A self-adaptive model of TESOL teacher education in a Non-Anglophone context

Author:
Arruda, Henrique

Publication Date:
2014

DOI:
https://doi.org/10.26190/unsworks/16634

A Self-Adaptive Model of TESOL Teacher Education in a Non-Anglophone Context

Henrique Paulo Santos Arruda

A thesis in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Humanities and Languages

Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences

2014

THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES Thesis/Dissertation Sheet

Surname or Family name: Arruda
First name: Henrique
Other name/s: Abbreviation for degree as given in the University calendar:
School: Humanities and Languages
Faculty: Arts and Social Sciences
Title: A Self-Adaptive Model of TESOL Teacher Education in a non-Anglophone Context

Abstract 350 words maximum:

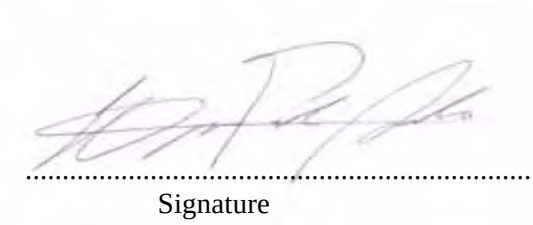
This study presents a trial implementation of an original model for language teacher education, the Self-Adaptive Model, developed in accord with emerging ideas in interrelated fields. It investigates to what extent, if any, the implementation of this model with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil promoted changes in participants' classroom practices which were consistent with the principles of the model implemented.

Although the crucial concepts utilised in the rationale of this study have been previously discussed, no study to date has combined such concepts in a documented implementation of a model of language teacher education aimed at changing teaching and learning practices at classroom level.

Results of the study reveal that the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model did promote changes in classroom practices which were in accord with the principles of the model and that these changes impacted positively on teachers' and students' classroom behaviour.

Declaration relating to disposition of project thesis/dissertation

I hereby grant to the University of New South Wales or its agents the right to archive and to make available my thesis or dissertation in whole or in part in the University libraries in all forms of media, now or here after known, subject to the provisions of the Copyright Act 1968. I retain all property rights, such as patent rights. I also retain the right to use in future works (such as articles or books) all or part of this thesis or dissertation.
I also authorise University Microfilms to use the 350 word abstract of my thesis in Dissertation Abstracts International.



..... 03/03/2014
Signature Date

The University recognises that there may be exceptional circumstances requiring restrictions on copying or conditions on use. Requests for restriction for a period of up to 2 years must be made in writing. Requests for a longer period of restriction may be considered in exceptional circumstances and require the approval of the Dean of Graduate Research.

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY Date of completion of requirements for Award:

ORIGINALITY STATEMENT

‘I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and to the best of my knowledge it contains no materials previously published or written by another person, or substantial proportions of material which have been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at UNSW or any other educational institution, except where due acknowledgement is made in the thesis. Any contribution made to the research by others, with whom I have worked at UNSW or elsewhere, is explicitly acknowledged in the thesis. I also declare that the intellectual content of this thesis is the product of my own work, except to the extent that assistance from others in the project's design and conception or in style, presentation and linguistic expression is acknowledged.’

Signed .....

Date 03/03/2014

Acknowledgements

It would not be possible to nominate all those who contributed to the development of this work, for they are many. Some of them collaborated so decisively in the realization of this project that it would be unjust if their names were not to be found here.

First I thank God, for all opportunities regarding this work.

I specially thank my mother, who began my education and has always been a strong presence and inspiration in my life. Her strength and courage is only matched by her love and selflessness. Thank you Dona Jo.

I particularly thank Debra Aarons, who supervised this thesis, and in so doing apprenticed me in the world of academia. Her knowledge, wisdom and tenacity are only matched by her patience.

I thank my colleagues, at university and at the ESL schools, for their participation in discussions and conference presentations, and my friends Dany Dados and Gemma Tamock, for the countless reading of drafts, the debates and all the encouragement. Thank you all very much.

Finally, I want to express my gratitude to those who participated in this study and to Tereza Fernandez and Maura Dourado, who played a major role in facilitating the research in Brazil.

List of figures

List of tables

Table of Contents

Abstract

This study presents a trial implementation of an original model for language teacher education, the Self-Adaptive Model, developed in accord with emerging ideas in interrelated fields. It investigates to what extent, if any, the implementation of this model with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil promoted changes in participants' classroom practices which were consistent with the principles of the model implemented.

Although the crucial concepts utilised in the rationale of this study have been previously discussed, no study to date has combined such concepts in a documented implementation of a model of language teacher education aimed at changing teaching and learning practices at classroom level.

Results of the study reveal that the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model did promote changes in classroom practices which were in accord with the principles of the model and that these changes impacted positively on teachers' and students' classroom behaviour.

Introduction

1 Contextualization

The research question addressed in this study is: to what extent, if any, the implementation of a particular model of Language Teacher Education (LTE) with a group of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in a non-Anglophone country, namely Brazil, impacted on participants' classroom behaviour. As a means to address this question, an original tentative model of LTE was developed and trialled by the researcher in Brazil. The model is the result of an attempt to combine ideas from previous studies as highlighted in Chapter I. The impact of the implementation is evaluated based on both qualitative and quantitative evidence collected during the project.

This study is primarily concerned with the needs of non-native English speaker teachers within the field of LTE. The study focuses on TESOL teacher education, that is, the preparation of TESOL teachers. In this study, TESOL is understood as the teaching of English in any context, whether as a Second Language (ESL) or as a Foreign Language (EFL) to learners whose first language is not English.

In this study, Education is viewed as a complex dynamic system, and LTE is viewed as one of its sub-systems. The teaching/learning process is viewed as the result of an auto-regulated partnership between the teacher and the learners. The classroom is seen as a socially based complex dynamic system in a network, and its behaviour is described in terms of action-reaction patterns.

Through the investigation of the applicability of emerging ideas in Education and Teacher Education to Language Teacher Education informed by a review of the literature, this

study aims at adding to the body of research contributing to the advancement of the field of LTE.

2 The distinctive nature of this study

This study is set apart from others in that an actual model of LTE is constructed, and is experimentally implemented in a specific non-Anglophone context. Ideas such as knowledge construction (Wells, 1999, 2007); community of inquiry (Wells, 2002), meaningful epistemic roles for learners [1] (Nystrand, 1997); authentic interaction (Palincsar, Brown, & Campione, 1994), dialogic discourse (Wells, 2007; Wertsch, 1998); egalitarian 'classroom architecture' [2]; agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, the formation of a supportive community (Shulman, 1996) and reflectiveness (Flanders, 1970) are combined with others, such as dynamism; fractal structures; self-adaptation; self-regulation; emergent behaviour; complexity; unpredictability; imitation (De Bot, 2008; Feryok, 2009; Larsen-Freeman, 1997, 2002, 2008; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; van Geert, 2008). The amalgamation of such ideas is systematized and experimentally implemented through the model. This combination of ideas provides potentially new and different perspectives on LTE.

There are a large number of studies based on principles similar to those explored here, most of which are related to the Sociocultural Theory of Human Development (STHUD) or Complexity Theory (CT) (Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, & McIntyre, 2008; Flanders, 1970; Greenman & Dieckmann, 2004; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Phelps & Hase, 2002; Tozer, Gallegos, & Henry, 2011). Within these, there have been several projects in general education, and LTE; some of which have actually been implemented, at least at an experimental level (Burley & Pomphrey, 2002, 2003; Clarke, 2008; Crookes & Lehner, 1998; Davis & Sumara, 1997; Hedgcock, 2002; Mantero, 2004; Palincsar et al., 1994; Woods, 1996).

Some of the ideas explored here might seem to echo other studies and theories, such as the Enactivist Theory of Cognition (Davis & Sumara, 1997), studies on Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar et al., 1994), Action Research (Phelps & Hase, 2002), Critical Pedagogy (Crookes & Lehner, 1998), and Criticality (Greenman & Dieckmann, 2004), amongst others, and in fact, they do. This is due to the interconnectedness among these ideas and further to the multiple intertwined fields from which they originated.

The relevance of the STHUD to educational contexts in general and LTE in particular has long been established (Clarke, 2008; Lantolf & Thorne, 2008; Wells, 1999, 2002, 2007; Wells & Claxton, 2002; Wertsch, 1991, 1998). On the other hand, models of LTE which draw on studies within Complexity Theory are not easily found in the literature, and if such models exist, they might not yet have been implemented or their implementation might not yet be widely known. Drawing on Larsen-Freeman & Cameron (2008a) and Feryok (2008), who imply, and Burns & Knox (2011) who point out, that viewing language teaching and learning from a complexity perspective has implications for LTE, the current study has actually modelled and implemented an intervention informed by both lines of research, STHUD and CT.

The strong influence of the studies in CT on the model proposed in this study differentiates it from other studies based exclusively on STHUD. Several recent studies have pointed out the usefulness of CT in language teaching and LTE. The language classroom is now beginning to be recognized as ‘chaotic’, and studies call for novice language teachers to be prepared to deal with the ‘unpredictability’ of their future classrooms (Cvetek, 2008; Lemisko, Griffith, & Cutright, 2001).

