so the student will:: right there's this whole

11   thing about the fact that focusing on your grammatical

12   correctness can sort of block you from making meaning

13   (0.2) and coming up with a longer text (0.2) right so

14   focusing on form can be can be a cognitive block to um

15   writing (0.2)
```

Although only a brief IRE sequence, *Excerpt 1* demonstrates the student's burgeoning,

but not yet expert, ability to employ the coding scheme based on the metalanguage of

applied linguistics to approaches to teaching writing.

In her response, the student answers using a metalinguistic term from applied

linguistics and highlights themes from the Process Approach using practices similar to

those of the professor. The second word of the student's response is "accur::acy." This

is one of the specialized vocabulary items (Biber, 2006) from the reading (Hayes &

Flower, 1987; Leki, 1992; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005) and that the professor uses through

her mini-lecture both prior to and following this IRE sequence (Chapter 4, *Excerpt 1*).

Additionally, the student highlights this answer using contextualization cues similar to

the professor's, including intonation and word repetition. The metalinguistic term,

"accur::acy" is elongated thus emphasizing its importance. In line 6, "wri::te," is

likewise elongated and its long intonation paralinguistically foreshadows the student's

utterance: "long sentences long paragraphs maybe paragraphs" (*Excerpt 1*, lines 6-7).

While the student uses this repetitive construction rather than the word, "fluency," the

metalinguistic term from the readings and the professor's mini-lecture, the semantic

content of the student's utterance does define the term. Furthermore, the close proximity

of the repetition of the lexical items, "long" and "paragraph," while not rare words

(Biber, 2006), signal the same meaning – to freely create longer stretches of discourse –

and highlight the importance of the concept to the Process Approach. Technically, the

student only notes aspects of the Process Approach that are the reaction to former

approaches instead of naming a former approach or discussing concepts related to one,

but she does use some appropriate metalanguage from the coding scheme to indicate the

Process Approach to a certain extent.

Because of the student's promising answer, in the assessment turn of the IRE

sequence, the professor first provides positive feedback by confirming the student's

response and then entextualizing it so that she may recontextualize it in the register

derived from the metalanguage of applied linguistics. In *Excerpt 1,* line 10, the professor

begins her statement aligning herself with the student's answer by agreeing with the

statement and echoing the student's use of the modal verb "will" (Goodwin & Goodwin,

1992). Yet, while the professor wants to affirm the student's response and attempt to use

the metalanguage, she also wants to scaffold the student into more expert language

usuage. Therefore, she stops mid-response and corrects herself (*Excerpt 1,* line 10), the

preferred mode of correction in conversation (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977), and

restates the student's answer, recontextualizing it. She says, "right there's this whole

thing about the fact that focusing <u>on</u> your grammatical correctness can sort of block you

from making meaning (0.2) and coming up with a longer text (0.2) right so focusing on

form can be can be a cognitive block to um writing (0.2)" (*Excerpt 1,* lines 10-15). In her

corrected response, the professor once again aligns herself with the student's response

(*Excerpt 1,* line 10) by repeating similar lexical items in similar co-texts, such as using

the synonym "grammatical correctness" (*Excerpt 1,* lines 11-12) for "accuracy" (*Excerpt 1,* line 5) and "coming up with a longer text" (*Excerpt 1,* line 13) to parallel "longer sentences longer paragraphs" (*Excerpt 1,* line 6-7). The professor then takes this entextualized text artifact, a discourse unit that can be moved through time and space (Silverstein & Urban, 1996), and recontextualizes it using the metalanguage of applied linguistics. She says, "right so focusing on form can be can be a cognitive block to um writing" (*Excerpt 1,* lines 13-15). "Focus on form" provides a second synonym for "accuracy" and adds to students' terminological inventory of the register and "can be a cognitive block to um writing" introduces not only a new collocation, "cognitive block," but also a means of conceptualizing why a focus on form may impede fluent writing. In this IRE sequence, the student has had a chance to engage in legitimate peripheral participation while the professor has once again modeled appropriate usage of the coding scheme; these two practices combine to socialize students into membership in the related CofPs of applied linguistics and TESOL.

5.2   Individual Agency and Legitimate Peripheral Participation

        In *Excerpt 1*, through legitimate peripheral participation in the IRE sequence, the student demonstrates her growing proficiency in using the coding scheme from applied linguistics to categorize approaches to teaching writing correctly highlighting one of the important aspects of the approach; in *Excerpt 2,* the student exercises more individual agency by initiating a question and attempting her own recontextualization of course material. *Excerpt 2* occurs after the professor completes her review of different approaches to writing pedagogies during the Tuesday section of Week 6 – *Teaching*

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Genre (see Chapter 4 for an overview of the review). As she reviews the different approaches the professor creates a material representation of her overview (Chapter 4, Figure 4.1). She then crosses in front of the black board to the lectern to begin her mini-lecture on teaching genre. One of the students, S1, sitting in the U-shape of the chairs facing the board and thus, the material representation raises her hand to ask a question. "P" is the professor and "S1" is the student. "S1" is a non-native English speaker (NNES) and some of the apparent struggles with the metalanguage may be due to the student's stage of interlanguage development rather than lack of understanding of the terms (Ortega, 2009).

Figure 4.1

Process → writer

Academic writing → text/skills

Genre approach → text/situation – context

Excerpt 2

55   **P:** yes

56

57   **S1:** I have a question

58

59   **P:** ok

60

61   **S1:** because the academic writing is also for some

62   specific purpose for some including some some common

63   discourse <u>community</u> so it's also considered a

64   situation so I wonder if academic writing is also kind

65   of gen- genre based

66

67   **P:** well ok it depends on which academic writing

68   approach you are talking about the readings that I had

69   you reading <u>last</u> week we::re <u>proponents</u> of <u>general</u>

70   academic writing (0.4) as something you can teach and

71   students can <u>apply</u> it across any situation that they

72   encounter so the people that we read last week

73   although people do teach academic writing in different

74   ways.

. . .

90   others think that you need to teach what students will

91   encounter in <u>disciplines</u> (0.4) like for example having

92   adjunct course along with an actual course in for

93   example the social sciences. or in engineering that

94   you would teach writing for that specific course (0.4)

95   so those are like the <u>two</u> different ways of looking at

96   academic writing and the genre approach is really

97   about connecting writing more to the social situation

98   so looking at <u>specific</u> uh specific types of writing

99   that students will encounter in particular? situations

100   for example in a particular discipline or? in a

```
101  particular profession (0.2) um so that's how the genre

102  approach is.

103

104  ((student raises hand))

105

106  P: yes

107

108  S1: so would the characteristics of academic writing

109  be considered kind of genre or

110

111  P: sorry?

112

113  S1: would the characteristic of academic writing be

114  considered a kind of genre [or?

115

116  P:                                    [by who?

117

118  S1:(0.4) by when we did academic writing we used Spack

119  vocabulary and a kind of style would be considered a

120  kind of genre

121

122  P: um depending on who you are reading.
```

Because of her roles as student and questioner, the student in *Excerpt 2*, still only engages

in legitimate peripheral participation as she has less expertise and is less engaged in the

87

field of applied linguistics that the professor. Yet, in this question and answer sequence, the student does exercise more individual agency than the student in *Excerpt 1*, who only responded to the professor's display question. Furthermore, in this question and answer sequence the student uses the coding scheme from the register of applied linguistics, highlighting categories and concepts from the course readings, previous lectures, and the professor's material representation to attempt her own recontextualization of the course material.

The student draws of the readings from Week 6 – *Teaching genre,* which were "Genre in Three Traditions: Implications for ESL" by Hyon (1996) and "Genre-based pedagogies: A Social Response to Process" by Hyland (2003) (see Chapter 4 for my reading notes summary) and the previous week, Week 5 – *Academic writing and the discourse community,* which were "Different products, different processes: A theory about writing" by Hairston (1986) and Initiating ESL students into the academic discourse community: How far should we go? by Spack (1988). Similar to the professor, my personal reading notes from Week 5 focus on the types of writing and strategies for writing that the two authors propose (reading notes, 10/10/05-10/11/05). I extensively quote Spack (1988):

> To learn to write in any discipline, students must become immersed in the subject matter; this is accomplished through reading, lectures, seminars, and so on. They learn by participating in the field, by doing, by sharing, and by talking about it with those who know more. They can also learn by observing the process through which professional academic writers produce texts or, if that is not possible, by studying that process in the type of program recommended by Swales (1987) for teaching the research paper to nonnative-speaking graduate students. They will learn most efficiently from teachers who have a solid grounding in the subject matter and who have been through the process themselves. (p. 100)

While the professor and I focus on how the Academic Writing Approach stresses the development of particular skill sets, the student focuses on the fact that Spack (1988) situates the teaching of academic writing within individual disciplines. Spack writes, "The purpose of this article is to remind teachers of English that we are justified in teaching general academic writing and to argue that we should leave the teaching of writing in the disciplines to the teachers of those disciplines" (p. 92). The student opens the questioning sequence demonstrating high certainty in her interpretation of the Academic Writing Approach and using the register based on the metalanguage of applied linguistics. The student correctly uses and conceptualizes the terms, "academic writing," "specific purpose," "discourse community," and "genre" (*Excerpt 2,* lines 61-65). Then using a copula to express state of being (Biber et al. 2002; Carter & McCarthy, 2006), the student asserts that "academic writing is also for some specific purpose for some including some some common discourse <u>community</u>" (*Excerpt 2,* lines 61-63). The student once again asserts a state of being linking discourse community to a situation: "so it's also considered a situation" (*Excerpt 2,* line 63-64). Using stress as a contextualization cue to indicate importance similar to the way the professor does, the student highlights the importance of the word, "community," to the Academic Writing Approach. By titling Week 5, *Academic writing and the discourse community,* in the course syllabus, the professor has previously linked the two (fall 2005, p. 6). The student's stress on community followed by a copula verbally points to situation mirroring the professor's materials representation of genre on the board: genre → text/situation – context. In other words, she

highlights the arrow and text/situation – context. However, the student asks a

question with less certainty. She signals her epistemic stance with a fairly low

certainty verb, "wonder" and hedges about whether or not Academic Writing is

genre based by modifying the term with the words, "kind of" (*Excerpt 2,* lines 64-

65). Exerting individual agency in the interactional context, the student asks a

question and recontextualizes research about writing pedagogy to verbally

reconfigure the professor's material representation of Academic Writing.

In her response, the professor both concedes the student's point but also

attempts to maintain the integrity of her overview and material representation.

The professor begins her response with a mitigating verb, "it depends" (*Excerpt 2,*

line 67). She then provides an alternate recontextualizion of the entextualized text

from the readings last week. She says, "the reading that I had you reading <u>last</u>

week we::re <u>proponents</u> of <u>general</u> academic writing (0.4)" (*Excerpt 2,* lines 69-

70). In this utterance, although the professor does not utilize metalinguistic

terminology, she uses many of the same contextualization cues that she routinely

uses to highlight salient aspects of different approaches to writing. She stresses

the terms, "last," "proponents" and "general" to highlight that last week's reading

was for or "pro" general writing. Furthermore, her elongated intonation on the

copula, "were," and the short pause of 0.4 of a second emphasize and firmly

express her certainty about this interpretation. Towards the end of her extended

answer, some of which is omitted above, she does note that "others think that you

need to teach what students will encounter in <u>disciplines</u>" (*Excerpt 2,* line 90-91).

She then says, "the genre approach is really about connecting writing more to the

social situation so looking at <u>specific</u> uh specific types of writing that students

will encounter in particular? situations for example in a particular discipline"

(*Excerpt 2,* lines 96-100). Trying to present this more nuanced analysis, the

professor, by stressing the word, "discipline" in line 91 and relating it to the

Academic Writing Approach and then repeating the word and linking it to

situation when discussing the Genre Approach, suggests that in some instances

the Academic Writing Approach and the Genre Approach are similar. Yet, she

does try to continue to keep them somewhat distinct by providing summation

statements first after her review of Academic Writing: "so those are like the <u>two</u>

different ways of looking at academic writing" (*Excerpt 2,* lines 95-96) and then

after her briefer review of the Genre Approach: "so that's how the genre approach

is" (*Excerpt 2,* lines 101-102).

Despite the professor's extended response to her question, the student wants to

receive explicit validation for her initial recontextualization of Academic Writing in

terms of the Genre Approach. Once again, the student verbally points to the material

representation of the characteristics of each approach and asks, "so would the

characteristics of academic writing be considered a kind of genre" (*Excerpt 2,* lines 108-

109). While the student may be asking for clarification of the professor's more nuanced

answer, her response to the professor's question, "by who" (*Excerpt 2*, line 116) suggests

that the student is familiar with the readings and what was presented in them. She names

Spack (*Excerpt 2,* line 118), the author that did discuss writing in the disciplines (reading

notes, 10/10/05-10/11/05) and uses the modal "would" to express some degree of

certainty that Spack does present "a kind of genre" (*Excerpt 2,* line 120). This degree of

91

familiarity with the readings suggests that rather than being confused by the professor's response, the student wants either a more straightforward answer or validation of her original point. Trying to maintain the integrity of her material representation in order to distinguish between the three approaches while allowing for a more nuanced interpretation, the professor responds to the student's question saying, "um depending on who you are reading," once again using the mitigating verb, "depend" so as not to affirm or deny the student's statement. After this point in the exchange, the professor no longer entertains this line of questioning.

The student in *Excerpt 2* demonstrates more engagement exhibiting greater familiarity and expertise with the register derived from applied linguistics and exercising a fair degree of individual agency within the interactional context. Through her own highlighting practices, she attempts to verbally reinscribe (Goodwin, 1994/2009, 2003) the professor's material representation of the general characteristics of each approach to writing pedagogy. Yet, while the student's legitimate peripheral participation allows her some degree of freedom to offer an alternate recontextualization of course material, the larger social context of graduate school classrooms and the field of TESOL limit her agency. In graduate classrooms, the power structure disproportionally favors professors who legislate course material and evaluate student performance (Bloome et al. 2005; Rymes 2009). Furthermore, second language writing theory, in general, distinguishes between the Academic Writing Approach and the Genre Writing Approach. Thus, the norms of the larger community of practice of TESOL create certain orientations towards writing pedagogies for novice language teachers.

5.3   Power Relations, Expertise, and Contesting Codes

Power relations in TESOL graduate courses affect how students come to learn

practices of seeing (Goodwin, 1994/2009) so that they may entextualize and

recontextualize theory and research about second language writing pedagogy. Language

socialization researchers have conceptualized the socialization process in terms of

interactions between experts and novices (Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002). If these

roles and the dimensions of language use (Rymes, 2009) are considered stable entities,

language socialization would be a determinative process in which certain people experts

ushered novices into expertise through increasing legitimiate peripheral participation

(Bloome et al. 2005). If, however, these roles and the dimensions of language use are

considered dynamic and emergent, language socialization represents a more complex

process. Jacoby & Gonzales (1991) demonstrate how expertise and hence associated

power/knowledge (Foucault, 1981) change throughout interactions in a research group of

physicists. Similarly, Jacobs-Huey (2006) notes how in African-American hair salons

expert and novice identities are constantly negotiated as the stylists negotiates with the

client, often a home-stylist. In more traditional classroom contexts, expertise and power

often appear to rest solely with the instructor. Indicators of this power structure include

the ability to interrupt an utterance (Bloome et al. 2005) and the control of uptake, in

other words, whether or not material from an immediately preceding answer is included

in subsequent utterances (Collins, 1996; Collins & Blot, 2003; Mertz, 1996, 2007).

Despite appearances, however, power structures in traditional classroom settings may

also be negotiated during interactions, including those in this study. Although the

professor asserts her individual agency and authority and draws on the prevailing social

context to eventually end questioning about her material representation in *Excerpt 2,* in other instances, students, especially non-native English speakers, draw on their personal experiences as writers to assert exerptise. *Excerpt 3* represents an example of such a negotiation of power relations.

In the Monday section of Week 10 – *Focus on Form*, the professor and students discuss the different types of grammar problems that plague native English speakers versus non-native English speakers; a native speaker identifies the subjunctive as problematic and then a NNES identifies articles. When prompted for another grammar problem for NNES, several of the NNES students in the class chorus "prepositions." While the professor initially appears to have the power in this exchange, it soon switches to a NNES student. "P" is the professor; "Ss" are several students in chorus; and "S4" is the primary student in the exchange.

Excerpt 3

```
71/2 P: what was another one somebody said

73

74   Ss: prepositions

75

76   P: prepositions prepositions good one prepositions are

77   very hard too and I think that if you are focusing on

78   that as you're writing you might sort of just (0.2)

79   spend your whole time looking at the dictionary

80   ((laughter in voice)) you know so it might be better

81   just to write and go back and check if you have the
```

82   right prepositions in there afterwards

83

84   ((student raises hand))

85

86   **P:** yeah

87

88   **S4:** sometimes it's very difficult because I asked

89   different native English speakers they will give me

90   different opinions about the use of prepositions like?

91   it is very helpful for me to do something and it is

92   very helpful for me in doing something

93

94   **P:** ah [ok

95

96   **S4:**   [and that point it is very very

97

98   **P:**   [those are

99

100   **S4:**   [helpful for me uh (0.8)

101   like when you do something but they said they have

102   different opinions about that [so

103

104   **P:**   [ok

105

```
106  S4:                           [they can't give me one
107  idea which one is correct
108
109  P: right ok so there is some issues that are complex
110  or even advanced speakers and writers are struggling
111  with them?
```

The professor initially controls the interaction in *Excerpt 3* and exhibits her expertise by

initiating the IRE sequence and the subsequent uptake; however, as the interaction

unfolds, a student, "S4," draws on his status as a NNES to shift the dynamics of the

interaction. The student dominates turn-taking to challenge the statement that

grammatical problems are a problem unique to NNES.

Following the students' choral response of "prepositions" to her question, "what

was another [grammatical problem] someone said" as the initiation of an IRE sequence,

the professor positively evaluates the students' answer. The professor incorporates their

answer throughout her utterance, repeating it four times to demonstrate her agreement,

repetition being one of her routine contextualization cues to highlight metalinguistic

terms and concepts that she believes important (see Chapter 4). She additionally overtly

comments, "good one" (*Excerpt 3,* line 76). Similar to articles, prepositions are

considered a difficult grammatical item for non-native speakers of English (Celce-Murcia

& Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Yet, while her repetition and the adjective "good" suggest a

high degree of certainty about the student's answer and her evaluation, as she includes

the students' answer into her subsequent utterance, she exhibits less surety. The

professor jokes about the difficulty for using prepositions as a NNES; she says, "I think

that if you are focusing on that as you're writing you might sort of just (0.2) spend your whole time looking at the dictionary ((laughter in voice))" (*Excerpt 3*, lines 77-79). As a native English speaker, the professor cannot be sure that NNES students will spend their whole time looking at the dictionary for help with prepositions; therefore, she uses the verb, "think," the modal, "might," and the mitigator, "sort of," all which suggest a fair less degree of certainty than her previous utterances.

One non-native English speaking student does not appear to share the joke and comments on the professor's evaluation. He begins his statement in a serious voice and by taking the affective stance that understanding prepositions is "difficult" (*Excerpt 3*, line 88) because native speakers do not seem to understand them (cf. Erickson, 2004). He then gives two concrete examples of preposition usage that different native speakers have assured him are permissible to use, "it is very helpful for me to do something and it is very helpful for me in doing something" (*Excerpt 3,* lines 91-92). Since he has stated his examples, the professor assumes he has reached a turn transitional relevance point (Schegloff, 2007) and begins to comment, "ah ok" (*Excerpt 3,* line 94), but the student interrupts her. Furthermore, as the professor attempts subsequently to respond to the student's comment in lines 98 and 104, the student interrupts her twice more to repeat that the native speakers have "different opinions" (*Excerpt 3,* line 102) as well as recontexualize his previous statements to make it less opinion-based and more factual: "they can't give me one idea which one is correct" (*Excerpt 3,* line 106-107) rather than "sometimes it's very difficult because" (*Excerpt 3*, line 88). Both interrupting the professor, the ostensible authority figure in the class, as well as the use of the modal, "can," suggest his relative certainty that native speakers do not know which preposition is

97

correct. When the professor finally is able to comment, she agrees with the student's statement using a copula to express a degree of certainty that "there is some issues [such as prepositions] that are complex or even advanced speakers and writers are struggling with them?" Although her omission of the actual term, "preposition" and the rise in intonation could indicate some question about the validity of this statement, the professor adds nothing to challenge it.

The student and professor, however, appear to be working with competing coding schemes. In this instance, the student correctly uses the metalinguistic term, "preposition" and even provides two examples of the concept. He also uses highlighting practices similar to the professor such as repetition. Yet, despite using similar communicative practices, the student does not seem to be employing the same coding scheme as the professor. He is not using the register derived from applied linguistics as a means of recontextualizing second language writing research to apply to future language teaching. Instead, he is presenting a different coding scheme, using similar lexical items, based on his own experience as a second language learner, to challenge the professor's coding scheme. In contesting the professor's coding scheme, he presents himself as expert and the professor as novice. By acknowledging his coding scheme in allowing repeated interruptions and at least partially conceding, the professor acknowledges this role change and power relations shift. *Excerpt 2* demonstrated how broader social context might affect the individual agency of novices as they engage in legitimate peripheral participation. *Excerpt 3* shows how interactional context might affect power relations and who is acknowledged as the novice and expert in a graduate TESOL classroom on teaching second language writing.

5.4   Expertise Among Peers

In the examples above, students engaged in legitimate peripheral participation under the constraints of classroom IRE interactions; they also have other opportunities to practice using the metalanguage of applied linguistics in activities in which expert and novice role-relationships are not hampered by power relations inherent in the classroom environment. Group work, practical activities, and online discussions still represent opportunities for legitimate peripheral participation, but students do not have to react to immediate evaluation and/or feedback from an acknowledged expert, the course professor. Relative expertise, thus, emerges through interaction among peers (Jacoby & Gonzales, 1991).   As they use the metalanguage of applied linguistics that they are learning in their course, students recontextualize texts based on their pre-existing ideas of what means to be language learner and their beliefs about what they will face as language teachers. Online discussion boards provide a representative example of alternate ways in which students engage in legitimate peripheral participation in order to learn not only to think but also to act like a language teacher.

In online discussion boards, students, in small groups, have the opportunity to continue to engage in the practices of seeing, specifically coding, first modeled by the professor and then performed with relative degrees of success by students in IRE interactions in class discussions. Students in both sections were assigned to small groups. Within those groups, each week, one student would act as the group moderator and present questions, issues, or topics for the other group members to answer. When all the group members had responded to the moderator's original post, the moderator then would

summarize the discussion for the week (course syllabus, fall 2005, p. 3). The tacit assumption in the course syllabus and among most students was that the students would only interact with other members of their online discussion groups and be monitored by the professor. In the Monday section, however, one student, S1, decided to respond to a student, S3, from another group during the discussion on the genre-approach (see Chapter 4). This student's unsolicited comments led to protests to the professor about violations of privacy, but the discussion that arose demonstrates how students could and do draw from multiple social contexts and exercise their own agency as they negotiate expertise within the interactional context of the online discussion boards.

Cross-group online discussion centered on the response of S3 to the question: "What sorts of benefits do you think genre instruction would have at any level in the ESL/EFL classroom?" (online discussion board, 10/15/2005). The student's response to that specific question has been outlined with a rectangle in the screen-grab below.
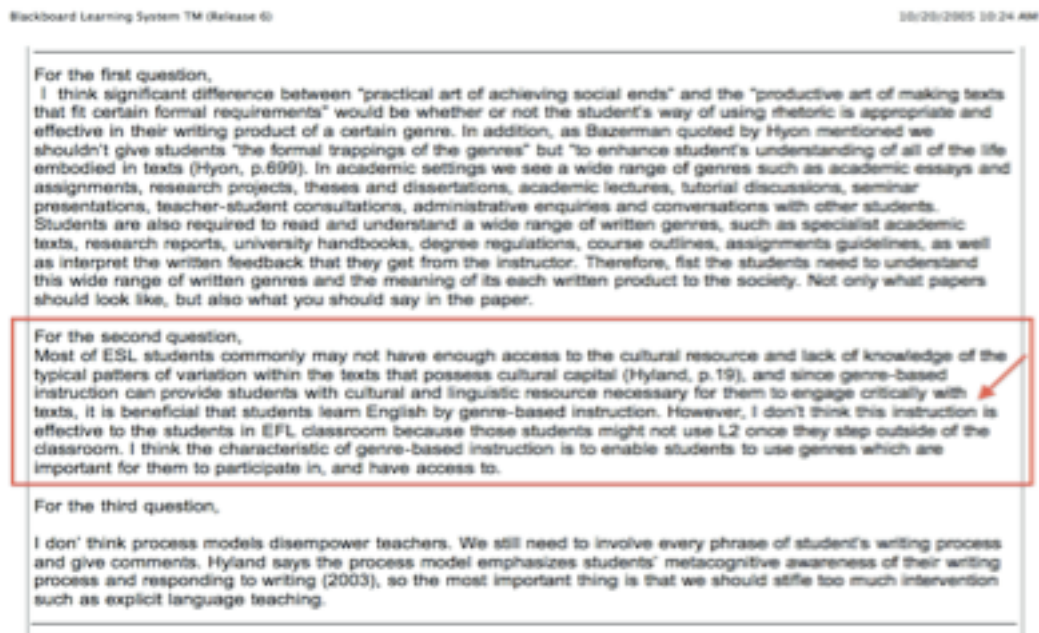
In her three-sentence response, S3 utilizes the coding scheme from applied linguistics to acknowledge the benefits of teaching English as a second language (ESL) students writing through the genre-approach, but she uses the same coding scheme to suggest that this approach may not be as beneficial for English as a foreign language (EFL) students. Throughout her post, the student does exhibit grammatical and spelling errors. These errors are most likely attributable to her status as NNES (Ortega, 2009) and/or to the informality of the online medium (Kahmi-Stein, 2000). Despite these errors, she also utilizes an emerging expert coding scheme from the metalanguage of applied linguistics. She uses specialized lexis such as "cultural resource," "cultural capital," and "genre-based instruction." Importantly, she distinguishes between ESL and EFL learners, learner designations that not only denote where students study English but also connote different models of English language learners (Ortega, 2009). In this online environment, she does not utilize more visual highlighting options, such as font style, or material representations, such as a hyperlink to a representative genre to which ESL learners might be exposed. Nevertheless, the student has begun to not only think but also act, through coding, like a language teacher. An outside group member, S1, then entextualizes the student's answer and recontextualizes within the online discussion of S1's group[1] as reproduced in the screen-grab below.

_____

[1] S1 has mistakenly identified the quotations as belonging to a student from Group 2.

Current Forum: GROUP 1 DISCUSSION BOARD   Read 37 times
Status : Archived
Date: Sun Oct 16, 2005 7:39 pm
Author:
Subject: Re: After reading   's opinion in the 2nd group

(Remove)

She argues "I don't think this instruction is effective to the students in EFL classroom because those students might not use L2 once they step outside of the classroom. I think the characteristic of genre-based instruction is to enable students to use genres which are important for them to participate in, and have access to."

Well, I think the argument that the genre instructions would not be effective in EFL classroom is somewhat persuasive in that the EFL students have fewer opportunities to use the genre in their real life. However, she does not see the entire shifting trend in English education of at least Asian EFL countries. for example, in Korea, a couple of decade ago, the english education had been for the general purposes which are classified in just a liberal art study. Students (I would define them as in secondary schools) had few opportunities to use what they have learnt in the English class. However since 1990s there have been tremendously increasing needs for english education used in a wide range of academic, vocational, and technological fields as they tended to have globalizing feature.
I do not remember how many fiends have asked me to write the abstract of their thesis in technology, literature, social science, and athletics. They used to complain that they have learned English over 10 years but they still don't know how to write a piece of paper in English specially when the professor asked for academic and professional writing. I used to answer "Neither do I!" They continued to say that they had a hard time to read books and articles filled with list of academic and vocational terms and expressions.