Other studies describe language, language teacher cognition, and the language classroom as complex dynamic systems, point out the complexity and interconnectedness of such systems (De Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011; De Bot, Verspoor, & Lowie, 2005; N. C. Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2009; Feryok, 2010; Larsen-Freeman, 2010, 2012; Larsen-Freeman

& Cameron, 2008), and indicate the relevance of these views to LTE (Burns & Knox, 2011). However, concepts such as self-regulation, and other applicable properties of complex systems, such as fractal structure, have so far not been covered extensively in the LTE literature, nor do they appear to have been considered in earlier LTE models.

The usefulness of a hybrid approach drawing on CT and the STHUD has been suggested in the literature (De Bot et al., 2005; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) but apparently such an approach has not yet been concretized in a documented project. This study is set apart from others, also, because it draws on the synergy between ideas highlighted in studies based on each of the two theories.

3 The study

This study aims to investigate the implementation of an original model of TESOL Teacher Education, named the Self-Adaptive Model. The model addresses current problems in LTE, and was designed as a result of combining some emerging views on teaching and learning, identified through a review of the literature.

The crucial features of the model implemented are: the model is co-constructed by participants in an ongoing way (i.e., it is self-adaptive); it validates participants' knowledge; it facilitates the interaction of universal, general knowledge and local, specific knowledge; it fosters agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community (Shulman, 1996), believed to be principles characteristic of effective learning; it promotes a shift from the knowledge-transfer approach to a knowledge-construction one; it simultaneously informs and apprentices participants; it is suitably applicable to the context in which it is implemented.

Some of these features resonate with earlier work in Critical Pedagogy (see Crookes & Lehner, 1998). However, the similarity between the principles proposed in this study and those put forward in Critical Pedagogy is merely superficial. The rationale informing this

study differs fundamentally from Critical Pedagogical reasoning because the awareness promoted by the model focuses exclusively on the teaching/learning process, while Critical Pedagogy aims at developing a critical view of the world with special emphasis on relations of power.

The model was implemented in Joao Pessoa, Brazil, by means of a professional development course for TESOL teachers working at local public schools, and also included the observation of participants' classrooms.

The data collected include: feedback from participating teachers; group interviews with participants' students; classroom observation checklists; group interviews with participant teachers, discussions and evaluations; footage of observations, discussions and interviews; and review questionnaires completed by external assessors who reviewed the footage of the classroom observations.

4 The problem

In Brazil, the focus of this study, attempts to improve language teaching/learning made so far through LTE have not succeeded in promoting the desired effects in classroom practices.

This is in accord with studies in which researchers point out the remarkable resistance to change of traditional teaching practices, despite the strong criticism these practices have sustained over a long period of time (Wertsch, 1998). In the particular case of TESOL in non-Anglophone contexts, the scenario investigated here provides a clear example of this problem.

The problem exists despite the fact that the body of research developed in the various related fields concerning teaching and learning has led to increased understanding of classroom issues, classroom dynamics, and the roles of teachers and learners, in general

and in the specific case of language teaching. For instance, many research and professional development projects have addressed problems in education, and language education, through work on LTE and teachers' classroom performance (Burns & Knox, 2011; Davis & Sumara, 1997; Kubanyiova, 2007, 2012). Nevertheless, in the particular Brazilian context under investigation, attempts to improve language teaching/learning made so far through LTE have not succeeded.

Considering the language classroom from a complexity perspective, it seems that traditional classroom practices are a powerful attractor—conditions or forces which attract particular patterns of behaviour. However, this study shows that, in the case of the teachers who participated in the present research, on a small scale, the classrooms observed did deviate from the initial attractor state—a state in which the classroom is stabilised and exhibits behavioural patterns in accord with the attractors. Not only was teachers' classroom behaviour affected, but learners' behaviour also changed in response to teachers' change, restructuring classroom dynamics[3] in a way which suggests that the principles promoted in this study were embraced by the teachers.

5 Contributions of this study

Perhaps the most important contribution of this study is the documentation and analysis of the impact, at the language classroom level, of the implementation of a LTE model focussed on the sharing of responsibility between teacher and learners as a crucial condition in formal instructional settings (Crookes & Lehner, 1998; Woodward, 1991). This sharing of responsibility highlights the role of learners as active contributors and responsibility bearers who play a meaningful epistemic role in the teaching/learning process, avoiding the over-emphasis on the role of teachers, which appears to dominate traditional models of education (Moore, 2008), even those said to be learner-centred, and mainstream LTE (Crookes & Lehner, 1998).

The model proposed here describes classroom teachers and learners as elements of a minimal set, in which one element activates the knowledge of other, similarly to a semiotic object, such as a text, considered to be an intelligent object which requires another kind of intelligence, the reader's, to be activated (Voloshinov, Matejka, & Titunik, 1973). According to this description, teachers and learners play dynamic, interdependent and complementary roles. This contrasts sharply with traditional models describing classroom participants according to two separate categories—possessor and recipient of knowledge—each of which is assigned a predefined fixed role: the teacher as the agent of teaching, and the learner as the recipient of teaching.

In terms of the model, the roles of teachers and students are much more fluid, dynamic, interchangeable and complementary. Therefore, success or failure in the teaching/learning process can only be understood in regard to the interaction between the two elements. How learners approach learning plays an equally important role to the one played by the teacher's approach to teaching (Dewey, 2008).

This study also answers to calls in recent literature on teacher education for "studies from differing paradigmatic and epistemological perspectives" (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005, p. 2) that investigate the links between teacher education, its impact on teachers' classroom practices and their students' response to such practices, and for "additional research and analysis of what teachers should know" (Howard & Aleman, 2008, p. 169), contributing to the body of research on teacher education in general and LTE in particular.

The validation and equalization of practitioner knowledge through theory is one of the contributions resulting from the synergy among the ideas considered in this study. This validation and equalisation are not merely the recognition of specific local practitioner knowledge as a legitimate form of knowledge, but its legitimation as equivalent with general expert knowledge in the context described here. The external[4] validation of

practitioners' knowledge, and equalization thereof, play an important part in affording participants a meaningful epistemic role in LTE and transform the traditional hierarchy between practitioners and researchers. The description of teacher knowledge as divided into two realms, as made here, the macro and micro, appears to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Another contribution of this study is the investigation of self-regulation in LTE and its impact at language classroom level. The classroom architecture proposed here allows for both course content and classroom dynamics to be the result of the interaction between participants. This leads to self-regulation and self-adaptation in the LTE classroom.

Based on the account of knowledge construction as an individual accomplishment achieved through a social process, it was not expected that participants develop identical approaches for their individual classrooms, or implement the same principles. Instead, the expectation was that participants in the group contribute to the development of self-adapted approaches by each individual in the group. Self-regulation can lead to the creation of self-developed, well contextualised, well adapted approaches by teachers, which have better chances of succeeding than those generated by a standardised general approach would have.

To a certain degree, this is what happens in every classroom; teachers tailor their teaching to suit both context and themselves (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a, p.198; Feryok, 2010). However, this is done intuitively, individually, minimally, and often misguidedly or against what is prescribed (Moore, 2008). Inviting teachers to do it reflectively, collaboratively, extensively and officially can enhance the process and contribute to more complex, dynamic, and effective approaches to LTE.

6 Overview of the thesis

A literature review regarding pertinent issues in LTE and Second Language Education (SLE), especially in relation to non-Anglophone contexts is presented in Chapter I. The ideas and strategies extracted from the literature review underlie the construction and implementation of the model, called the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE. Chapter II details the construction of the Self-Adaptive Model. In Chapter III, the methodology of the study is detailed. In Chapter IV, an overview of the implementation of the model in a small coastal city in the northeast of Brazil is presented. In Chapter V, the data collected during implementation are presented and discussed, and reviews of some of the footage by external assessors are presented and discussed for the purposes of providing triangulation of the researcher's classroom observations. In Chapter VI, the data are analysed according to the features characteristic of the model as detailed in Chapter II. This is followed by a conclusion in Chapter VII.

---

[1] The concept of meaningful epistemic role is defined by Nystrand (1997) as a significant and

[2] Classroom architecture is used here to refer to a description of the agreed guidelines which regulate participants' roles and how they interact. This concept is analogous with that of evolution rules in CT, which establish how the system evolves, although evolution rules are the fruit of naturally occurring tendencies, and classroom architecture relies on participants' intentional decisions.

[3] Classroom dynamics is used here to refer to what actually is taking place in the classroom at any given moment: what participants are doing and how they interact.

[4] An approach termed "Externalism" in Epistemology.

Chapter I

Literature Overview

1 Introduction

In search for the answer to the research question guiding this study: "to what extent does the implementation of a particular model of Language Teacher Education (henceforth LTE) with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impact on participants' classroom behaviour?", a review of the relevant literature was conducted. In this chapter a brief overview of the history of foreign/second language teaching, focused on the preparation of language teachers is presented, followed by an overview of the major topics currently discussed in LTE.

Current research in LTE points out the insufficiencies in the education of language teachers (Brandt, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 2005b; B. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000). The roots of this problem go back more than one hundred years. At the beginning of the 20th century scholars denounced the inadequate preparedness of language teachers, linking it to a lack of LTE courses (O. M. Johnston, 1918; Kayser, 1916). Almost a century later, scholars have denounced the insufficient preparedness of language teachers, linking it to a series of factors, amongst which is the inadequacy of mainstream LTE courses (R. K. Johnson, 1986; Long, 1989).

From the late 20th century to the second decade of the 21st century, research in LTE has investigated important issues, and suggested different approaches, some of which share a number of core principles. These principles are highlighted here and reflected upon in the construction of the model underlying this study, which is presented in Chapter II.

2 The language teaching tradition

The formal teaching of modern languages is a tradition which began centuries ago. Howatt and Widdowson (2004) speculate that French was the first modern language[5] to be taught formally, and claim that its teaching started in England, toward the end of the Middle Ages. Much, of course, has changed since then. English has grown to become the most popular of modern foreign languages to be learnt (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999), and to have become an international language, as some claim (Jenkins, 2006). Efforts have been made to organise and regulate the tradition of language teaching, with the aim of consolidating it as a recognised profession (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004), and an enormous body of research into language teaching has developed. Central to the teaching of modern languages and to the teaching of English is the figure of the teacher. The preparation of language teachers is a crucial issue in the field of language teaching.

In the long and rich history of the language education tradition, the 20th century marks a period of intense development, and the 21st century should see the seeds of transformation grow. The present chapter is a brief review of the trajectory of LTE through the 20th century, identifying related unresolved issues, exploring current trends, and investigating proposals for improvement. Amongst the topics examined here are the knowledge base for the language teaching profession; the design and methodology of LTE programmes; the role of the teacher in modern language teaching; the importance of contextual adequacy in LTE; the theory/practice divide, and the participation of non-native teachers in TESOL.

2.1 The central issue in language teaching

Amongst the primary topics current in LTE, one which is still the focus of research and debate after a century of discussion, especially in regard to TESOL, is that of the language teaching knowledge base (B. Johnston & Irujo, 2001): is there a common body

of knowledge which should be available to anyone wishing to enter the modern foreign language teaching profession? In other words, what do language teachers need to know in order to be able to teach well? The lack of clarity and agreement about the requisite knowledge base inspired a great number of studies in the 20th century. It has been perhaps the most extensively discussed and exercised topic in LTE, alongside the issue of which methods should be used in language teaching.

In search of what some might consider the holy grail of language teaching—the common body of knowledge—researchers in the 20th century investigated a number of related issues, some of which have been developed into important research areas of their own: context sensitivity, LTE specific methodology, practitioner research, the pre-service beliefs of teachers, language teacher cognition, and the meta-cognitive strategies to be employed in LTE, for instance. The most central debates today are related to methodological aspects of LTE, course content, and context appropriateness in LTE.

3 LTE in the 20th century – A brief overview

3.1 Early beliefs about teaching

A belief largely held at the beginning of the 20th century was that teaching was an art, and therefore could not be taught: "Teachers were born rather than made" (Schulz, 2000, p. 495). Frequently, teachers were not required to undergo any training at all, and the vast majority of language teachers were self-made. The academic community eventually moved away from this belief, to the pursuit of a knowledge base for the language teaching profession (Schulz, 2000).

The predominant approach to language teaching and learning in the early 20th century, and indeed in the two centuries prior, was based on the study of prescriptive grammar rules, which were thought to be necessary in order for the learner to acquire reading skills

in the target language. The skills would then be applied to translating and interpreting literary texts with the aid of a dictionary. This approach is known as Grammar Translation. As its name suggests, the approach is based on a method of translating the target language into the learner's language, using grammatical rules. There is no focus on production. Spoken production is undervalued; writing in the target language is closely modelled, and accuracy is seen as "a moral imperative" (Howatt & Widdowson 2004 p. 155).

Teaching a language using Grammar Translation does not require a high level of proficiency from language teachers or even functional ability in the target language, since it is not the medium of instruction. The low expectations of proficiency required for teaching using this approach might have been an element which facilitated its establishment as the most widely used approach in language teaching. It might also be the reason for Grammar Translation still being widely implemented today (Thanasoulas, 2002). This approach has had a strong impact on LTE, and often leads to course content in language teaching being based heavily on traditional prescriptive grammatical rules, themselves arising from older prescriptions.

According to the literature surveyed, there were no courses for teachers of English as a modern foreign language until 1932, when Harold Palmer started a training course for teachers of English as a second language, at London University. Kayser (1916) points out the total absence of LTE courses:

> Under ideal conditions a modern language teacher ought, of course, to be equipped with all this professional knowledge before he undertakes teaching. But such conditions nowhere exist and they certainly were not to be found here in the infancy of our vocation (p. 3).

O. M. Johnston (1918) draws attention to the inadequacy of the preparedness of modern language teachers. He highlights the neglect of the speaking skill in the language

classroom, and blames it on the teachers' often "imperfect command of the idiom", and on the use of the Grammar Translation method.

However, aspects of LTE had already been discussed much earlier by various scholars, particularly after the Reform Movement, which began in 1882. This movement was unique in the history of language teaching, due mainly to its international and interdisciplinary scope (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

During the Reform Movement, the Direct Method, based on the use of the target language to deliver instruction was promoted. The use of this method was the first large-scale attack on Grammar Translation, even though Grammar Translation had been criticized in early works, such as '*An Appeal to the Truth'*; an essay on method, written by Joseph Webbe, published in 1622, introducing a textbook format which dispensed with grammar altogether. According to Webbe, "No man can run speedily to the mark of language that is shackled and ingiv'd with grammar" (Webbe, 1622, p. 9 in Howatt & Widdowson 2004, p. 39). To accompany the central role of spoken language, the Reform Movement emphasised the need for properly educated professionals in language teaching (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

The issues involved in focusing on language teacher education as opposed to relying on the teacher's individual personality and style, and the application of the Direct Method to foreign language teaching instead of the Grammar Translation method generated a long-lasting and contentious debate.

3.2 Main competing trends in language teaching

The literature reviewed suggests three main competing ideas in the field of language teaching in the first quarter of the 20th century: (1) – the belief in the absolute dependency on the teacher's personality for the success in the language classroom (2) – a view of LTE as an instrument to generate adequately qualified professionals, capable of delivering

quality instruction to language learners (3) – the conviction in the efficiency of the method of instruction as the deciding factor in language learning. The issue of the reliance on the teacher's personality would be short-lived, but the debate about LTE and language teaching methodology would keep the field in ebullition for quite some time.

3.2.1 Reliance on teacher's personality

Cerf (1922) argued against the Direct Method and in favour of the absolute reliance on the teacher's personality for the success of language teaching and learning. Despite conceding that a teacher could benefit from "an improvement in his method, and by a more clear-sighted conception of his aims" he asserted that "a good teacher will succeed and a bad teacher will fail", regardless of what method is applied or what aims are pursued (Cerf, 1922, p. 419).

3.2.2 A view of LTE as an instrument to generate professionals

Aron (1922) defended the idea that language teachers should be familiar with Linguistics, more precisely Phonetics, Principles and History of Language, and Psychology, as the knowledge of these "phases of human speech" would give the teacher a "fundamental understanding of the principles of language in general and their applicability to the particular language which is being taught" (p. 75). He argued that:

> As long as the teacher depends on a pedagogical bag of tricks and not on skill in teaching based on a thorough knowledge of and about the material he is teaching, namely language, just so long language teaching cannot claim classification as a profession (Aron, 1922, p. 77).

3.2.3 Reliance on method

Purin (1916) writing about the teaching of modern foreign languages in American high schools proclaimed the supremacy of the Direct Method:

> The 'direct' process of modern foreign language teaching is as ancient as the human race. It always has been and always will be *the* method in all cases

> where the teacher's linguistic attainments are limited strictly to his own mother tongue. There it becomes by necessity the 'natural' process of imparting knowledge, and the *modus docendi* [italics added] - again quite naturally - (Purin, 1916, p. 43)

3.2.4 The "golden" era in language teaching

The concern with the level of professionalism in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) manifested by some scholars at the beginning of the 20th century seems to have provoked two main reactions. First, research was directed at investigating LTE in close detail (Coleman, 1925, 1926; Crawford, 1924; Fife, 1925; Purin, 1928), generating a number of proposals and leading to the implementation of new approaches. Second, an effort to regulate the profession was promoted internationally, with the creation of admission exams, formal assessments, licensing and certifications for language teachers (Decker, 1917; Ernst, 1941; Price, 1920, 1933, 1934; Spaulding, 1941).

Although approaches to language teaching developed in the second half of the 20th century, and despite all the attention language teaching received during the period between the early 1950s and late 1970s, the issue of the knowledge base for the language teaching profession remained unresolved. After World War II, there was considerable investment and development in the second language education field, with emphasis on the teaching of English. A multiplicity of factors can be called upon in an attempt to explain the flourishing of second/foreign language teaching in general, and of English in particular, in the period post-WWII until the late 1970s.

First, a sophisticated language teaching research apparatus had been built during WWII, especially in the U.S., which had either to be dismantled or put to use. Second, the field was experiencing a period of methodological consensus centred on the development of a modified "Direct Method" approach. Third, a substantial influx of non-English-speaking migrants in Britain and the U.S. generated vast opportunities for the English teaching profession, as well as positive responses from government authorities (Howatt &

Widdowson, 2004). Fourth, the development of the European Common Market in Western Europe in the 1950s stimulated the expansion of foreign-language teaching (Risager, 2007). Fifth, the spread of English as the language of international commerce and practical communication fuelled the English teaching industry world wide (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Finally, the potential of English teaching as a form of disseminating Western ideologies during the Cold War might also have contributed to the growth of the industry (Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 2005a).