It is true that the secondary school students in Korea have no chance to speak and write about such subjects in their life, but within years, they would soon found out what the real purpose of learning English was. The higher level of profession they have, the more specific and professional needs and purposes of learning English they would feel in their future.
All the educational system are centerd to the government in Korea and thus the national curriculum have a strong influence on every elementary, middle, and high school. The recent one, the 7th English education curriculum, mentions the importance of ESP and suggests its application to practice. I expect the Korean government would start showing their effors for it. No one would agree with that EFL teachers are an exception to the change.
There might be a degree of differences among countries even though they are classified as EFL together. But things have been changed.

Interrupting the online discussion of Group 3, S1 also utilizes the register from applied linguistics but asserts her individual agency based on asserted expertise derived from presumed different social context. Without restating the question to which S3 responds and omitting the first sentence of her response, S1 directly quotes the last two sentences of the student's response and then discusses why she believes that this statement is incorrect. Similar to the first response, S1 has multiple grammatical errors and misspellings in her post and she writes in a less formal tone. Even with these errors, S1 likewise uses the coding scheme that the professor has modeled in class. She asserts the importance of a genre-based approach to teaching writing and then offers concrete examples of what a genre would be: "abstract of their thesis in technology, literature, social science, and atheletics" [sic]. Furthermore, the student identifies one type of genre – an abstract. Finally, she uses the metalanguage of applied linguistics to identify

features of registers in other fields. She writes, "[EFL students] had a hard time to read books and articles filled with lists of academic and vocational terms and expressions" [sic]. Despite these similarities, the student has exercised her own agency to entextualize S3's response to recontextualize it in an overlapping social context to the discipline of TESOL, that of a global economy.

S1 does not represent her disagreement with S3 has a question of expert use of the coding scheme. Instead, she disagrees with the content of S3's statement.   Drawing on her own pre-existing ideas about language learning in Korea – students still have difficulties writing in English after ten years of language study – S1 suggests that the genre approach may indeed be beneficial to students who will need to write in English in many different genres in the future. S1's recontextualization of S3's text adds the text to an additional social context, not just the interactional context of the discussion board or the social context of TESOL. She believes that in the global economy, in which English is the de facto lingua franca, students will need to learn multiple genres of English writing and therefore the genre approach may best serve them.

In contrast, as demonstrated in the screen-grab below, while S3 concedes that S1 has accurately portrayed the status of language learning and teaching in Asia, she argues that she and S1 are utilizing different coding schemes.
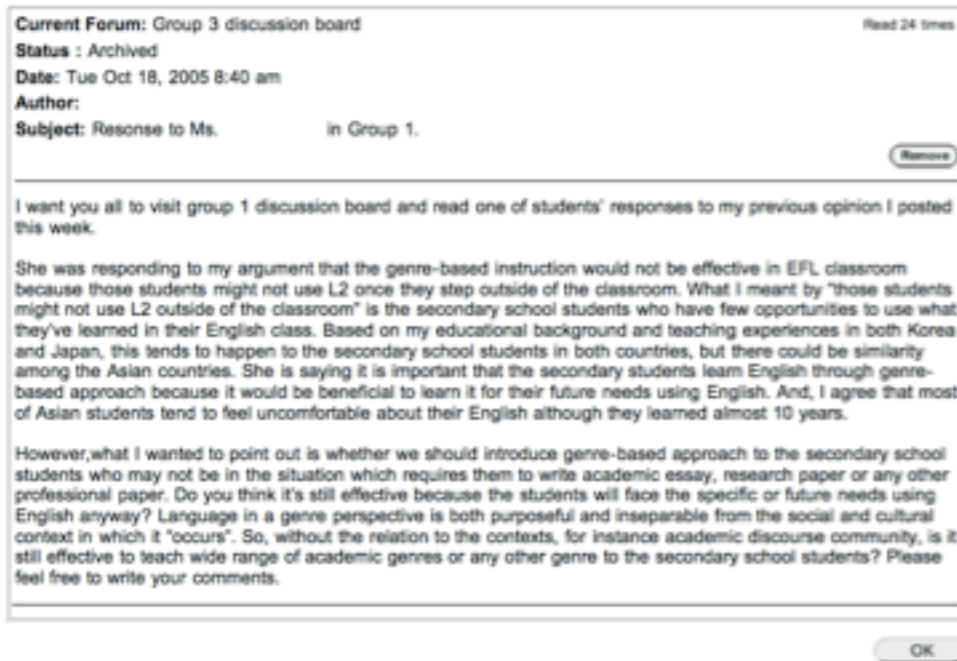
S3 will

not concede that S1 is more expert than she in this interaction based on prior experience as a language learner or teacher in Asia. She asserts her own background in that social context; she remarks on her own "educational background and teaching experiences in both Korea and Japan." Moreover, S3 suggests that S1 is more novice than she in her use of the metalanguage of applied linguistics. She states, "[W]hat I wanted to point out is . . ." With this relative clause, S3 suggests that similar to S1 she has unique first-hand knowledge of the situation, but she can "point out," that is to say, highlight, what she believes is a crucial aspect of what teaching writing in English using a genre-based approach entails. In other words, she is not just saying this is about whether or not a particular approach is appropriate for a particular context. Rather, she is questioning how S1 uses the term genre-approach within her analysis. S3 believes the term has a more nuanced meaning than S1 uses. To use the term genre-approach, the speaker must be

aware that they are invoking not only types of texts but also the discourse communities in which those texts are produced.

Because of student protests that their privacy had been violated, the professor asked students to only participate in their own group's discussion. However, this debate demonstrates how students attempted, if inexpertly at times, to use the coding scheme from applied linguistics – a register comprised of a metalanguage – as well as highlighting practices similar to those used by the professor in class – verbal pointing to what the participant believed to be the correct answer. Since the professor neither graded nor monitored the interactions as they unfolded, students had the opportunity to engage in legitimate peripheral participation in which the novice-expert dichotomy was more fluid and somewhat dependent on the assertion of individual agency within the online exchange than in IRE interactions with the professor. This instance, in particular, offers perhaps more of an unguarded account of how students with competing expertise might interact when they believe the professor will not openly evaluate them.

5.5   Conclusion

As novice language teachers, participants in the graduate course, Teaching ESL Writing, must be socialized into the practices of seeing (Goodwin 1994/2009) that comprise the overlapping communities of practices (Lave & Wenger, 1992) of applied linguistics and TESOL. One the one hand, such socialization occurs as students observe the professor modeling these practices. On the other hand, students engage in legitimate peripheral participation, less than full participation, in authentic situations in order to engage in the practices of seeing (e.g., Erickson, 2004; Jacobs-Huey, 2006; Ochs,

Gonzales & Jacoby, 1996). Such legitimate peripheral participation may occur in classroom discussion in which students have the opportunity to use the register derived from the metalanguage of applied linguistics in not only IRE sequences as in *Excerpt 1,* during student-initiated questions and comments as in *Excerpts 2* and *3,* and in online student discussions. In these latter cases, students may be able to exercise more individual agency and move closer to full participation than when constrained by the interactional context of the IRE sequence. Yet, social contexts such as classroom and disciplinary norms may still yet impinge on such agency. One ways of subverting these norms, however, is through the negotiation of expertise and hence power/knowledge (e.g., Foucault, 1981; Jacobs-Huey, 2006; Jacoby & Gonzales, 1991). In *Excerpt 3*, the novice language teacher does this by contesting the professor's coding scheme derived from metalanguage of applied linguistics and instead situating it in his own language learning experience. In online discussions, students have more freedom to negotiate expertise among themselves. The question then becomes what practices of seeing (Goodwin, 1994/2009) do novice language teachers employ in other authentic situations, such as in actual teaching or teaching demonstrations.

CHAPTER 6

"What Works"

As demonstrated in Chapters 4 and 5, in routine classroom interactions, such as

lecture and discussions, novice language teachers have the opportunity to observe and use

a coding scheme (Goodwin, 1994/2009) based on the metalanguage of applied linguistics

to entextualize second language writing theory and research and recontextualize it to

make sense of current and/or future teaching. Social and interactional contexts may

either support or limit individual agency as students engage in legitimate peripheral

participation through classroom discussions (Bloome et al. 2005; Lave & Wenger, 1991;

Rymes, 2009). These routine classroom interactions represent ways that the professor

socializes students into the practices of seeing of the discipline (Goodwin, 1994/2009; cf.

Collins, 1996; Collins & Blot, 2003; Mertz, 1996, 2007; Ochs, Gonzales & Jacoby,

1996). Yet, within classroom discussions, novice language teachers primarily occupy the

role of student, one who usually responds to instructor-initiated questions and are then

evaluated (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979; cf. Jacoby & Gonzales, 1991). Such role

alignments (Agha, 2007) unfold through interactional context and usually position the

novice language teachers as having less power/knowledge (Foucault, 1981). For novice

language teachers to have opportunities to enact actual teaching practices, in other words,

to be in the role of teacher, they need to participate in other social and interactional

contexts, such as teaching demonstrations. This chapter explores the structure and

content of two exemplary teaching demonstrations by novice language teachers across

the three dimensions of language use (Rymes, 2009) vis-à-vis the practices of seeing (Goodwin, 1994/2009) as modeled by the course professor.

6.1   Local Models

The analysis of the demonstration teaching sessions suggest that whether or not students enact practices of seeing related to being a writing teacher depend on explicit presentation of a local model by the course professor. In 1970, Sacks proposed that the study of talk-in-interaction might reveal how a person comes to identify their communicative practices as representative of "being ordinary." Discourse analysts have since built on this proposal and in some instances distinguish between ordinary and institutional talk. Heritage (2005) defines ordinary talk as "forms of interaction that are not confined to specialized settings or the execution of particular tasks" (p. 89). While ordinary talk's counterpart, institutional talk, often refers to talk in specialized settings such as the courtroom, hospital, and the workplace (e.g., Drew & Heritage, 1992; Sarangi & Roberts, 1999), it also pertains to the classroom environment. Institutional talk is characterized by asymmetrical speaking rights, goal orientations, and the alignment of participant identities (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006). In school settings, as seen in Chapter 5, the teacher-student dynamic may lead to asymmetrical speaking rights. Additionally, most talk is goal oriented and participants usually employ semiotic resources to align to roles such as teacher, student, jock, nerd, class clown, etc. (e.g., Bucholtz, 2001; Eckert, 1989; Wortham, 2006). Moreover, Wortham (1994, 2006) demonstrates that academic learning, that is, the long-term process of acquiring knowledge, is linked to identifying with local models, or imagined roles, that allow students to make sense of a particular

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experience. He describes how teachers may use participant examples, examples that

analogize the curriculum with a context relevant to the student, to aid in this process.

These local models come to supersede circulating sociohistorical models with which

students may not identify and thus not immediately relate. Within the context of the

course, Teaching ESL Writing, the professor does occasionally use such participant

examples. However, as suggested in Chapter 4, the professor herself, is a local model as

she embodies a material representation of what it means to use the coding scheme derived

from the register of applied linguistics as well as enact other practices of seeing. Within

their teaching demonstrations, in particular, the novice language teachers have the

opportunity to identify with this local model of being a second language writing teacher.

6.1.1 "What Works" Reports

A key requirement in the course, Teaching ESL Writing, is a 15-minute teaching

demonstration entitled a "What Works" Report. In this demonstration, students have 5-7

minutes to synthesize 3 articles about a theoretical issues raised by the research literature

on writing pedagogy and then another 5-7 minutes to demonstrate a teaching strategy as

"if [they] were teaching the class" (course syllabus, fall 2005, p. 4). They are required to

describe their imagined student population, teaching context, and objectives of the lesson.

Although students may consult writing textbooks, they have to create original lesson

plans and/or materials and were encouraged to use a variety of media. The demonstration