The 1970s are often called the golden age of language teaching. A plurality of studies in language acquisition was developed in this era. Chomsky's linguistic theories drew attention to the non-obvious structure of language, and promoted the idea of the innateness of language and the universal properties that all languages share. Additionally, the field of Psycholinguistics took account of affective and social factors in language learning, as well as the biological ones, and the field of sociolinguistics highlighted the social issues involved in learning a new language. At the same time, attempts to describe language from a functional perspective were made. Learning a language was seen as learning to communicate fluently and naturally in a language. Notions of context specificity were incorporated into language teaching. Many models of language pedagogy were derived from this theoretically diverse richness.

Based on the two dominant paradigms in language teaching and learning—Behaviourism and Cognitivism, and later under the influence of the Functionalist model, "defined as the belief that the forms of natural languages are created, governed, constrained, acquired and used in the service of communicative functions" (MacWhinney, Bates, & Kliegl, 1984, p. 128), the field produced an abundance of assertions and prescriptions (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). This context created very fertile ground for the cultivation of methods and techniques. As a result, a number of different methods and approaches to language teaching have proliferated, e.g. The Direct Method, The Audio-lingual method;

The Silent Way; Desuggestopedia; Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response, and Communicative Language Teaching (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

3.2.5 The quest for methods

In the 1970s, the belief in the teacher's personality as a key factor for success in the language classroom seems to have lost most of its appeal. The investigation of LTE appears to have been directed towards the training of teachers in particular methods (Bosco, 1970; Pillet, 1970; Politzer & Bartley, 1970). Methodological aspects of language teaching were in the focus of attention and new ideas were welcomed by the language teaching community.

The seemingly scientific approach promised by the focus on methods fast gained popularity. In this context, and perhaps under the influence of the expanding positivist paradigm, the field of modern language teaching produced yet another holy grail: the best method. The methodological era in language teaching promoted teacher-centred approaches using rigid syllabi and prescribed materials. The belief was that "failure to learn results only from improper application of the method" (Richards, 2001, p. 63).

In LTE, this scenario is reflected in the profile of mainstream widely implemented courses developed to train teachers of English as a second language. The original formalized teacher training course in the UK was established in 1962 and was known as The Royal Society of Arts (RSA) certificate in teaching English, later Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA). The supremacy of the use of methods over other aspects of language teaching is evident in the content of mainstream LTE courses, such as CELTA (see Brandt, 2006) and many others.

Mainstream widespread pre-service language teacher courses became synonymous with language teaching methodology courses. A succession of different approaches was emphasised; one at a time. Teachers were trained to apply the method in favour at the

time the course was conducted. This tendency culminated in the rise of the Communicative Syllabus, published by John Munby in 1978.

3.2.6 Language teachers and the knowledge base

Towards the end of the 20th century, contrary to what might have been expected, developments in the field of ESL do not appear to have had the desired positive impact in LTE.

R. K. Johnson (1986) denounces the lack of preparedness of a large portion of ESL teachers. "If there are doubts about the level of professionalism in language teaching, the reason may be simple. Far too many language teachers are not, in fact, professionals in the generally accepted academic sense," (p. 2). The author points out the absence of clear criteria, and of a knowledge base for the profession: "The lack of a required common body of knowledge for entry into the field is an important source of the problem," (p. 1); and the fact that language teachers are not required to have a solid knowledge of the subject matter, which is the case in other disciplines, as shown in the quote below.

> "In other subject areas, professional status demands a solid grounding in the relevant academic disciplines, not because a mathematics teacher for example will necessarily use that knowledge directly in the classroom, but because effective mathematics teaching needs to be informed by an understanding of the principles upon which mathematics is based. Being 'good at figures' is not enough, and no one suggests that it is. For language teachers, but particularly ESL teachers, being 'good at the language' is not only 'good enough', it is frequently the sole criterion" (R. K. Johnson, 1986, p. 1).

Long (1989) goes even further in arguing that the real scenario in language teaching is actually worse than depicted by R. K. Johnson (1986). "In fact, the situation is far worse than even this gloomy picture suggests, since many teachers, perhaps the vast majority, both native and non-native speakers, are neither 'good at the language' nor the recipient of any formal training" (p. 161).

Long (1989) points out that the field of language teaching has been presented with a multiplicity of theoretical propositions, but not enough data on which to base decisions about their usefulness. “Assertions and prescriptions abound, but there is very little hard evidence about what works” (p. 161). He attributes the language teachers’ unpreparedness to deficiencies in LTE.

> “The lack of a research basis for (language teacher) training is also bad for the consumer, for if the assertions are unfounded and the prescriptions conflict, as is often the case, then at least some trainee teachers and, through them, many more language learners must be in incompetent hands” (Long, 1989, p. 161).

Toward the end of the 1980s, the pursuit of the best method appears to have lost most of its importance. Apart from some prominent work by Van Patten (1996) on input-processing, a method based on the manipulation of texts in a way which highlights language features intended to be acquired by the learner (Skehan, 1998), not much of the work on methods appears to have had any strong impact on the field. By the early 1990s, the field of language teaching seemed to have abandoned the quest for the best method (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001; Prabhu, 1990; Richards, 1990a, 2001).

This period marks an important shift in the focus of research in language teaching, from the emphasis on approaches, methods and materials, back to the teacher. It was no longer believed that the reliance on the teacher’s personality alone was the key for effective language teaching and learning. The teacher’s personality was perceived rather as one contributor to success in the language classroom, one of the components of what were called presage variables in the 1970s, which were part of a set of variables, namely presage, context, process and product variables (Borg, 2006). Following research in general education, second language education research developed new instruments and ways to investigate what characterized a good teacher.

3.3 Differences between research into language education and into general education

In the late 1980s, there appeared to be a huge gap between research into general education and into language education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). While the second language field had been chasing methodological ghosts, general education research had covered considerable ground. From the observation of teachers' behaviour and the description of teaching within the process-product paradigm, according to Behaviourist principles (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974), research in general education had moved to the investigation of teachers' thoughts, judgements and decisions, adopting a Cognitivist paradigm (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Borg, 2006).

Until the mid-1970s, research into general education had usually been based on the assumption that effective teaching was characterized by a set of discrete behaviours, routines, or scripts, carried out by expert teachers in the classroom. Researchers observed expert teachers' classroom routines and sought to determine the archetypal behaviours that could be linked to successful learning. It was argued that if these behaviours were carried out efficiently by other teachers, this would ensure positive learning outcomes in any given context. Amongst the critiques made about this approach to research into teacher effectiveness, were the facts that it ignored and devalued teachers' individual experiences, did not take account of the importance of contextual elements, and reduced teaching to a set of quantifiable behaviours (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Borg, 2006).

In the mid-1970s, there was a shift of perspective in research into education from this Behaviourist approach to a Cognitivist one. Unlike the Behaviourist tradition, which adhered rigorously to a crude positivism, the new approach opened up the possibility for researchers to explore elements which, according to the mainstream positivist approach at the time, were not considered to be directly observable, and therefore, not scientifically valid. Cognitivist research then sought to describe the mental processes that shaped

teachers' behaviours in the classroom. The assumption was that effective teaching was characterised by teachers' thoughts and decisions about what to do in the classroom (Borg, 2006).

Teachers' individual experiences and information about context were valued as factors which influenced their decisions, and therefore had an impact on learning outcomes. In research conducted in this period (Clark & Yinger, 1977) teachers were no longer merely observed; they were asked why they had decided to behave as they did. Despite seeing teachers as thoughtful individuals, however, research failed to take into account the teachers' personal perspectives and experiences (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Borg, 2006).

By the mid-1980s, thus, unlike research into language education, research into general education had already begun to explore the complex ways in which teachers' prior experiences as students influence their future behaviour as teachers. The phenomenon was called "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 2002). Further, research had begun to draw on teachers' personal practical knowledge (Connelly & Clandinin, 1988 in Freeman & Johnson, 1998), and their values and beliefs (Pajares, 1992 in Freeman & Johnson, 1998) to explain their behaviour in the classroom.

3.4 Impact of research into general education on LTE

In language education, after the fixation upon methods faded away, LTE rapidly became the principal centre of discussions in the field, and a great number of studies focussed on issues related to LTE were carried out in the last decade of the 20th century (Pennycook, 2000a, 2000b, 1994, 1999; Hayes, 1996; Woods, 1996; Bax, 1997; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Canagarajah, 1999; Gatbonton, 1999). The research concentrated on the teacher, and started to take into account the individual beliefs and personal values of pre-service teachers as influential in their perception of the teaching-learning process. LTE methodology had to change to accommodate these ideas; the traditional delivery of

knowledge through lectures, by expert lecturers to pre-service teachers could no longer be justified (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

3.5 The Quiet Revolution

Close to the turn of the 21st century, the research developments in LTE appear to have provoked another Reform Movement in the teaching of modern languages, this time focussed on teacher education, referred to as The Quiet Revolution. In 1998, the academic journal *TESOL Quarterly* published its first special-topic issue, entitled "Research and practice in English LTE" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). In this issue, the article which would be the manifesto of the revolution was featured: Reconceptualising the Knowledge-base of LTE (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

The debate generated by this paper fuelled discussions about LTE until the end of the 20th century, and has continued to do so up to the time of writing (2013). These discussions have contributed enormously to the quest for a knowledge base for language teaching, as they comprise a plurality of ideas. While some authors support Freeman & Johnson's (1998) framework, some others have argued that it does not address adequately the uniqueness of language as subject matter and downplays the importance of language, linguistics and second language acquisition (Muchisky & Yates, 2004).

The fundamental importance of the discussions generated by The Quiet Revolution lies in the description of the three domain areas in LTE—teacher-learner [relationship], social context, and pedagogical process—and the inclusion of context-sensitive elements in the proposed framework. The framework offers an alternative to the knowledge-transfer approach and envisions the teacher and the social context as part of a complex, multifaceted and evolutionary dimension of the teaching/learning process.

It may be that the inclusion of other domains in Freeman & Johnson's (1998) framework, which some researchers claim were left out or downplayed, will result in a more complete

account of the process of LTE. What is certain, however, is that LTE research has leapt on to more solid ground since the end of the 20th century, and has begun to understand key issues in more complex ways. Researchers have shed new light on ancient questions and the field seems to be closer to finding some answers.

4 Current problems identified in LTE

4.1 Critiques of current language pedagogy

Regardless of all the efforts and developments of the 20th century, some of the problems discussed above have been carried over to the new millennium. This is evidenced in some major articles published in the first decade of the 21st century.

Stewart (2006) claims that the issue of the common body of knowledge for the language teaching profession is yet to be resolved when he refers to a "TESOL knowledge base" which "the second language field is struggling to produce," (p. 427). A number of articles published since the beginning of the 21st century have focussed on this quest; B. Johnston & Goettsch (2000), Yates & Muchisky (2003/2004), Freeman & Johnson (2004), Johnson (2006).

A review of Sowden (2007) suggests that the belief in the teacher's personality as the most important factor for success in the language classroom has also survived the turn of the millennium, and continues to play its role in teachers' construction of their professional identities. He affirms the idea that the teacher's personality is a major factor in successful teaching and asserts that "appropriate personal qualities […] are the key to overall success in the classroom, and this has not really changed over the years, although concern with the latest technique and method has tended to obscure this fact," (p. 307).

The search for the best method might be over, but new methods are still being developed. Nevertheless, approaches based purely on the strict use of methods are not as popular any

longer (Richards, 2001). One of the basic problems, seemingly shared by all methods[6], is the difficulty in assuring that all involved in the teaching/learning process will follow the prescriptions strictly. Richards (2001) writes that the past history of methods is "somewhat of an embarrassment", due to the difficulty studies have found in demonstrating the methods' effectiveness. It has proven difficult to isolate other factors that may have played a role in the results obtained by applying any particular method, i.e., "teacher's enthusiasm or the novelty of the method itself" (p. 168).

However, the ongoing reliance on methods to generate positive outcomes in language teaching and learning is evident in the typical syllabi of mainstream pre-service language teacher preparation courses. The majority of such courses (CELTA, Certificate IV in TESOL at Sydney's International House) emphasise The Communicative Approach, generating a widespread conviction that this approach embodies the most up to date methodology currently used in second language teaching and learning (Brandt, 2006; Nunan, 1987).

This approach is based on the idea that language should be taught through its use as a communication medium, therefore activities focus on facilitating the use of the target language by the learner to achieve a communicative goal. Nevertheless, there are several interpretations of the Communicative Approach, and it has become an umbrella term that includes multiple perspectives on the idea of language as communication; the mainstream interpretation is captured in standardized course-book series such as *Headway* (Soars & Soars, 2011).

The way The Communicative Approach is implemented worldwide suggests that the belief that a set of prescribed practices can be an instrument capable of generating the desired outcomes in language teaching and learning still remains. Several studies, however, claim that this belief is unfounded (G. Ellis, 1996; Hasanova & Shadieva, 2008; Jenkins, 2006; B. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Knight, 2001; Richards, 2001).

Despite a number of recent studies which point to the importance of context sensitivity in language teaching and learning (Bartels, 2005; Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999, 2000, 2005a; Pennycook, 2000), mainstream methodologies in language teaching are still based on studies conducted in Anglophone societies. The knowledge base produced mainly in Australia, the UK and the USA is exported to other countries as pedagogical expertise, under a "one size fits all" flag, with little or no adaptation to the specificities of local contexts (E. M. Ellis, 2003; Holliday, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Lin, Wang, Akamatso, & Riazi, 2005; Macalister, 2011; Pennycook, 1994; Widdowson, 1992).

While researchers have started to point out the importance of context sensitivity, and large course-book distributors try to suggest ways in which their material can be contextualized to different scenarios, the hegemony of the Anglo-centric knowledge base continues to promote the use of prescriptive methodological models, which are ultimately incomplete.

This hegemony also serves to disguise the deficiencies in LTE and diverts the central focus of language teaching and learning from the education of teachers to methodological questions.

4.2 Inadequacies of LTE

The voices of Long (1989) and Johnson (1986) are echoed among practitioners in the field, as shown by a quote from Dr Brenda Hall, an ESL employment consultant in 2007, which suggests that the poor preparation of language teachers as teachers of language has not changed, and calls attention to the differences between the mainstream process of becoming a TESOL teacher, represented here by the CELTA for its widespread implementation (286 centres in 54 countries), and the education process undergone by teachers of other subjects in the UK:

> Firstly I am concerned that market forces rather than principles seem to dictate standards. If a young person in the UK is contemplating a teaching

> position in the State education system, the route is a university degree followed by a postgraduate training course lasting at least one year. Qualified teacher status can be conferred after a probationary period is satisfactorily completed. Contrast this with what is required to become an English language teacher: over 18, competent in English (I am not sure what this really means) and four weeks training. This teacher training conveyor belt churns out thousands of teachers each year, many of whom have scant acquaintance with English grammar, little idea of the cultural backgrounds of their prospective students, and little or no awareness of the complexity of the learning processes of diverse student groups" (Hall, 2007, ¶ 2).

This is further aggravated by the fact that a number of these underprepared teachers become involved in LTE in foreign countries and are seen as experts in language teaching. Widdowson (1992) criticizes the practice of exporting incomplete models of language teaching, and claims that

> There is something distinctly ridiculous, and embarrassing, in the spectacle of ESOL teachers of minimal educational qualifications and expertise claiming the status of teacher trainers and bringing revelation about ELT to countries with a long and distinguished tradition in the study of language and education. These bearers of good tidings seem to be borne aloft by a belief that ELT as they practise it is some sort of unique mystery distinct from more general principles of language education (p. 338).

In response to this situation, in the 21st century, there have been a series of studies in LTE focussing on the issue of the knowledge base for the language teaching profession. Researchers try to establish what constitutes a good language teacher, and concentrate on how pre-service and in-service teachers achieve high teaching standards. The objective is to identify the core content to be included in LTE programmes, in order to promote effective language learning.

Some of the most relevant issues for this study are:

(a) Teaching knowledge and language knowledge (Borg, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 2004; Gatbonton, 1999; Hedgcock, 2002; Hu, 2005; K. E. Johnson, 2006; B. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Morris, 2003);

(b) theory and practice in LTE (R. Ellis, 2001; Freeman & Johnson, 2004, 2005b; Hayes, 1996; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Norton & Toohey, 2004; Stewart, 2006; E. Tarone & Alwright, 2005);

(c) SLA research in language teaching (Allwright, 2005; Freeman & Johnson, 2005b; Lantolf, 2000);

d) teacher cognition (Borg, 2003, 2006; Feryok, 2010; Gatbonton, 1999; Hedgcock, 2002; K. E. Johnson, 2006; B. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000);

(e) context-sensitive LTE (Bax, 1997; Carrier, 2003; Nemtchinova, 2005); and

(f) the role of non-native English speakers in TESOL (For instance, Bailey & Pasternak, 2004; Canagarajah, 1999, 2005a; Carrier, 2003; Nemtchinova, 2005; Pennycook, 2000).

The most crucial ideas will be explored below. The interconnectedness of some of these ideas is essential to our understanding of the issues involved in the project at hand.

4.3 Theory and practice in TESOL

The theory/practice duality in TESOL has created a fissure between teachers and researchers. Scholars of language pedagogy have claimed over the years that there is a gap between language teaching practice and research (e.g. Stewart, 2006). Claims have also been made about the hierarchical relationship between language teachers and language researchers, in which teachers are regarded as being in a lower position by themselves and the research community, while researchers are seen to have a higher status than that of teachers (e.g. Stewart, 2006; Hedgcock, 2002). The perception of this hierarchy intensifies the gap between the two groups. It has also been claimed that practitioners' voices are not heard in research (e.g. Haynes, 1996), while practice is dictated by research, and that this devalues teaching (Nunan, 1988; Bolitho, 1991; Haynes, 1996; Morgan, 1998; Stewart 2006).

In addition, there have been claims about researchers expressing their findings in discourse which is incomprehensible to teachers. Teachers feel “guilty (about what they don’t know), belittled, alienated or devalued”, when theorists and teachers meet, instead of feeling that they are taking part in a profitable dialogue between professionals of equal standing (Bolitho, 1991, p. 26). This communication gap and the hierarchical differences between language teachers and theorists or researchers are strong contributors to the distancing of the two groups (Bolitho, 1991; Markee, 1997; Stewart, 2006).

The work of both Stewart (2006) and Kumaravadivelu (2003) acknowledges the hierarchical relationship between researchers or theorists and teachers described by Bolitho (1991) and Haynes (1996). Stewart asserts that the practical knowledge of teachers is undervalued by researchers and practitioners alike, that teachers have no voice in the research field, and that “most teachers have been trained to accept the artificial dichotomy between theory and practice” (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 19 in Stewart, 2006). Stewart calls for collaboration between researchers and teachers. He claims that the “dichotomy inherent in distinct role labels might unintentionally privilege technical knowledge over practical or social knowledge. This would be highly detrimental to the development of a new knowledge base in TESOL that better fits our field” (Stewart, 2006, p. 427).