is evaluated as follows:

> This project will be graded on the basis of your presentation and the
> materials you submit, including a) how well you synthesized the readings

and related them to the week's topic; b) the quality of your teaching strategy and materials; c) the quality of your presentation/teaching demonstration—i.e., the extent to which your presentation represents a model of "good teaching." (course syllabus, fall 2005, p. 4)

As the exercise is designed, the novice language teachers are supposed to entextualize theories and research about second language writing and recontextualize them in their syntheses and teaching demonstrations. The social context that this assignment draws upon is the overlapping communities of practice of the disciplines of applied linguistics and TESOL and students should locate their models of "good teaching" within those CofPs. However, the social context of the classroom environment and local interactional context often affect how students enact models of "good teaching." Although the professor routinely modeled the practices of seeing from the CofPs of applied linguistics and TESOL in both sections of the course, only in the Tuesday section of the course did she use the register of applied linguistic to also reflexively describe her model of teaching writing (Lucy, 1993; see Chapter 4, *Excerpt 2* and analysis). While students in both sections struggle with synthesizing articles and then acting models derived from the theory and research (course professor, personal communication, 12/12/05), more students in the Tuesday section are able to successfully meet the guidelines of the project. They synthesize the literature rather than individually summarizing each of the three articles. They then apply that research as they create a lesson plan (e.g., interview 1, 4/14/05), rather than creating a lesson plan first and attempting to find articles to support it (e.g., interview 2, 4/18/06). This contrast is illustrated in the two exemplary teaching demonstrations by comparable students. Although of different genders, both the students

who perform the "What Works" reports discussed are from Taiwan with similar, if not identical, levels of English language proficiency.

The students who give the "What Works" reports in these examples purport to represent the Cognitivist approach to teaching writing, one incarnation of the process approach, and demonstrate the same teaching activity, mapping. The professor presents the Cognivist approach as similar to the Expressivist approach (see Chapter 4 for discussion of the Expressivist approach) in that both approaches consider writing an internal process, but that the Cognitivist approach views learning to write as a series of problem-solving strategies. She notes that instruction in this approach makes students aware of procedures and strategies (e.g., planning, rhetorical style) and practice for routinization, and activities include invention and pre-writing, multiple drafts, revision, collaborative writing, feedback sessions and postponement of editing until later drafts (fieldnotes 10/3/05). During this part of her mini-lecture on the process approach(es), the professor projects Figure 6.1 on a screen at the front of the classroom. The names in parentheses in Figure 6.1 indicate the authors she is synthesizing and the bulleted points represent her main points.

Figure 6.1

- <u>Cognitivists:</u> (Hayes & Flower, Hirsch, Berlin)
    - o Composing is an internal, problem-solving process
    - o Instruction includes making students aware of the procedures and strategies of composing, and giving them practice so that these procedures become more automatic
    - o Emphasis is on developing problem-solving skills and strategies
    - o Activities include invention and pre-writing, multiple drafts, revision, collaborative writing, feedback sessions, and the postponement of editing until the later drafts

In addition to the professor's mini-lecture, the students were assigned to read Hayes and Flower (1987) as representative of the Cognitivist incarnation of the process approach. My reading notes focus on how the authors differentiate between novice and experienced writers rather than problem-solving processes; however, I do mention planning strategies and diagnostic skills in my discussion. Both students draw from this reading and another article by the same authors in their "What Works" reports.

> Hayes and Flower (1987) describe differences between inexperienced and experienced writers at every stage in the writing process. Novice writers do not consider their audience when relating their topic-knowledge; expert writers do. Novice writers do not employ the extensive planning strategies; experts do. Novice writers have poor detection and diagnostic skills and usually only make revisions at a local level. Expert writers have better detection and diagnostic skills and can either make global revisions or rewrite sections if necessary. Yet, Hayes's and Flower's results are based on self-report of writers. Actual cognitive composing process may actually be different from those reported. Furthermore, Hayes and Flower only describe the differences between writers of varying expertise, they do not contextualize their results for different subject areas or different cultural contexts. Finally, their study is only descriptive, it offers no

suggestions for how to teach novice writers to become expert writers.
(reading notes, 10/3/05-10/4/05)

Although both students address the same topic, drawing on at least one of the

same readings, and demonstrating the same teaching activity, their expertise using

the practices of seeing (Goodwin, 1994/2009) associated with teaching second

language writing differs.

6.2   "What Works" on Monday

On Monday, having not received explicit instruction and modeling of the "What

Works" report (see Chapter 4, *Excerpt 2* and analysis), the student who performs his

teaching demonstration, "ST1," imperfectly recreates the local model as presented by the

course professor. He reports upon readings by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), *The*

Psychology of Written Composition, Flower and Hayes (1981), "A Cognitive Process

Theory of Writing," and Hayes (1996), "A New Framework for Understanding Cognition

and Affect in Writing" and then asks students to participate in a mapping activity.

During his "What Works" report, the student struggles with synthesizing the material and

using the practices of seeing associated with the CofP of applied linguistics and then

presents a lesson suggestive of the local model of a second language writing pedagogy

presented by the professor but also of classroom interactional contexts more generally.

While the student's struggles could be considered an exercise of his individual agency in

which he presents a new coding scheme based on his personal ideas about writing

pedagogy, his attempt to entextualize and recontextualize the literature in his summaries

belie this consideration. Furthermore, the student's use of highlighting and the display of

material representations of the information on the overhead projector resemble similar practices of seeing by the professor. *Excerpt 1* illustrates ST1's attempt at synthesis.

Excerpt 1

3 **ST1:** ((clears throat)) about the three different models

4 of process writing, the first one is:: (0.4) as [the

5 professor] mentioned before, Flower and Hayes? 1981, and

6 the second one is Hayes, the model is from:: the first

7 one modeled on. and the third one is Bereiter and::

8 (0.2) Scardamalia ((struggles with name)) 1987 (2.2)

9 okay let's take a look at the first model um (10.0)

10 ((student changes display from powerpoint to 10 overhead

11 projector)) uh, the model is made by (0.4) uh is

12 proposed by Flow::er and Hayes 1981, you can see there

13 are three components of the wri- writing model. the

14 first one is task environment (0.2) and the second one

15 is writing process (0.2) and the third one is the

16 writer's long term memory (0.4) actually you can imagine

17 that how what is task environment that means:: (0.2)

18 when you have to write. (0.4) the context will um the

19 wri- writing will be happen (0.2) that's the task

20 environment.

. . . ((student continues to describe Flower & Hayes's

(1981)))

24 and it has some insight and some problems of the model,

25 about the insight part (0.4) uh it says. ((student

26 reads)) writing is a cur- a recursive and not a linear

27 process, therefore instruction in the writing process

28 may be more effective than providing models of

29 particular rhetorical forms and asking students to

30 follow them, and the problem is:: (0.4) ((student

31 continues to read)) this model lacks an elaborate

32 cognitive explanation of the writing process such as::

33 (0.4) uh how knowledge interacts with processing

34 strategies or exactly what types of knowledge are

35 necessary (1.8) about the second model (6.0) ((student

36 switches display back to powerpoint)) it is proposed by

37 Hayes. um, he proposed in 1996.

In *Excerpt 1,* ST1 does summarize the readings using lexical items characteristic of the

register of applied linguistics. Furthermore, in *Excerpt 1,* lines 10-11, he presents

material representations, highlighting specific points that he feels important in

powerpoint slides and handouts displayed on the overhead projector. Yet, the student's

presentation format and understanding of the coding scheme demonstrate his limited

expertise.

Rather than synthesize the readings, ST1 summarizes each reading in turn while

pointing with his pen to a graphic representation of the models reproduced from the

readings. For example, in *Excerpt 1,* ST1 begins by describing the model from the

reading by Flower and Hayes (1981). He says, "(2.2) okay let's take a look at the first

model um (10.0) ((student changes display from powerpoint to overhead projector)) uh,

the model is made by (0.4) uh is proposed by Flow::er and Hayes 1981, you can see there

are three components of the wri- writing model." In his summary, ST1 does replicate, to

some extent, the coding scheme found in the reading and based on the register from

applied linguistics by naming each component. As he names each component, he

highlights the lexical item in his material representation by pointing at it with his pen

(black mark in right hand corner of the picture). Similar to the professor, he is making

certain terms salient by reproducing them as material representations and then

highlighting them through gesture, in this case, pointing, if not through other

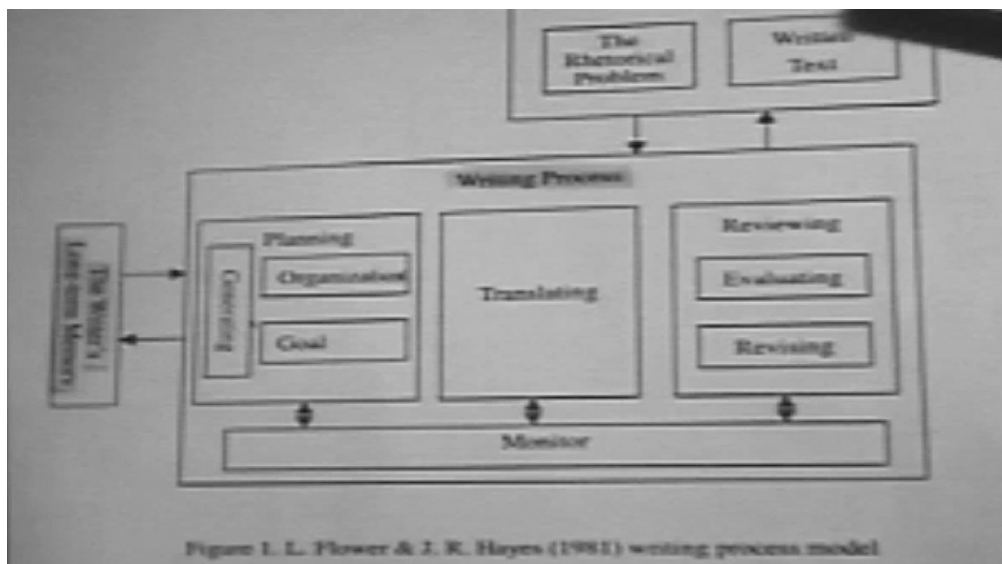paralinguistic contextualization cues.

Figure 1. L. Flower & J. R. Hayes (1981) writing process model

Unlike the professor, however, ST1, does not expertly use the coding scheme to entextualize and recontextualize the reading appropriately. He either places the onus of understanding on the other students or merely animates another author's interpretation or critique (Goffman, 1979). In *Excerpt 1,* lines 16-18, ST1 uses the deitic, "you," to index his classmates (Wortham, 1996) and suggest that they should understand what task environment means based on a limited explanation: "actually you can imagine that how <u>what</u> is task environment that means:: (0.2) when you have to <u>write</u>. (0.4) the context will um the wri- writing will be happen (0.2) that's the task environment." Using a modal for ability, "can," ST1 shifts responsibility for imagination to his peers and then substitutes the word, "writing" for "task" and "context" for "environment." In the former case, ST1 overgeneralizes by applying the whole activity of writing to task, which might be considered a more limited activity, especially as the writing process is the second component of the model. In the latter case, he substitutes an ambiguous synonym for environment. Does context refer to the assignment or the class or the physical place in which writing occurs, etc.? In addition to recontextualizing the reading in vague co-text, ST1 only animates the voice of another author to critique the model. He reads aloud in *Excerpt 1,* lines 25-32: "uh it says. . . . writing is a cur- a recursive and not a linear process, therefore instruction in the writing process may be more effective than providing models of particular rhetorical forms and asking students to follow them, and the problem is:: . . . this model lacks an elaborate cognitive explanation of the writing process." In this instance, ST1 reproduces the text of another author using a direct, but unattributed, quotation, "it says." He offers neither additional commentary nor highlights any aspect of the text as salient through contextualization cues. Rather, he only reads the text in a

monotone. ST1 does not reference himself and his interpretations, and he does not provide paralinguistic cues to highlight his personal beliefs about the reading. Additionally, he does not recontextualize any of the reading in elaborate co-text to provide a different interpretation. Yet, ST1 does use lexical items from the register of applied linguistics as when he names the components of Flower and Hayes's (1981) model. ST1 may feel constrained by the social context of the course and assignment to use, if imperfectly, specific practices of seeing as modeled by the course professor. Together, this social context and ST1's discursive strategies suggest that rather than attempting to exercise individual agency, ST1 lacks either sophisticated understanding or skill to synthesize the readings. Thus, ST1's attempt at synthesis does possess some of the elements of the local model of writing pedagogy as presented by the professor, such as material representations of course material and highlighting through gesture, but overall the student demonstrates only limited expertise using the practice of seeing from applied linguistics.

As ST1 transitions from the synthesis portion to the teaching demonstration of the "What Works" report, he closely follows the initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) model for class discussion but appears to draw on this more widely circulating model of classroom discourse (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979) than enact local models of teaching second language writing as presented by the professor and in readings about writing pedagogy. Although the student does project information about his hypothetical student population and his goal for the activity on a powerpoint slide behind him, ST1 offers minimal instruction about writing in *Excerpt 2* and throughout his teaching demonstration.

Excerpt 2

100 ((writing activity is projected on powerpoint slide))

101

102 **ST1:** okay (0.4) so after this I will have a:: (0.2)

103 writing activity so I hope you guys can uh three or

104 four of you can to be a group. so my hypo- hypothetical

105 student population is tenth grader students in <u>Taiwan</u>

106 and my <u>goal</u> is to improve planning skills in writing,

107 so:: we will now starting a journal from, a journey

108 from the stage of planning by using mapping. do? as you

109 see in your bulkback. your article? so the topic's your

110 <u>ideal</u> school. so you can communicate with your with

111 your partners to talk about what is your ideal school

112 and then we can present this to:: (0.4) our principal

113 and to be the improvement of the future about our

114 campus or the school. so I will give you several

115 minutes? and then (0.6) we will have a discussion about

116 that. so:: (1.2) ((walking towards students to pass out

117 material)) °it's good°

. . . ((students confer in small groups about ideal

school))

165 **ST1:** ((talking of discussion of other students)) okay,

166 <u>most</u> of you (0.2) have done a very good <u>job</u> I can see

167 it. so I want to ask someone to present their work for

168 us

169

170 (6.0)((ST1 chooses group to present and holds up their

171 map)) (4.0) uh excuse me pay attention to your cla-

172

173 ((classroom laughter)) (6.0)

174

175 **S6:** easily accessible

176

177 **ST1:** their ideal school.

178

179 **S8:** our ideal school, um we think it should be very

180 flexible so there should be flexible deadlines for

181 assignments (0.2) um that? students should be able to

182 choose their own sub::jects and not have to follow like

183 a regimented day. and also that they can choose their

184 scheduling so:: like if they want classes to always

185 start after ten they could choose to come in later in

186 the day (0.4) um we think that students should be able

187 to decide what they are doing so they should have their

188 own student government? and that there shouldn't be any

189 exams. (0.6) oh? and that there should be great

190 resources like there should be like a really nice

191 li::brary:: and new materials (0.2) and things should

192 look nice (0.8) and it's a friendly place

193

194 ((classroom laughter))

195

196 **ST1:** and the most important part is no exams

197 ((classroom laughter)) I think this is very (0.2) great

198 (0.2) opinion. okay that's all my presentation to my

199 class thank you very much.

200

201 ((Classroom applause))

ST1 asks his fellow students to create maps in small groups, and some have suggested

that interaction within such groups may promote second language acquisition (e.g., Gass,

2003). Yet, while group-work may be a teaching strategy for language instruction, it is

not an activity specifically related to teaching second language writing. Mapping is an

activity related to writing pedagogy, but ST1 engages few of the practices of seeing

related to teaching second language writing when instructing the students about the task,

monitoring the students during the task, and following up after they have completed the

task.

ST1 use of coding scheme derived from the register of applied linguistics is

limited and is primarily evident in his instructions. He states in *Excerpt 2,* lines 106-109:

"my goal is to improve planning skills in writing, so:: we will now starting a journal from, a journey from the stage of planning by using mapping. do? as you see in your bulkback. your article?" In these lines, the student does reference "planning" as the skill that he would like to hone with this activity. Similar to the professor, he repeats the word twice and this repetition serves as a contextualization cue highlighting the salience of the term. However, he offers no actual instructions about how to complete the planning task other than to say that the students would use "mapping." His rising intonation suggests that he is asking them if they have read the article in the bulkback, where presumably an explanation of mapping is. Yet, ST1 offers them no chance to respond to his question or ask for clarification about the task. Furthermore, ST1 provides no obvious indications, verbal or otherwise, about what planning or mapping are. His next statement in *Excerpt 2,* lines 110-112 is: "so you can communicate with your with your partners to talk about what is your ideal school and then we can present this to:: (0.4) our principal." This could mean that his classmates should plan what they want to say to the principal, but it could also mean that the students should come to a consensus about what should be said. Additionally, the focus of this activity is spoken discourse rather than writing. ST1 tells the students to "communicate with your partners to talk about what is your ideal school." After these initial instructions, ST1 does not use any lexical items from the coding scheme derived from the register of applied linguistics. While planning and mapping, theoretical and methodological approaches to second language writing, are originally referenced, ST1 does not continue use this coding scheme as the activity unfolds.

Furthermore, ST1 draws on few semiotic resources to illustrate planning and mapping. At the conclusion of the group-work activity, ST1 does hold up one group's

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map and ask them to talk about it (*Excerpt 2,* line 170). Yet, he does not name the drawing a map nor describe their activity as planning. Rather he asks one group "to present their work for us" (*Excerpt 2*, line 167). As the students speak, one does occasionally point to different parts of the map, but ST1 makes no gestures at all. ST1 offers no paralinguistic cues to highlight any part of the material representation, the map, of the students' conception of the ideal school. Finally, at the end of the IRE sequence, in which he evaluates the students' presentation, his uptake is regarding the students' ideas rather than their planning or mapping. He says, "and the most important part is no exams ((classroom laughter)) I think this is very (0.2) great (0.2) opinion. okay that's all my presentation to my class thank you very much." (*Excerpt 2*, lines 198-199). Although his jocular response addresses what the students have said and receives laughter from his peers, it does not address any stage of the writing process. As in the synthesis portion of his "What Works" report, ST1 demonstrates limited expertise with the practices of seeing related to writing pedagogy. Furthermore, in the teaching demonstration, ST1 does not seem to focus on the goal of his activity: planning for writing. His practices of seeing resemble those in classrooms more generally rather than those based on the local model presented by the professor.
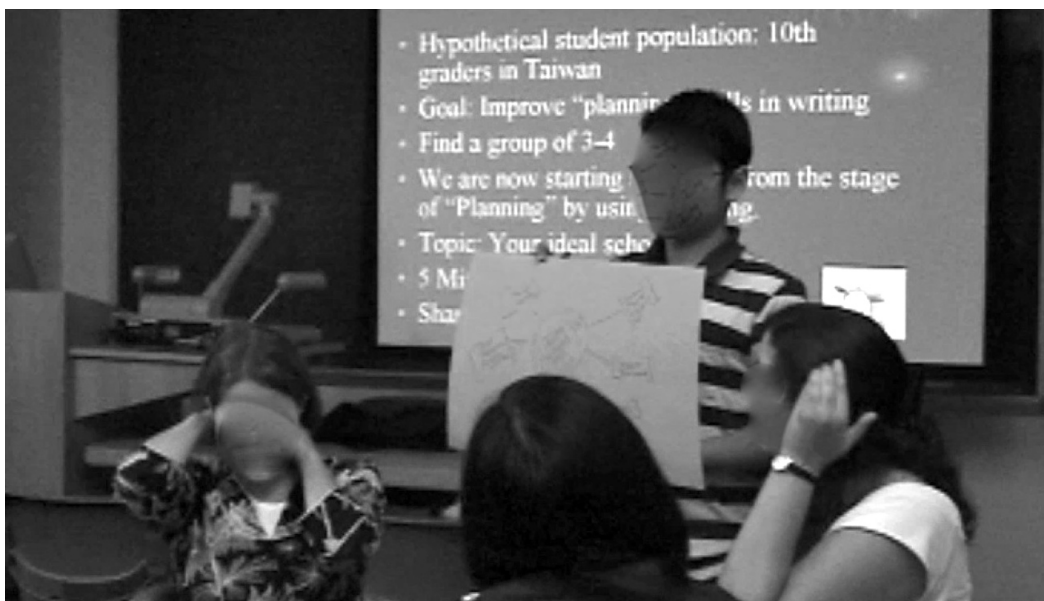
While ST1 does demonstrate limited expertise in his teaching demonstration, he

may have been hampered by the social and interactional contexts. In a teaching

demonstration, students occupy dual roles of student and teacher. They are being

evaluated on their performance as they evaluate others on their performance.

Furthermore, the interactional context requires a pretense on the part of their peers. Their

fellow students must pretend to be English language learners and not graduate students.

They should deny knowledge of the material or how to perform the activity. Yet, this

pretense is not always completely successful. In this instance, ST1 references the

bulkpack (*Excerpt 2,* line 109) where presumably the students had read about mapping.

After that reference, he offers no further verbal instructions or physical demonstration

about how to do the activity. Despite the lack of instructions, all the students

successfully complete the task. Yet although social and interactional contexts do affect a

novice teacher's ability to enact the curriculum, they are not prohibitive. In *Excerpts 3*

and *4*, ST2 more successfully entextualizes theories and research related to the Cognitive approach and recontextualizes them in her synthesis and teaching demonstration.

6.3   "What Works" on Tuesday

"ST2," the student who performs her teaching demonstration on Tuesday, did see the professor explicitly modeling a "What Works" report (see Chapter 4, *Excerpt 2* and analysis), and her "What Works" reports closely resembles this local model. She synthesizes course readings about the process approach as well as articles relating to peer editing as part of the final stage of the process. These latter readings include "Exploring the Dynamics of Cross-Cultural Collaboration in Writing Classrooms," by Allaei and Connor (1990), "Coach Student Writers to be Effective Peer Evaluators" by Stanley (1992), and "Do Secondary L2 Writers Benefit from Peer Comments?" by Tsui and Ng (2000). Her synthesis addresses all these readings, but the actual teaching demonstration focuses on planning. She also asks the students to participate in a mapping activity, but she then concludes her teaching demonstration by suggesting future activities, including peer editing, based on the Cognitive Approach. The student entextualizes and recontextualizes the literature in her synthesis and teaching demonstration using the coding scheme based on the register applied from applied linguistics. Furthermore, she uses several different contextualization cues to highlight central aspects of this approach to writing. As she enacts this model, she additionally produces a material representation of the activity that she would like her students to perform. In *Excerpt 3,* part of her synthesis, ST1 compares and contrasts the product and process approaches to writing and describes the components of the Cognitive approach.

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Excerpt 3

1 **ST2:** hi everybody um <u>before</u> I get into process writing.

2 I'll start with product writing first to see (0.4) what

3 the differences uh between these two approaches (0.6) um

4 product writing which is still prevailing in most ESL

5 writing classes, many focuses on structure and form the

6 writing activity includes lots of grammar drills as well,

7 they believe that writing is supposed to:: have an

8 introduction (0.2) a main body (0.2) and a conclusion

9 (0.2) and of course the main bod::y um consists of this

10 form of ideas examples and um transitions etc. (0.4) and

11 then after you finish the writing the teacher will go

12 over the common errors and students correct their own

13 errors (2.0) um there are some problems of the product

14 writing.

. . .

28 um:: and in process writing students experience five

29 interrelated phases for rea::ding draf::ting revising

30 editing and (0.2) um publishing. um:: for the drafting

31 um (0.4) the purpose of draft um (0.6) for for the um

32 prewriting the purpose is to get ideas for writing (0.2)

33 often going through brainstorming or oral discussion.

34 and:: um and um in draft- drafting is getting ideas down

35 on paper quickly. (0.4) and revising is focusing on