Stewart (2006) cites Pennycook (1999, p. 330) who claims that “success (i.e., publication) in academic work depends on the familiarity with the secret language or codes of language and research deemed acceptable by professional gatekeepers”. This echoes the claim that research is often written in terms inaccessible to teachers. These claims are in accord with Markee (1997) when he writes, “even when researchers discuss ideas that are potentially relevant to teachers, they often express themselves in such opaquely technical language that teachers are ‘turned off’ from the whole idea of research” (p. 80).

There is evidence to support the claims expressed by Pennycook (1999) above. Lantolf (2000) reviews language teaching and research in the 20th century, using *The Modern Language Journal*, published since 1916, as a sample of the language teaching community's discourse. He observes that at the outset of the journal's life, language teachers provided a substantial contribution to the publication. In the initial volume, 40% of the articles published were written by teachers with secondary school affiliations. By the mid-1970s, teachers' contributions were limited to short notes. Lantolf sees the disappearance of teachers from the pages of the journal as a reflex of the establishment of linguistics and psycholinguistics, and the introduction of specialized jargon and a scientific approach to the study of languages, language teaching and learning.

Additionally, R. Ellis (2001) sees researchers and teachers as those who are the possessors of technical knowledge and practical knowledge respectively. He acknowledges a gap between the study of SLA and the practice of language pedagogy, and states that while the goal of SLA research is to contribute to technical knowledge, "language pedagogy is concerned with practical knowledge" (p. 45).

In regard to the usefulness of these two kinds of knowledge, Freeman & Johnson (2004, 2005a) maintain that teachers' practical knowledge and not their technical knowledge is what lies at the heart of effective language teaching and learning, and that the "apparent centrality" of disciplinary knowledge in LTE is "more of a historic than a functional reality" (Freeman & Johnson 2004). Feryok & Pryde (2012) acknowledge that previous research suggest that "conceptualizations of teacher knowledge have shifted to focussing on the role of experiential rather than theoretical knowledge" (p. 441).

In contrast, Muchisky & Yates (2003, 2004), commenting on Freeman & Johnson's (1998) proposition, argue that LTE should remain based on the study of the theoretical disciplines, and that the shift of centrality suggested by the partisans of the Quiet Revolution marginalise "critical issues such as what it means to be able to use English,

how L2s are learned, and how these issues influence what teachers do in the classroom" (Muchisky & Yates, 2004).

Moreover, Hedgcock (2002) considers familiarity with the profession's discourse a condition for entering the professional community. He proposes a "socially-constructed" model of learning and apprenticeship for LTE, and argues that in order to maximise novices' chances of achieving professional growth, "declarative knowledge of language structure and use, learning processes, and the theoretical knowledge of the Language Teaching field must not be demoted" (p. 299).

Hedgcock (2002) argues that declarative critical knowledge is necessary for, and complementary to, the development of procedural knowledge, and that excessive emphasis on practical knowledge may alienate practitioners from participating "meaningfully in the profession's many conversations" (p. 299). Hedgcock provides suggestions for ways in which language teacher preparation needs to move away from the "training" perspective it has so far embraced, and head toward an educational orientation, which is authentic and context sensitive. He claims that this can be achieved through a "genre-based, sociorhetorical approach to LT discourse" (p. 299). The term "sociorhetorical" is defined as a fusion of rhetorical analysis and social sciences, and takes into consideration social values as well as rhetorical elements: "It integrates the ways people use language with the ways they live in the world" (Robbins, 1996 p. 1).

B. Johnston & Goettsch (2000) write about a "special amalgam" of content knowledge and pedagogy, first proposed in the work of Shulman (1987). This fusion of theoretical and practical knowledge is referred to as pedagogical content knowledge. B. Johnston & Goettsch (2000) call for a process-oriented approach to the development of a knowledge base of language teaching, which should be central to "any LTE programme", and claim that its "situated, process-oriented, contextualized nature" needs to be acknowledged, "so

that the boundary between what is thought of as theory (knowledge of language) and what is thought of as practice (teaching) finally begins to be erased" (pp. 464-5).

Johnson (2006) adds to the debate over the knowledge base for language teaching, citing Freeman & Johnson (1998, 2004, 2005); Bartels (2005); Tarone & Allwright (2005); Yates & Muchisky (2003) and Widdowson (2002). In addition to putting forward the argument in the Quiet Revolution—the centrality of experiential knowledge in LTE, she presents other interesting proposals. Johnson writes about a sociocultural turn in the human sciences, and its impact on LTE. She argues against the "theory/practice dichotomy", which "seems to permeate this debate", and proposes instead the implementation of the concept of praxis (Freire & Ramos, 2003) which "captures how theory and practice inform one another and how this transformative process informs teachers' work" (Johnson, 2006 p. 240). Although this construct, 'praxis', seems to be similar to what Shulman (1987) calls pedagogical content knowledge, in Johnson's work it is clearly described as a process, rather than a product.

The developments in research are slowly filtering into the design and practice of LTE programmes at universities (Crooks & Lehner, 1998, Johnston & Irujo, 2001; Begelow & Walker, 2004), but the pre-service TESOL teacher preparation courses implemented on a large scale, responsible for the qualification of the majority of TESOL teachers, such as the CELTA, run at 286 centres in 54 countries, and other such courses implemented on a smaller scale, still follow long established models based on a training rather than educational perspective. This is discussed in the next section.

4.4 The content and design of LTE programmes

There is currently a large variety of LTE programmes being offered worldwide, by coursework, distance learning, or a mixture of both, to anyone interested in becoming a TESOL teacher (see appendix 1). The curricula and syllabi of these courses can vary widely. There seems to be no consensus on what should be part of entry-level LTE

programmes. While some courses are heavily reliant on language teaching methodology based models, others attempt to cover aspects of the subject matter itself, and to offer an overview of Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition.

Newman and Hanauer (2005), writing about standards in LTE programmes, alert us to the dangers of adopting what they call:

> A form of curricular monoculture based on canonical knowledge and so-called best practices. Teachers' and teacher educators' agency and judgment are discounted in the name of this "truth" established by authority. The history of TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language), with its methodological swings, changing priorities, and fads should be enough to convince anyone that such canons are likely to be as dubious as they are stifling (p. 757).

It seems that this concern is centred on the exportation of "expert knowledge" from Anglophone countries.

In response to this concern, it might be argued that defining the core content of LTE programmes, based on the knowledge base of the profession (once there is one), does not lead to curricular monoculture. If LTE programmes were to be developed according to a context-sensitive approach (Bax, 1997), which seems to be a fundamental condition for the success of such programmes, this would guarantee curricular diversity. Moreover, the field seems to be heading toward social, reflective, process-oriented approaches to LTE, which would ensure the evolutionary character of curricula (Hedgcock, 2002; Johnson, 2006; Mantero, 2004; Rubdy, 2000).

This tendency to consider social and context sensitive aspects in LTE is apparent in the adoption of a social constructivist perspective on LTE by a number of researchers, such as Mantero (2004) and Burley & Pomphrey (2002, 2003). Social Constructivism is a sociological theory of knowledge that extends the constructivist paradigm to include social settings. This theory is largely attributed to the work of the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky, and others who worked within the Soviet socio-historical tradition. It

describes the construction of knowledge as a collaborative enterprise among the members of particular groups within given social settings, corresponding to the creation of a group culture of shared sociocultural practices. Participation in these sociocultural activities requires that individuals are constantly learning.

Another proposition comes from Grundy (2002), who writes about the importance of including linguistic reflexivity in LTE. He explains that reflexivity is a metalinguistic feature which provides interlocutors with guidance on how to interpret particular speech acts. It refers to the realm of pragmalinguistics, and includes notions such as relevance. This feature fits in with recent descriptions of language and language learning (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011) which include contextual and social dimensions of language, as well as portraying language acquisition as a continuous process, as evidenced by their use of the word "development" instead of "acquisition".

In an attempt to investigate the content of LTE programmes, Johnston and Goettsch (2000) try to answer the question: What kinds of knowledge are most useful to teachers? They draw on Shulman's (1987) theoretical framework, which divides teacher knowledge into a set of intertwined categories of knowledge (content knowledge; general pedagogical knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; knowledge of learners; knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of educational ends; knowledge of educational context). The authors conclude that these categories relate to one another in complex ways. They argue that teacher knowledge is the product of the interplay between these categories of knowledge and others, which only takes place when teaching actually occurs.

Johnson (2006) defines the relation between the categories of knowledge described above as "teachers' ways of knowing that lead to praxis", named "new scholarship" in general education (Schon, 1995; Zeichner, 1999; in Johnson, 2006), and its outcome as "practitioner knowledge" (Hiebert, Gallimore, & Stigler, 2002; in Johnson, 2006).

Johnston proposes that “teachers’ ways of knowing that lead to praxis” be recognized as a legitimate way of coming to know, and practitioner knowledge as legitimate knowledge, and that both be included in LTE programmes, alongside disciplinary knowledge. She claims that practitioner knowledge is fundamentally different from other types of knowledge, because it is dynamic and the result of an interactive relation involving diverse and numerous categories of knowledge.

Moreover, Tarone and Allwright (2005) consider it essential that the knowledge base for LTE takes into account the role of the second language learners. They understand language learning to be a dialectic process involving both teachers and learners, and believe that classroom work should be negotiated between teacher and learners, to attend to the specificities of each particular group of learners. These ideas are in line with research on context sensitive LTE programmes, as well as with the ideas of the social-constructivist paradigm.