```
36 reordering arguments reordering supporting information

37 reviewing or changing sentences. (0.2) editing is

38 focusing on correcting grammar punctuation spelling etc.

39 and the purpose for publishing is showing that their

40 writing are:: valued and sharing writing with one

41 another.
```

Unlike ST1, ST2 synthesizes rather than merely reports on the literature she read.

Furthermore, she more adeptly uses the coding scheme based on the register of applied

linguistics while highlighting the information on and through material representations on

powerpoint slides.

ST2 mirrors the professor's mini-lecture of the process approach to teaching as

exemplified in Chapter 4, *Excerpts 1* and *2* and Chapter 5, *Excerpt 1* in her use of coding

scheme, highlighting practices and material representations. Similar to the professor the

student compares and contrasts product and process writing and recontextualizes theory

from multiple readings rather than summarizing the information from each individual

reading. During her synthesis, ST2 uses multiple words unique to the register of applied

linguistics, including "structure," "form," "grammar," "errors," "drafting," "revising,"

"editing," "publishing," etc. Although these words are not rare in the sense that they

would be unfamiliar to the general population, ST1 applies specialized meanings to the

terms (Biber, 2006). She repeats each term for a phase of the process approach and then

further defines the term. The repetition of the words serves as a contextualization cue to

highlight the importance of the term and her subsequent definition. For example in

Excerpt 3, lines 31-35, she says, "for for the um prewriting the purpose is to get ideas for

writing (0.2) often going through brainstorming or oral discussion. and:: um and um in draft- drafting is getting ideas down on paper quickly" to explain the initial phases of the process approach that she introduces in lines 28-30: "five interrelated phases for rea::ding draf::ting revising editing and (0.2) um publishing." Although the elongation of the terms, "reading" and "drafting" also could be considered contextualiation cues serving highlight the words, these words do have more status than other terms in her future discussion. Rather, she may have been elongating the words as a stalling mechanism to decipher her notes. Overall, however, ST2 uses the coding scheme based on the register of applied linguistics to compare and contrast synthetically the product and process approaches to writing. Additionally, like the professor, she uses repetition as a contextualization cue to highlight the importance of certain terms and definition.

ST2 also uses material representations to recontextualize theory and research about second language writing; she then graphically highlights aspects of her representations that she considers particularly salient. In the powerpoint slide below, ST2 has graphically outlined the phases of the writing cycle as described by her readings on the process approach, beginning with "brainstorming" at the top of the slide and concluding with "final draft" at the bottom of the slide. At 3 points on her material representation, ST2 uses bold font in the box indicating the phase. To the right she then has an arrow pointing towards the box with the annotation "learner training" in italics. This bolded and arrowed text represents the phases during which peer editing would occur in the writing process. Thus, she materially represents and graphically highlights her synthesis of the readings about peer editing. While ST2 does not display course documents on an overhead projector like the course professor and ST1, the powerpoint

slides serve as a substitute for such material representation. Furthermore, ST2 also

points, if graphically, to salient issues. ST2 continues to use such material

representations and highlighting practices as well as the coding scheme derived from the

register of applied linguistics as she performs her teaching activity.
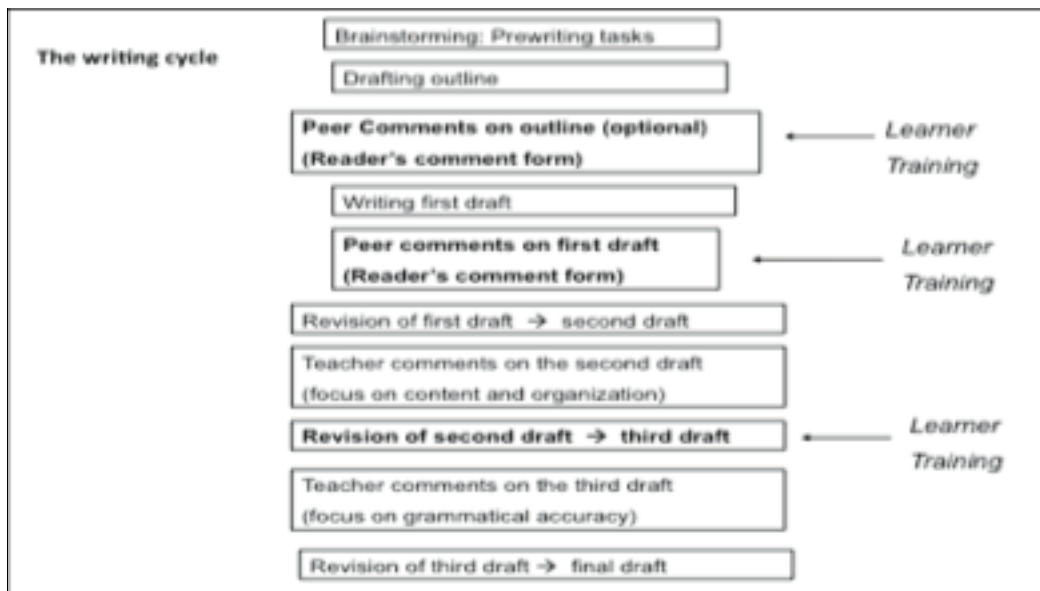
ST2 also demonstrates mapping as a stage in the process approach to writing. She

introduces the topic using a powerpoint slide and then in *Excerpt 4* models the activity:
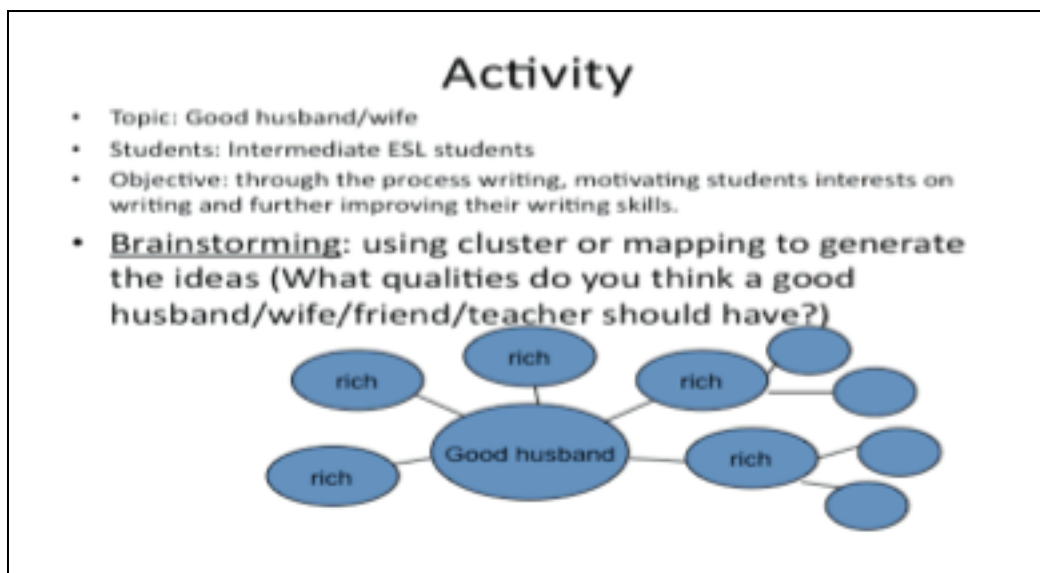
Excerpt 4

83 **ST2:** °and here comes um the activity° (2.0) um:: alright

84 now um:: (0.4) ((classroom laughter)) pretend that you

85 are intermediate ESL uh students and:: ((unclear because

86 of laughter)) classroom (3.0) you can either choo::se

87 um:: (0.2) what you think (0.4) um:: as your husband

88 wife or your friend or you teacher ((classroom

89 laughter)) <u>what</u> do you think a good husband should have?

90 ((ST2 draws circle and writes good husband on the

91 chalkboard)) now I'm doing the brainstorming, do you

92 have any ideas besides rich ((laughing)) I know rich is

93 the very the most important you know ((laughing))

94

95 **S1:** handsome. handsome.

96

97 **ST2:** handsome oh right. ((joins another circle to main

98 circle on chalkboard and writes handsome in it,

99 laughing)) (6.0)

100

101 **S2:** taller than I. ((laughing))

102

103 **ST2:** excuse me

104

105 **S3:** taller than I.

106

107 **ST2:** oh ok ((joins another circle to main circle on

108 chalkboard and writes tall in it)) (4.0)

109

110 **S3:** thoughtful.

111

112 **S4:** ((laughing)) tall and rich

113

114 **ST2:** anything else?

115

116 **S5:** thoughtful

117

118 **Ss:** ((laughing)) thoughtful

119

120 **ST2:** oh thoughtful. Anyone else? ((joins another circle

121 main circle on chalkboard and writes tall in it))

. . . ((students continue to give suggestions))

127 **ST2:** yeah right. That's very important. (inaudible)

128

129 **S8:** considerate

130

131 **ST2:** alright, alright, anyone else? Anyone else? Ok.

132 um now ((ST2 moves from chalkboard to lectern)) and

133 choose um:: three qualities you think the most

134 important ones and explain why. And find a partner to

135 discuss your ideas. (0.2) and then:: um then there is

136 assignment for next week and:: you have to um later

137 ((acknowledges time warning)) (0.4) you have three to

138 ok um you have five seconds to discuss these ideas to

139 tell your partner and to (0.6) um discuss the most

140 important ones (0.2) for your um husband wife or friend

141 teacher. And for the revision part um (0.8) the um I

142 will demonstrate. No I will demonstrate

ST2 exhibits her growing expertise as she uses the practices of seeing related to second language writing pedagogy in her teaching demonstration; she closely resembles the local model of the "good teaching" of writing as presented by the professor through her use of powerpoint, IRE sequences, and lecture.

Like ST1, ST2 first projects her activity on a powerpoint slide for her classmates to see. Additionally like ST1, she indicates her topic, "good husband/wife," student population, "intermediate ESL students," objective, "through process approach motivating students . . ." and activity, "brainstorming." Unlike ST1, however, ST2 highlights the activity by presenting it in a larger, bolded font. Furthermore, in parenthesis next to activity, she restates the topic as a question in order to explicate what "brainstorming" is. She writes "What qualities do you think a good husband/wife/friend/teacher should have?" In other words, students should generate

132

ideas about the topic to think about they will write. In addition to highlighting "brainstorming," a writing task, as the important part of her teaching demonstration, she provides a material representation in the form of a picture of a map on the powerpoint slide.

ST2 continues to exhibit her expert usage of the practices of seeing related to writing pedagogy after presenting this slide. Like the teacher, she becomes an embodied material representation for writers who brainstorm by modeling the activity. She draws a circle on the chalkboard and writes "good husband" in the center; she connects another circle to that one and writes "rich," the term from her slide, in it.

In *Excerpt 4*, line 91, she then reflexively describes what she is doing: "now I'm doing the brainstorming." This echoes the professor's reflexive description of her model synthesis in which she says, "now I'm going to do a synthesis!" (Chapter 4, *Excerpt 2*, lines 1-2). Although the student does not speak with the same emphasis and animated tone as the professor in order to highlight her activity, she does offer an explicit description of what she is doing. As the activity continues, the student works

collaboratively with the students, asking them to name further traits of a good husband. In her IRE sequence, her evaluation move usually consists of a repetition of what they have said and then writing it on the map. At no point does she disagree or fail to write a trait on the map. This could signal that a teaching demonstration does not situate students in asymmetrical roles with their peers as the student has no actual power to impact other students. Yet, since none of the students named anything particularly outré, ST2's fairly equivocal response could also signal her agreement and not a lack of asymmetrical roles. The collaboration primarily takes place using ordinary talk, but as ST2 concludes her presentation, she returns to the coding scheme based on the register of applied linguistics. She narrates a final slide in which she reads and explains future assignments using terms and concepts related to the process approach: "drafting," "editing," "revising," and "publishing." Not only have these terms been repeated from her earlier synthesis highlighting their importance, but ST2 has also underlined them on the slide to graphically highlight their saliency. Throughout her "What Works" report, ST2 draws on the professor's local model as she discusses the process approach and demonstrates mapping using the practices of seeing related to applied linguistics.

Activity

- <u>Drafting</u>: Choose 3 qualities you think the most important ones and explain why; find a partner to discuss your ideas. (assignment: 1st draft)
- <u>Revising</u>: "learner training" ; ask students to fill out the Readers' Comment Form to their partner; focusing on the writer's ideas (assignment: 2nd draft)
- <u>Editing</u>: "leaner training"; focusing on grammatical accuracy (assignment: final draft)
- <u>Publishing</u>: ask students to read out loud of their partner's writing. The good ones will be published on the bulletin board

ST2 does not appear to be as affected by the social and interactional context of the "What Works" report as ST1. Instead, she exhibits growing expertise enacting the practices of seeing related to second language writing pedagogy. As the students were in two different sections of the course, ST2 could have benefited from different interlocutors or other social, interactional, or individual factors, such as the physical set-up of the room, collaborative teacher-student discussion rather than small group work, and relative academic ability, respectively. ST2's introduction to her activity and her acknowledgement of the need for pretense in *Excerpt 4*, lines 84-85: "pretend that you are intermediate ESL uh students" may have also changed role alignments so that her peers more willingly participated in the activity as her students rather than as peers. Yet, the social, interactional, and individual factors do not radically differ for the two students. Both students are of the same nationality and relative language proficiency. They both participate in the same curriculum taught by the same professor and they were both performing the same activity. One difference that may be more relevant was that the

student on Tuesday had been in a class in which the professor reflexively described her embodied model for teaching second language teaching. ST2 adapted this model as she entextualized and recontextualized the theory and research from rhetoric theory in her "What Works" report. Arguably the student's enactment of this practice may be seen as limiting her individual agency as she may have done this for a higher grade. Yet, much language socialization is about asking students to participate in practices common to the wider community of practice. In this case, the student did not replicate the professor's performance, but rather adapted it.

6.4   Conclusion

As students in the course, Teaching ESL Writing, perform their "What Works" reports, they draw on a local model, their course professor, to enact teaching practices. Students enact practices of seeing for writing pedagogy as modeled by the teacher as they entextualize and recontextualize theory and research in their syntheses and teaching demonstrations. Both ST1 and ST2 adapt the professor's practices of highlighting and material representations in their demonstrations. ST2, however, having been in a class where the professor not only modeled but also reflexively described her model exhibits greater expertise using the practices of seeing. She synthesizes rather than reports information from the readings and she enacts practices related to second language writing specifically rather than language teaching more generally. Finally, ST2 also reflexively describes her own pedagogical practices. This difference is representative of differences between "What Works" from the Monday and Tuesday sections more generally. Students who had been in the class in which the professor reflexively described her own teaching exhibited overall greater expertise in their teaching demonstration. Thus,

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modeling and legitimate peripheral participation may not be enough to gain expert usage

of the practice of seeing related to writing pedagogy. Language teacher educators may

need to offer more explicit instruction in addition to modeling and providing

opportunities for legitimate peripheral participation.

CHAPTER 7

Conclusion

Researchers in education, more generally, and in language teacher education (LTE), specifically, have begun to explore how novice teachers gain and apply knowledge about their discipline across multiple contexts. Within language teaching, this research has followed a trajectory from teacher training to the exploration of identity, socialization, and situations of practice (Freeman, 2009, p. 14). One debate that has ensued within LTE is whether or not learning the metalanguage associated with research and theory in applied linguistics may help future language teachers with their language instruction. (e.g., Bartels, 2003; Clarke, 1994, 2008; Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 2004, 2005; Hedgcock, 2002, 2009; Johnson, 2006, 2009; Pica, 1994; Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Yates & Muchisky, 2003). Given that much of language teacher education is still dominated by courses on second language acquisition theory, pedagogical grammar, and methods courses devoted to best practices (Johnson, 2006), evidence that suggests that learning theory and research from applied linguistics is not useful to language teaching contests the legitimacy of such curricula. This study further explored this relationship between learning the metalanguage of applied linguistics and potential classroom practices of future language teachers. Specifically, the study examined how students in a Master's program in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) talk about, contextualize, and enact research about teaching second language writing.

To investigate the relationship between learning the metalanguage of applied linguistics and potential classroom practices, a microethnographic study was conducted

in two sections of a course on teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) writing in a M.S.Ed.-TESOL program in a graduate school of education in the northeastern United States during the fall 2005 semester. This study allowed for the inquiry into the relationship between learning the metalanguage of applied linguistics and enactment of practices related to this language and the context of the study provided both an opportunity to expand that research to a new context. The study is situated within a course on teaching second language writing because as a study of a methods course, it furthers research about how such courses may affect teacher knowledge growth and practices. Traditionally, methods courses are replete with opportunities for students to read original research from applied linguistics as well as participate in practical tasks that may be replicates in real-world classrooms. The study of a methods course thus offered multiple activities to explore how novice language teachers may enact pedagogical practices based on the disciplinary metalanguage of applied linguistics (see Chapter 1). On the other hand, the study is situated in a course on teaching second language writing because few studies have been conducted in this context and none have examined teaching learning and activities. Matsuda (2002) suggests that the relative dearth of research may be due to the limited number of courses of second language writing pedagogy. Additionally, few studies may have been conducted due to general theories of composition and rhetoric that speculate that writing cannot be taught (Leki, 1992). Other theories of composition and rhetoric contest these claims and more recent research in second language writing has both established similarities and differences in first and second language writing practices (Leki, Cumming & Silva, 2008). Therefore, a course on teaching writing offered a unique opportunity to explore whether or not theory and

research from applied linguistics can be enacted in practice. As both a methods course and a second language writing course, conducting a study in this environment responded to the need to investigate teacher learning across multiple activities across multiple contexts.

How novice language teachers come to enact practices based on theory and research in applied linguistics is based, in part, by how it is presented to them by their professors. Chapter 4 of this study explored how the professor exercised her personal agency by selecting among and emphasizing different aspects of the course material. The professor's lexis and syntax was analyzed to demonstrate how she used a preponderance of words associated with a register of applied linguistics – a metalanguage. Furthermore, the microethnographic analysis demonstrated how the professor highlighted her usage of this register through gesture and other paralinguistic cues so that students could identify the important parts of professional practice. Finally, the professor was presented as a material representation of a language teacher. As a language teacher educator of a majority of NNES, she taught the students how to teach writing as well as how to write. She served as the model for how they should speak and act in their own writing classrooms. The professor utilized multiple activities across multiple contexts to socialize novice language teachers. Additionally, she provided the text that the novice language teachers use to engage in the processes of entextualization and recontextualization as well as models how to do so as a language teacher.