Adding to the discussion, Hedgcock (2002) sees language teaching as a discourse, and as a professional community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). LTE is therefore seen as a mechanism for regenerating and perpetuating the community and the discourse. It is the role of LTE to develop novices’ teaching skills and to bring them into the community of practice, to ensure its survival and renewal. In order to belong to the community, newcomers need to be apprenticed. Hedgcock defines this apprenticeship process according to the claims of Geisler (1994), who notes that aspirants to a discipline or academic community must know the community’s specific discourse. This is in accord with the spirit of Vygotsky’s work.

Concurrently, Mantero (2004) sees LTE programmes as instruments for the formation of professional identity in pre-service language teachers. The author proposes a model to transcend previous tradition in LTE, centred in the development of novices’ critical thinking skills, identity formation mechanisms, and understanding of language teaching.

Amongst the categories of knowledge, which candidates are required to develop for the successful completion of the programme, is support knowledge, an idea extracted from Day and Conklin (1992). This category is defined as “knowledge of various disciplines that inform our approach in the language classroom (psycholinguistics and second language acquisition, for example)” (p. 146).

In terms of incorporating a number of new proposals in LTE, Clarke (2008) reports on the first cohort of students to complete a Bachelors of Education in his English language teaching programme, implemented in the United Arab Emirates. The degree is based on a context-specific, dialectic, inclusive, sociocultural framework, aimed at encouraging the development of a community of practice. Clarke does not report on the practical effects of this programme on English teaching and learning. It is to be expected that the results of such an educational enterprise would not surface immediately, but eventually emerge from the accommodation between academic aspirations and general local conditions. The continuity and adaptation of the programme would be decisive for the final outcome. The development of Clarke’s programme, nevertheless, represents an important step in the direction of improvement in LTE, and the present study shares a number of its core propositions.

Many of the recent studies involved with the language teaching knowledge base seem to draw on the work of Shulman and his associates at Stanford and Vanderbilt Universities, and University of California, Berkeley (e.g. Grossman, Wilson, & Shulman, 1989; Howey & Grossman, 1989; Rico & Shulman, 2004; Shulman, 1986a, 1986b, 1987; Shulman & Shulman, 2004), or arrive at similar conclusions. In the articles reviewed here, only one presents a category of teacher knowledge which is not accounted for by Shulman (1987)—Support knowledge: a broad domain including related disciplines which could be used to aid teaching and learning, such as psychology and cognitive sciences (Day and Conklin, 1992 in Mantero, 2004). Other categories of teacher

knowledge proposed by Shulman are: curriculum knowledge, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values.

4.5 The Methodology used in LTE courses – Teacher training or teacher education?

Since the decline of the study of methods in language teaching, from around the 1980s, attention has been shifted back onto the teacher.

4.5.1 Critical language teacher education

Teacher centred approaches in the language classroom have been opposed by researchers for many years (Nystrand, 1997; Palincsar & Brown, 1984, 1988; Palincsar, Brown, & Campione, 1993; Palincsar et al., 1994; Wells, 1999, 2002, 2007; Wells & Claxton, 2002; Wertsch, 1985, 1991, 1998), and ideas such as critical pedagogy have been discussed in the preparation of language teachers since the early 1980s (Crawford-Lange, 1981; Pennycook, 1994, 2000), yet many so-called mainstream teacher training programmes have used a knowledge-transfer methodology for just as long (see Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Ferguson & Donno, 2003; Johnson, 2006; Brandt, 2006). It seems unrealistic to "train" teachers to "perform" in the classroom according to canons (Brandt, 2006) and then expect them to teach reflectively. As a response to this paradox, research appears to be moving away from teacher training, and embracing teacher education instead (Hedgcock, 2002; Johnson, 2006; Brandt, 2006).

The issue of appropriateness in teacher education has been discussed for decades. Larsen-Freeman (1983) argues for a hybrid perspective in LTE including both training and education perspectives, in which teacher education is seen as a superordinate process, under which the teacher training process is subsumed. She offers a comparison between teacher training and teacher education, made for heuristic purposes, which summarizes the main points. The comparison exemplifies the knowledge-transfer approach embodied

in the training perspective in LTE, and a process oriented approach to LTE, clearly depicted in the education perspective. Table 1, below, shows this comparison.

The training process:	*The educating process:*
The training process is situation-oriented. Since the trainer can customize the training to the situation, finite objectives can be specified.	The educating process is individual-oriented. Objectives are more general and are stated in terms of developing an individual's skills so that he or she can adapt to and function in any situation.
The content of the training program is matched to the finite objectives. The information is transmitted from the trainer to the trainees.	Students are educated to be independent learners: to have 'the capacity to generate their own learning as needed' (Harrison and Hopkins 1967:439).
Trainees are expected to do as the trainer (or the acknowledged model) does. The emphasis is on obtaining results that conform as closely to the model as possible.	Students learn how to set objectives, define problems, generate hypotheses, gather information, make decisions, and assess outcomes. The emphasis is on the process, not the result.
Criteria for success can be specified. Measurement of these and therefore knowledge of the degree of the trainer's success is immediately attainable.	Since objectives are more open-ended, assessment is based on the progress students have made toward meeting the objectives. Success is more relative than absolute.

Table 1 (Extracted from Larsen-Freeman, 1983 p. 265)

An alternative to knowledge transfer might also be found in the work of Wells (1999), located within the Socio-constructivist paradigm, which is concerned with the search for a language-based theory of learning. He distinguishes between knowledge and information, and claims that in most educational settings information is seen as knowledge. According to Wells, knowledge needs to be constructed by each individual; it involves the "process of coming to know". One cannot know something through someone else's "process of coming to know"; one needs to experience it first hand, undergo the process oneself, in order to construct knowledge. Unlike information, knowledge, therefore, cannot be simply transferred from person to person, or for that matter from teacher to students.

Wells asserts that the confusion between knowledge and information is the genesis of the knowledge-transfer approach, which, according to his argument, is not efficacious. As an alternative to the knowledge-transfer models of education adopted worldwide, Wells

proposes the implementation of a process, based on the activity of knowing and the social character of knowledge building. He suggests that the use of activities which facilitate metacognition is a way to promote such a process. This is in line with a shift from teacher training to teacher education.

The key factor in the shift from teacher training to teacher education seems to be the stimulation of meta-cognitive skills: the skills of learning how to learn, and the encouragement of learner autonomy and collaboration. Boud (1988 in McClure, 2001) describes autonomous learning as “a goal of education”, “a term to describe an approach to education”, and “an integral part of learning of any kind” (Boud, 1988, p. 17 in McClure, 2001, p. 143). In relation to teacher education, Shulman (1996) identifies four principles characteristic of effective learning: agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community.

Considering the work of Wertsch (1991, 1998), it seems that in order to implement these principles, a change in classroom discourse is called for. Wertsch claims that “studies of classroom discourse have yielded some general evidence that suggest the existence of fairly standard and rigid speech genres” (p. 120) which support knowledge transfer. According to Wertsch, a considerable body of research, including Flanders (1970), Mehan (1979), Cazden (2001), Wortham (1994) and Nystrand (1997), describes traditional models of education in accord with the knowledge-transfer approach.

Cazden (2001); Goodlad, Mantle-Bronley and Goodlad (2004); Oakes (2012) all show that teachers in general not only do the majority of the talking in the classroom, but that they also use language in a controlling way (authoritative discourse), exemplified in the research (Nystrand, Gamoran, & Heck, 1993) by the use of “inauthentic or test questions”—questions to which the teacher has a pre-specified answer.

The term inauthentic denotes interaction which emulates[7] (Tomasello, 1999) what normally takes place outside classroom situations but is deprived of its original purpose:

it is staged. In most contexts other than classrooms, knowing the answer to a question would normally defeat the purpose of asking such question. Non-classroom interactions are seen as authentic in the sense that there is an authentic spontaneously emerging purpose for these to take place.

Inauthentic questions "seem to have little positive impact on students' learning and achievement", whereas "even a very small number of authentic questions is associated with positive student outcome" (Wertsch, 1998, p. 123). Nystrand (1997) points out that authoritative discourse and inauthentic interaction are associated with the organization of the power balance in the classroom and contribute to classroom dynamics which preclude assigning "significant and serious epistemic roles to students that the students themselves can value" (Nystrand, 1997, p. 72 in Wertsch 1998, p. 212).

Studies carried out since the early 1990s to investigate alternatives to the authoritative model of 'classroom architecture', aiming at facilitating the assignment of more significant epistemic roles to learners, have highlighted "reciprocal teaching" (Palincsar & Brown, 1984, 1988). In this approach, "students as well as teachers take on the role of guiding other members of a group through the process required to understand texts" (Wertsch, 1998, p. 125). Experimental work (Palincsar et al., 1993) with reading and listening comprehension showed that small group dynamics which grant learners the opportunity to participate meaningfully in guided discussion can lead to learners' improvement in performance.