Chapter 5 built on the findings presented in Chapter 4 by focusing the activities of the novice language teachers in classroom and online discussions. Although the novice language teachers and the professor shared the same interactional context for some

activities, the social context that the novice language teachers find relevant and their individual agency affected the coding schemes, highlighting practices, and material representations of course material. Thus, how the novice language teachers come to entextualize and recontextualize course material differed somewhat from the practices presented by the professor. Novice language teachers did use the practices of seeing associated with applied linguistics with various degrees of expertise. Yet, the novice language teachers would challenge the professor's or their peers' practices when they believed that their pre-existing experiences or beliefs allowed them more expert status. Yet, despite these differences, similarities relating to being a professional within applied linguistics and language teaching emerged.

Chapter 6 offered a glimpse into how novice language teachers may act in their future teaching. As students in the course, Teaching ESL Writing, performed their "What Works" reports, they drew on a local model, their course professor, to enact practices of seeing for writing pedagogy as modeled by the teacher as they entextualize and recontextualize theory and research in their syntheses and teaching demonstrations. The student, who participated in the class in which the professor reflexively described her own teaching, exhibited overall greater expertise in her model teaching demonstration. She more expertly employed coding, highlighting, and material representations within her "What Works" report. Throughout the report, she utilized the metalanguage of applied linguistics to describe the process approach of writing to the students. Furthermore, her highlighting practices – contextualization cues and gestures – mirrored that of the professor. Finally, she created clear and concise material representations to model the brainstorming activity she presented. In contrast, the student from the other section

exhibited less command of the metalanguage of applied linguistics, presented unclear material representations, and used limited highlighting practices. The differences in these presentations could be due to the overall academic abilities of the two students; however, the two presentations do represent a general trend in the quality of the presentations between the two courses. Thus, these two cases suggest that further study is needed to determine how modeling and legitimate peripheral participation affect the acquisition of expert usage of the practice of seeing related to writing pedagogy. Language teacher educators may need to offer more explicit instruction in addition to modeling and providing opportunities for legitimate peripheral participation.

This study examined of the processes of language socialization and entextualization and recontextualization within a language teacher education course. Unfortunately, by only investigating activities within one setting, the study does not necessarily offer insight into what novice teachers will do in their own classrooms. Demonstration teaching activities may suggest future behavior, but the participants' multiple roles as graduate students and student teachers confound their practices. Despite this limitation, by moving beyond study of individual teacher beliefs, this study, by examining multiple activities in multiple contexts, does provide insight into how professors teach practices of seeing of teaching second language writing; how students practice coding, highlighting and creating material representations in classroom and online discussions; and how novice teachers may enact these practices when teaching writing. This microethnographic study did demonstrate that novice languages teachers did adopt the practices of seeing associated with applied linguistics across multiple contexts of teaching second language writing, particularly within group and online discussions.

Furthermore, the study did present one case in which a student parlayed these practices into her own teaching demonstration. Since this case provides limited data, it offers a starting point for further research on what language teacher educators need to do in order for students to enact practices of seeing from applied linguistics in their own practice.

TEACHING WRITING TO ESL STUDENTS
Fall Semester, 2005

Meeting times and places:
Section 1: Monday 12-2 p.m.; GSE 114
Section 2: Tuesday 12-2 p.m.; GSE 120

Instructor: PROFESSOR   Office:
e-mail address: professor@email.edu   mailbox:
Office hours by appointment only*: Mondays & Tuesdays 2:15-4:15,
*For appointments please call XXXX

Course Goals
This course explores various theories of composition and rhetoric, especially as these relate to ESL/EFL writers and the teaching of writing to these students. We will examine the pedagogical implications of these theories for composition teachers in a variety of settings, and we will explore and critically reflect on the practical applications of these approaches in the language classroom. Students will begin to develop their own philosophy of teaching composition in linguistically diverse settings, and gain "hands-on" experience in developing and implementing teaching materials, classroom activities, lesson plans, assessment tools, learning communities, uses of technology, and a wide range of teaching strategies.

Course Materials
Required
- Ferris, D., &Hedgcock, J. (2005). *Teaching ESL Composition: Purpose, Process and Practice.* LEA.
- Leki, I. (1992). *Understanding ESL Writers: A Guide for Teachers.* Heinemann.
- Bulk Pack: A collection of required readings for the course is available at Campus Copy, 3907 Walnut St., 215-386-6410.

Suggested
- Peregoy, S., & Boyle, O. (2005). *Reading Writing and Learning in ESL: A Resource Book for K-12 Teachers.* Pearson.

Course Website
- Additional materials can be found on our course website, which can be accessed at:
    http://www.courseweb.library.____.edu

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Grading Basis

Participation and In-Class Activities	10%
Teaching Philosophy Portfolio	25%
"What Works" Report	25%
Final Project	40%

Course Overview

Week and Topic	In-Class Activities:
Week 1: Introduction	Literacy autobiography
Week 2: Issues and approaches to teaching ESL/EFL writing	
Week 3: Understanding ESL/EFL writers	Observation #1
Week 4: Composing and the process approach	
Week 5: Academic writing and the discourse community	
Week 6: Teaching genre	Observation #2
Week 7: Designing courses, materials, lessons and tasks	Textbook evaluation
Week 8: Evaluating student work	
Week 9: Reading in the composition classroom	
Week 10: Focusing on form in the composition classroom	Observation #3
Week 11: Teaching revision and responding to student texts	Response to sample student text
Week 12: Conferencing, peer evaluation and the writing workshop	Peer evaluation activity
Week 13: Teaching writing through technology	**Due**: **Teaching Philosophy Portfolio**
Week 14: **Presentations of Final Project**	**Presentations of Final Project**
DUE: WRITE-UP OF FINAL PROJECT	

Course Procedures

Daily procedures: This course is designed to explore a wide variety of theories and research on the teaching of writing, and to give students "hands-on" experience with

teaching methods, strategies and techniques. Students will be expected to participate actively in our "learning community" which, I hope, will be student-centered rather than teacher-fronted. In-class activities will include short mini-lectures on the weekly topic, accompanied by class discussion, student presentations, observations of writing classrooms, and in-class practical application activities.

Readings will be discussed on the day under which they are listed. Written tests are not used as a means of assessment in this course. Instead, my assessment and evaluation of your participation in class activities and in-class journals, as well as out-of-class written assignments will be based in part on the extent to which they display your knowledge of course materials.

I reserve the right not to accept late assignments. If you have a serious reason to delay submitting an assignment (such as illness, family emergency, etc.), you must request permission from the instructor in advance of the deadline.

Course Requirements

Participation and In-Class Activities   10%

You are expected to complete the reading assignments before the class period for which they are assigned, attend class, participate actively and knowledgeably in any in-class activities, and turn in materials associated with these activities (to be explained in class and on Blackboard in more detail when these activities occur). In-class activities will include a literacy autobiography, discussions of classroom observations, a textbook evaluation, response to a sample of a NNS student's writing, and a peer evaluation activity.

Teaching Philosophy Portfolio   25%

Throughout the semester you will be developing your own personal Teaching Philosophy for the teaching of writing to linguistically diverse (ESL, EFL, bidialectal, and/or generation 1.5 immigrant, etc.) students. At the end of the semester you will submit a portfolio of your work in developing this philosophy, including your weekly journals (see below), your chat group discussions (see below), and all drafts of your "Teaching Philosophy" (see below). You may also include any other writing or class activities that you found relevant in developing your teaching philosophy. **Please bring your portfolio with you to class each week—it will sometimes be used as a starting point for class activities, and I will collect it from time to time in order to respond to your entries. The complete portfolio is due on the penultimate day of class (week 13).**

Portfolio reflection piece: At the beginning of the portfolio, please include a short piece (approximately 1-2 pages typed, double-spaced) reflecting on how your teaching philosophy was challenged, re-drafted, maintained or completely overhauled through participation in the course activities and requirements.

Teaching philosophy: This philosophy, which should be about one page typed, single-spaced, should explain what you find to be the most important considerations in the teaching of writing, and how you hope to address these considerations in your own teaching. Journals, chat discussions, and in-class discussions will (in part) be aimed at constructing this philosophy through critical reflection on various approaches, methods and techniques of teaching writing, so you should draft and re-draft this document throughout the course. Save each draft of this philosophy as you revise it, and submit all drafts, including the latest draft (clearly marked "Final Draft"), along with your portfolio.

Journal: Each week you are expected to write a short (1-2 page typed, double-spaced) journal responding to the week's readings. Each journal entry should be brought to class in your portfolio. In this journal you should respond to ideas and issues raised in the readings, reflecting on how they relate to the practice of teaching of writing and how they relate to your philosophy of teaching. You may wish to describe any ideas that you found surprising, controversial, or extremely helpful in the readings, or express your frustration with them. If you like, you may use the weekly discussion questions provided on blackboard as a guide.

Chat group: You are expected to participate each week in an online chat session and/or strand of bulletin board postings on our course website /blackboard. The chat group will serve as a forum for reflecting on the week's readings, including posing questions, sharing ideas about teaching writing, or raising issues based on your own experience as a writer and/or a teacher. Each group may decide whether they wish to conduct synchronous (chat group) or asynchronous (bulletin board) discussions. Each week, one participant will serve as chat group moderator. The moderator will present questions, issues, or topics and other participants will respond by posting at least one comment, question, or response per week. When the chat "session" is complete, the moderator will submit a report to all group members summarizing her role as moderator as well as the other group members' participation. These reports should be included in the portfolio. Include in the portfolio printouts of several (3-4) of your individual contributions to the chat group that reflect key learning moments in the development of your teaching philosophy, or that you consider to reflect crucial aspects of your feelings, beliefs, or perspective on teaching writing.

"What Works" Reports
25%

You will be expected to prepare a "what works" report for one of the course topics. In this report you will discuss how the theoretical and methodological issues raised in the research literature on this topic relate to actual practice, and demonstrate a

useful teaching strategy for an aspect of teaching writing that is to be covered that week. You will need to find and read (at least) three articles about this aspect of teaching writing. (Consult with me for some suggestions. Consider including relevant case studies in your readings.) Based on what you learned, develop a short teaching activity or strategy for that aspect of writing. Before you begin you may want to look at how widely-used textbooks handle the particular topic, but materials used should be your original creation. Try to make the lesson effective, and use a variety of media during the lesson (i.e., blackboard, handouts, overhead, etc.). Be sure to consider and describe the student population, the teaching context and the objectives of the lesson

Your report will be a *maximum* of 15 minutes. Start by briefly (5-7 minutes) synthesizing what you read, and discussing how these readings relate to the topic. Then briefly *demonstrate* your teaching strategy (5-7 minutes) as if you were teaching a class. Try to be clear and effective in your teaching demonstration. Turn in any materials you use for the lesson.

This project will be graded on the basis of your presentation and the materials you submit, including a) how well you synthesized the readings and related them to the week's topic; b) the quality of your teaching strategy and materials; c) the quality of your presentation/teaching demonstration—i.e., the extent to which your presentation represents a model of "good teaching."

Final Project
    40%

Work in a group to develop the materials necessary for a teaching unit in a composition course leading up to, and through, one major writing project. This should probably include the materials required for three or four lessons, including readings, overheads, handouts, exercises, writing prompt(s), and assessment/evaluation instruments. The write-up of this project will include the following:
- *Description of the teaching situation, target population, and goals of the unit*: describe the learners and the teaching context, such as ESL or EFL learners; beginners-advanced learners; primary, secondary, higher ed., after-school program, etc.; other information about the course, where relevant, e.g., English for Academic Purposes, TOEFL preparation, etc. Describe the objectives and goals of the unit.
- *Rationale:* give a rationale for class activities and materials, drawing on the readings from this course and other readings where relevant. In other words, explain how theories or issues in the composition literature provide a reason for constructing your lessons and materials in the way you did. This section is a means for me to evaluate whether you have understood how our course readings, lectures, and discussions relate to the practice of teaching composition. For that reason it is more important to cite relevant points from our course readings than to cite "outside" literature.
- *Lesson plans for all lessons*: Give a step-by-step description of lesson procedures.

- *Course materials:* Include all materials to be used in and out of class (class handouts and overheads, readings, assignments, writing prompts, evaluation instruments). These materials should be *original* (i.e., created by your group), not copied from textbooks. If you adapt ideas or exercises found in a textbook, you must cite that work. In other words, cite any text that heavily influences your materials.

Your projects may include materials that individual group members developed for their "What Works" reports, so you may consider coordinating these reports within your group. Groups will present their projects in week 14. The format and time limits for these presentations will be discussed in class. The write-up is **due in my mailbox on the day of class in week 15 (Section 1: due noon, December 19th ; Section 2: due noon December 20th).**

Course Outline

Week 1 (Sept. 12-13): Introduction and literacy autobiography
Introduction to the course, getting to know you, reflections on our own diverse literacy backgrounds, and general overview of teaching ESL composition.
In-Class Activity: Literacy Autobiography

Week 2 (Sept. 19-20): Issues and approaches to teaching ESL/EFL writing
Discussion of different approaches or methods of teaching writing, highlighting the main issues and concerns in the teaching of ESL/EFL writing, developing a philosophy of teaching writing,

    Readings:
Ferris & Hedgcock, Chapter 1.
Leki, Chapter 1.
(Packet): Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Chapter 1.

Week 3 (September 26-27): Understanding ESL/EFL writers
Focus on the characteristics of non-native writers of English, including those in second language as well as foreign language contexts, at a range of levels. Examining the role of cultural diversity in academic writing. Discussion of the implications of these issues for teaching and learning in the composition classroom.

    Readings:
Leki, Chapters 3 & 4.
(Packet): Peregoy & Boyle, Chapter 1.
(Packet): Zamel, V. (1997). Toward a model of transculturation. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(2), 341-352.

In-Class Activity: Observation #1

Week 4 (October 3-4) : Composing and the process approach
Introduction to the process approach. Discussion of composers' strategies for planning and organization. How teachers can facilitate the writing process.

Readings:
Leki, Chapter 7.
(Packet): Hayes, J. & Flower, L. (1987). On the structure of the writing process. *Topics in Language Disorders, 7* : 19-30.
(Packet): Peregoy & Boyle, pp. 206-247.

Week 5 (October 10-11): Academic writing and the discourse community
Considerations for teaching academic writing. The nature and relevance of the discourse community. Language socialization as a framework for understanding academic writers' apprenticeship into the discourse community.

Readings:
(Packet): Spack, R. (1988/2001). Initiating ESL students into the academic discourse community: How far should we go? *TESOL Quarterly, 22*(1), 29-51.
(Packet): Hairston, M. (1986). Different products, different processes: A theory about writing. *College Composition and Communication, 37:* 442-452.

Week 6 (October 17-18): Teaching genre
Genre, the genre approach to teaching writing, teaching through modelling and samples, writing as social practice.

Readings:
(Packet): Hyon, S. (1996). Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*: 693-722.
(Packet): Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*, 17-29.

In-Class Activity: Observation #2

Week 7 (October 24-25) : Designing courses, materials, lessons and tasks
How to design a composition course, including materials development, lesson planning, task development, and textbook evaluation.

Readings:
Ferris & Hedgcock, Chapters 3 and 4.
(Packet): Kroll, B., & Reid, J. (1994). Guidelines for designing writing prompts: Clarifications, caveats and cautions. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 3*(3), 231-255.
In-Class Activity: Textbook evaluation

Week 8 (October 31-November 1): Evaluating student work
    Issues and considerations in assessment, assessment types, methods of scoring, approaches to student evaluation.

    Readings:
    Ferris & Hedgcock, Chapter 8.
    (Packet): Peregoy & Boyle, pp. 247-263.
    (Packet): White, E. (1995) An apologia for the timed impromptu essay test.
        College Composition and Communication, 46 (1), 30-45.

Week 9 (November 7-8): Reading in the Composition Classroom
    How to integrate reading and content materials into the composition classroom, how to instruct students in more effective reading practices.

    Readings:
    Ferris & Hedgcock, Chapter 2.
    (Packet): Grabe, W. (2001). Reading-Writing Relations: Theoretical Perspectives
        and Instructional Practices. In D. Belcher and A. Hirvela (Eds.), *Linking
        Literacies on L2 Reading-Writing Connections* (pp. 15-47). Ann Arbor:
        University of Michigan Press.

Week 10 (November 14-15): Focus on form
    How to teach grammar, and how to guide students in form-focused editing as part of the revision process in the composition classroom.

    Readings:
    Ferris & Hedgcock, Chapter 7.
    Leki, Chapter 10.
    (Packet): Frodesen, J., & Holten, C. (2003). Grammar and the ESL writing class.
        In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Exploring the Dynamics of Second Language Writing*.
        Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

In-Class Activity: Observation #3

Week 11 (November 21-22): Teaching revision and responding to student texts
    How to guide and engage students in the revision process, methods of response to student texts, and the effectiveness of different types of response in terms of writers' revising.

    Readings:
    Ferris & Hedgcock, Chapter 5.
    Leki, Chapter 10.
    (Packet): Arndt, V. (1993). Response to writing: Using feedback to inform the
        writing process. In M.N. Brock & L. Walters, Eds, *Teaching composition
        around the pacific rim,* pp. 90-115. Philadelphia, PA: Multilingual Matters,
        Ltd. **Pp. 91-101 only.**

(Packet): Reid, J. (1994). Responding to ESL students' texts: The myths of appropriation. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*: 273-292.

In-Class Activity: Response to sample student text

Week 12 (November 28-29): Conferencing, peer evaluation, and the writing workshop
Creating learner communities through writing conferences, peer evaluation, and writing workshops.

Readings:
Ferris & Hedgcock, Chapter 6.
(Packet): Arndt, V. (1993). Response to writing: Using feedback to inform the writing process. In M.N. Brock & L. Walters, Eds, *Teaching composition around the pacific rim,* pp. 90-115. Philadelphia, PA: Multilingual Matters, Ltd. **Pp. 101-116.**
(Packet):Anson, C. (1989). Response styles and ways of knowing. In C. M. Anson, Ed., *Writing and response: Theory, practice, and research,* pp. 332-366. Urbana, IL: NCTE.
(Packet): Patthey-Chavez, G., & Ferris, D. (1997). Writing conferences and the weaving of multi-voiced texts in college composition. *Research in the Teaching of English, 31,* 51-90.

In-Class Activity: Peer evaluation

Week 13 (December 5-6): Teaching writing through technology
Exploring the use of various technologies in teaching and learning writing, including word processors, online writing, internet resources, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), chat-rooms, and more.

Readings:
Ferris & Hedgcock, Chapter 9.
(Packet): Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Chapter 6.
Due: Teaching Philosophy Portfolio

Week 14 (December 12-13): Presentations of final projects

Week 15: No Class: Write-up of Final Project DUE (12pm) in my mailbox (Section 1, due 12/19; Section 2, due 12/20).

APPENDIX B: REDACTED INTRODUCTORY EMAIL

sent via class list on Black Board

September 15, 2005

Dear students:

I am writing to request your participation in my on-going ethnographic study about how novice language teachers talk about their perspectives on teaching writing. I am a third-year PhD student ███████████████████████████ ██ ████████ .

This study is being conducted over several years in the ████████ classes here at ████ . You are not required to do anything beyond the course requirements. My research procedures include observing and videotaping your ████████ class sessions, and reading discussion boards and chat rooms. Classroom and online discussions are analyzed for the ways in which teachers formulate their ideas and perspectives about theories and practices of teaching writing. Speech is not analyzed for linguistic accuracy.

All research notes and data are confidential and anonymous. I do not share information with your instructor. Your identity will remain anonymous in any records and documents related to this research. The names of the university, the instructor of ████████ and all the students are changed to pseudonyms I hope to use analyses and excerpts from my research in academic presentations and papers.

With ████████████ permission, I will attend ████████ on both Monday, September 19, 2005 and Tuesday, September 20, 2005 to begin my research. At that time, I will provide a description of my research, be available for questions about my research and ask you to sign consent forms.

In the meantime, if you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at warholt@dolphin.upenn.edu.

Thank you for your assistance with my research!

Sincerely,
Tamara Warhol

Title of the Research Study: How Novice Language Teachers Talk about Teaching Writing

Principal Investigator: Faculty Sponsor:

You are being asked to take part in a research study. It is not supposed to find something wrong. Your participation is voluntary which means you can choose whether on not to participate. If you decide to participate or not to participate there will no loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Before you make a decision you will need to know the purpose of the study, the possible, risks and benefits of being in the study and what you will have to do if decide to participate. The researcher will talk with you about the study and give you this consent document to read. You do not have to make a decision now; you can take the consent document home and share it with your academic advisor, friends and family.

If you do not understand what you are reading, do not sign it. Please ask the researcher to explain anything you do not understand, including any language contained in this form. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form and a copy will be given to you. Keep this form, in it you will find contact information and answers to questions about the study. You may ask to have this form read to you.

What is the purpose of the study?
The purpose of the study is to learn more about how novice language teachers talk about their perspectives on teaching. This study will be used as part of my dissertation research.

Why were you asked to participate in the study?
You are being asked to join this study because as a novice language teacher enrolled in the graduate education course, ▮▮▮▮▮ – Teaching Writing to ESL Students, you will explicitly discuss theories and practices about teaching writing in class, in chat rooms and on discussion boards as part of your course requirements.

How long will you be in the study?
The study will take place over a period of two years. This means that I will ask you to participate in this study during the semester in which you are enrolled in ▮▮▮▮▮ – Teaching Writing to ESL Students.

How many other people will be in the study?
You will be one of approximately 100 people in the study, and will only be asked to participate during the semester in which you are enrolled in ▮▮▮▮▮ – Teaching Writing to ESL Students.

Where will the study take place?
The study will take place during your class period at the ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮. During the Fall 2005 semester, class meets Monday/Tuesday from 12-2pm.

What will you be asked to do?

You are not required to do anything beyond the course requirements. My research procedures include observing and videotaping your class sessions, and reading discussion boards and chat rooms. Classroom and online discussions are analyzed for the ways in which teachers formulate their ideas and perspectives about theories and practices of teaching writing. Speech is not analyzed for linguistic accuracy.

What are the risks?
This study presents minimal risks to you. The primary risk associated with this study is slight discomfort at being videotaped and observed. To minimize this discomfort, video equipment will be placed outside areas of activity. Additionally, if you would like any part of the videotape erased, please contact Tamara Warhol in writing at warholt@dolphin.upenn.edu. In your email please specify the activity you would like erased from the videotape and the date the activity occurred.

How will you benefit from the study?
There is no specific benefit to you. However, your participation could help us understand how novice teachers learn to integrate theory and practice. In the future, this may help language teacher educators to craft curriculum that directly addresses this issue.

What other choices do you have?
Your alternative to being in the study is to not be in the study.

What happens if you do not choose to join the research study?
You may choose to join the study or you may choose not to join the study. Your participation is voluntary. There is no penalty if you choose not to join the research study. You will loose no benefits or advantages that are now coming to you, or would come to you in the future. Your instructor will not be upset with your decision.

When is the study over? Can I leave the study before it ends?
Your participation in the study is expected to end after the semester in which you are enrolled in ███████
– Teaching Writing to ESL Students and all the information has been collected. You have the right to drop out of in the research study anytime during the study. There is no penalty or loss of benefits if you do so. If you would like to leave the research study, please contact Tamara Warhol in writing at warholt@dolphin.upenn.edu. In your email please specify that you would like to leave the study and the date on which you would like your participation to end.

How will confidentiality be maintained and your privacy be protected?
The researcher will make every effort to keep all the information you tell us during the study strictly confidential, as required by law. The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Pennsylvania is responsible for protecting the rights and welfare of research volunteers like you. The IRB has access to study information. Any documents you sign, where you can be identified by name will be kept in a locked drawer in Tamara Warhol's home. These documents will be kept confidential. All the documents will be destroyed when the study is over. All research notes and data are confidential and anonymous. The names of the university, the instructor of ████████ and all the students are changed to pseudonyms. Your identity will remain anonymous in any records and documents related to this research. I do not share information with your instructor.

Who do you contact if you have questions about your rights and welfare?
If you have questions about your rights and welfare as a volunteer in the research study please contact the Office of Regulatory Affairs at the University of Pennsylvania at 215-898-2614 and/or the PI named on the first page of this document.

Who do you contact if you have questions about the study?
If you have questions about the research study please contact the PI named on the first page of this document or any of the other persons identified.

When you sign this document, you are agreeing to take part in this research study. If you have any questions or there is something you do not understand, please ask. You will receive a copy of this consent document.

Signature of Subject: _____ **Date:** _____

Print Name of Subject: _____

APPENDIX D: REDACTED PORTFOLIO REQUEST

November 11, 2005

Dear students:

Thank you for participation in my ethnographic study about novice language teachers talk about their perspectives on teaching writing. Although the analysis of the research is still in the very beginning stages, I have already learned a great deal just by attending and videotaping your classes as well as reading your course discussion boards. I am now writing to you to request further assistance with my study. I would like to request volunteers to share their portfolios for the purposes of my research.

As in my analyses of classroom and online discussions, portfolios would be analyzed for the ways in which teachers formulate their ideas and perspectives about theories and practices of teaching writing. Your writing would not be analyzed for linguistic accuracy. Additionally, your identities would be changed to pseudonyms in academic presentations and papers that use excerpts from your portfolios.

If you are willing to share your portfolio with me, please submit a second copy of your portfolio to ▮▮▮▮▮▮ when you submit it on the due date.

In the meantime, if you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at warholt@dolphin.upenn.edu.

Thanks again for your help with my research!

Sincerely,
Tamara Warhol

APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW REQUEST

April 12, 2006

Dear students:

Thank you for participating in my ethnographic study about now novice language teachers talk about their perspectives on teaching writing during fall 2005, and thanks to everyone who has already agreed to meet with me.

I am writing again to ask if you would take some time to talk to me to discuss your impressions of the class. I believe that your contributions would provide invaluable insights about the data I collected in the fall.

As I mentioned in my previous email, I would be willing to meet with you one-on-one or in small groups at your convenience. Additionally, similar to all the data that I collected during the fall, interview notes and data would be confidential and anonymous. Additionally, I will not share information with your instructor.

If you are willing to meet with me, would you please contact me at warholt@dolphin.upenn.edu.

Thanks again for all your help with my research!

Sincerely,
Tamara Warhol

APPENDIX F: EMAIL SURVEY

Demographic Survey

1. Name:

_____

2. Nickname/American name:

_____

3. Date of Birth:

_____

4. Place of Birth:

_____

5. Current citizenship:

_____

6. First language(s):

_____

7. If English is not your first-language, how long have you studied English?
_____ years

8. What is your degree program?

_____

9. When do you anticipate graduating? -
_____

10. If you would be willing to talk to me or correspond by email during the Spring 2006 semester, would you please provide your email contact information?

_____

APPENDIX G: REPRESENTATIVE HANDOUT

Process Approach(es) to Composition Teaching

The process approach: Focuses on the writer as the creator of text who engages in a number of procedures and stages in the course of developing a text.

3 Incarnations of the Process Approach

Expressivists: (Elbow, Coles, Macrorie, Murray)
- Composing is an internal, creative process of self-discovery
- Instruction should be non-directive and personal
- Emphasis is on developing fluency and voice
- Activities include invention, free-writing and journal writing to help students "discover" their ideas and voice

Cognitivists: (Hayes & Flower, Hirsch, Berlin)
- Composing is an internal, problem-solving process
- Instruction includes making students aware of the procedures and strategies of composing, and giving them practice so that these procedures become more automatic
- Emphasis is on developing problem-solving skills and strategies
- Activities include invention and pre-writing, multiple drafts, revision, collaborative writing, feedback sessions, and the postponement of editing until the later drafts

Social Constructionists: (Hinds, Kroll, Swales, Johns, Nystrand, Leki)
- Composing is a socially situated process that includes interactions between the writer and audience, other texts, and community
- Composing is situated within a discourse community

- Emphasis is on developing the ability to negotiate with one's audience, one's community, and other texts in the construction of situationally appropriate genres.
- Activities are similar to other process approaches, but include collaborative learning, peer response, and conferencing.

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