Palincsar et al. (1993) report on the summarized results of over ten years of research in reciprocal teaching in mainstream education, and claim that on average, from a score of approximately 30% correct on text comprehension assessments, students' scores rose to between 75% and 80%, on four to five consecutive assessments, after a minimum of 25 instructional days, in 80% of the cases. In some particular instances, results are even more

impressive than the average suggests. Palincsar and Brown (1984, p. 125 in Wertsch, 1998, p. 127), referring to a study carried out with year 8 and 9 students, wrote:

> From their baseline performance of 15% correct, they improved during training (reciprocal teaching) to accuracy levels of 85%, levels they maintained when the intervention was terminated. Even after a 6-month delay, the students averaged 60% correct without help, and it only took 1 day of renewed reciprocal teaching to return them to the 85% level achieved during training (p. 125).

In terms of language teacher education, it appears that it would be profitable to encourage novice teachers to adopt a classroom discourse which enables meaningful epistemic roles for their learners, which Wertsch (1998) calls dialogic discourse, instead of an authoritative discourse which seems to maintain knowledge transfer. Also, following Nystrand (1997), it appears that the organization of the power balance in the classroom needs restructuring, in order to implement the four principles of effective learning (Shulman, 1996).

Finally, there seems to be the need to strengthen the correlation between what takes place in LTE programmes and what novice teachers are encouraged to promote in their future classrooms. Considering Crookes and Lehner (1989) who report that, while involved in a traditional university course on critical pedagogy, “problems arose because the pedagogical processes and classroom interactions of the course were at odds with its content” (p. 321), it seems appropriate to suggest that LTE programmes promote classroom dynamics consistent with those the course encourages novice teachers to promote in their future classrooms.

Given the relevance of Shulman’s four principles of effective learning to both LTE programme and language classroom contexts, it seems that these principles could be used to promote the stronger correlation suggested above between the practices implemented in LTE and those which novice teachers are expected to implement in their own classrooms, by implementing these four principles in LTE and encouraging novice teachers to do the same in their future classroom.

4.5.2 Difficulties in the transition from teacher training to teacher education

Applying the ideas discussed above to LTE may prove problematic at first, due to the effects of a well-established educational culture in which experts deliver knowledge to learners, who passively receive and acquire "education". Morris (2003) reports on an experimental course in grammar, part of a teacher education programme, in which Shulman's four principles were applied.

According to Morris, novice teachers were uneasy about having to rely on their own knowledge, and highly sceptical of the validity of the methodology applied, even after being told about the approach underlying the project. Novices believed that the instructor knew grammar and they did not, and therefore it would be logical for the instructor to deliver the knowledge in a teacher-centric fashion. It took more than half of the course for some novice teachers to start to realise that "they were actually learning to think about grammatical problems and work out solutions on their own" (p. 114).

4.5.3 Mainstream traditional models reviewed

Amongst the array of different courses offered to pre-service TESOL teachers, CELTA stands out, due to its broad implementation, run at 286 centres in 54 countries, and the impact it has as a worldwide model of pre-service TESOL courses. Brandt (2006) carried out a qualitative review of the methodology of initial TESOL courses, using the Cambridge Certificate of English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA), and identified 26 critical issues, many related to teaching practice. Brandt points out that these courses generally adopt an "expert-directed, subordinating, replicating, and dependent approach, which does not seem to lead to the desired outcomes."

The author identifies an emphasis on performance—"replicating and demonstrating technique" (p. 361), and suggests that the conception of learning how to teach be shifted from the "being told transfer approach […] towards a finding out or transformative

approach" (p. 362). According to Brandt, LTE programmes should adopt an approach which builds on existing knowledge, allows for different learning styles, offers opportunity for problem solving, promotes autonomy and reflection (Tusting & Barton, 2006 in Brandt, 2006, p. 362).

4.5.4 Recent proposals

Larsen-Freeman & Cameron (2008a), Larsen-Freeman (2010), De Bot & Larsen-Freeman (2011), among others, make the case for a view of language as a complex dynamic system, which case has enormous implications for language teaching and learning, and language teacher education. In this view, language structure and its use are understood as interconnected and inseparable. Language resources simultaneously inform language use and change in response to how language is used.

Several studies conducted recently have pointed out the relevance and explanatory power of this view of language in relation to language education. Features such as non-linearity, context dependency, interconnectedness, and dynamism have been shown to be crucial in understanding what happens in the language classroom (Feryok, 2012; Burns and Knox, 2011; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a).

Non-linearity refers to the mismatch between input and output. This basically means that the level of effort and amount of time participants dedicate to the activity of language teaching and learning is not directly proportional to how successfully the process takes place. Since environmental conditions, such as quality and availability of materials, and the physical setting of the school, are an interactive part of the classroom, and vary from one context to another, from a complex dynamic system perspective, the teaching-learning processes are context dependent.

All the variables in language teaching and learning impact on the processes and on one another: they are interconnected. This is not limited to the physical space of the

classroom, because variables such as participants' personal lives and sociocultural background also impact on teaching and learning. Since these variables are dynamic—they are constantly changing—the whole set of variables co-adapt in response to such changes.

Burns and Knox (2011) present a model in which the language classroom is conceptualized "as a convergence of different elements which stretch beyond the temporal and spatial location of a given classroom, and which combine in dynamic relationships" (p. 2). Their model captures some of the interactive variables that impact on language teaching and learning.

Figure 1, below, shows Burns & Knox's model.

Considering the complexity of the interactions taking place in the language classroom, Burns and Knox (2011) point out the impact of understanding the language classroom as a complex dynamic system in LTE:

> This dialectic extends also to classrooms (physical and virtual) where teacher education takes place, and following this research project we incorporated a problem-based approach into our teacher-education course, in which students drew on their own teaching contexts and collectively investigated ways in which SFL [systemic functional linguistics] could be applied. This is one way in which teachers' professional contexts can be integrated in the teacher education classroom, and the complexity of classrooms can be explored in relation to new subject knowledge (p. 18)

4.5.5 The Sociocultural turn in Human Sciences and LTE

Johnson (2006) called for a reform of LTE, in order to respond to socio-cultural, socio-political and socio-economic changes that have occurred in the world over the past 40 years. According to Johnson, the perception of the work of language teachers held by the language teaching community has changed dramatically in the past 40 years. This change is reflected in the adoption of a new paradigm to replace positivism in education—the interpretative paradigm, which she believes to be "better suited to explain the

complexities of teachers' mental lives" (p. 236). By the expression "teachers' mental lives", she refers to what teachers believe, know, think and feel.

Johnson (2006) explores this socio-cultural turn in the human sciences and its impact on LTE. She adopts the notion that human learning is defined as a dynamic social activity, situated in physical and social contexts.

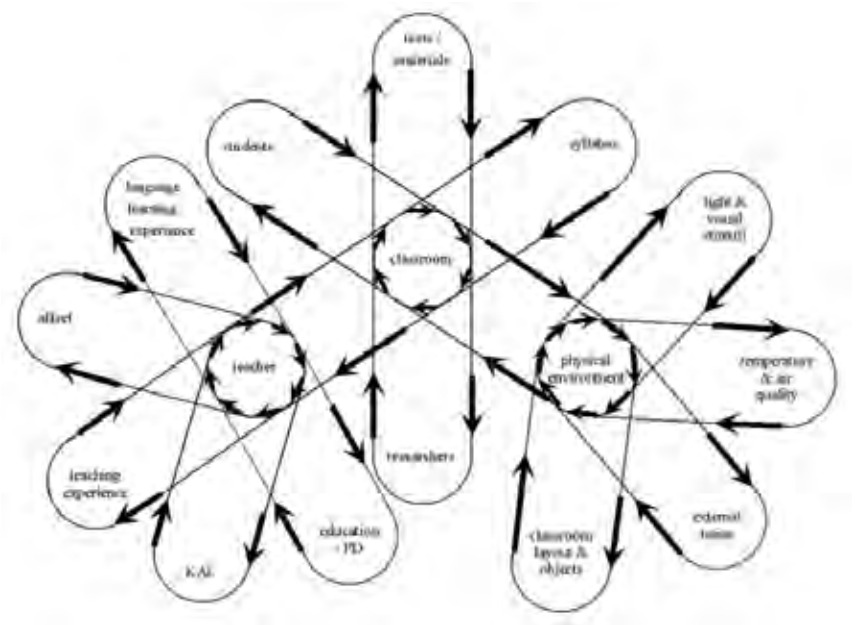


Figure 1

This implies that learning is not the result of direct instruction, or the absorption of knowledge from the outside in, but the outcome of a gradual transformation of external socially mediated activity into internal meditational control by the learner, which impacts on the learner and the activity (Vygotsky, 1987). Johnson proposes four challenges that need to be met in order to reorient LTE: resolve the theory/practice issue, establish the legitimacy of teachers' ways of knowing, redraw the boundaries of professional development, and develop a plan for situated LTE.

4.5.6 The case for Social Constructivism in LTE

Burley & Pomphrey (2002, 2003) present a social constructivist model of LTE, centred in the use of linguistic and cultural diversity to understand the teaching and learning of languages which they call "intercomprehension". According to these authors, Social

Constructivism offers the best framework for LTE, because of its recognition of the interdependency of the personal and social dimensions of teacher development. Their approach is based on the use of personal narratives to aid in the construction of professional identity which is a social dimension of teacher development.

Mantero (2004) also bases his model of LTE on Social Constructivism. He views education as the result of the "gathering of minds within participating communities", which "entails the process of engaging the mind to learn" (p. 146), as opposed to simply being the outcome of instruction. Also, the construction of professional identity is a strong feature of Montero's model, which relies on the simultaneous interaction of novice teachers with four areas of discourse: LTE curriculum, LTE profession, the language classroom, and the language teaching community. This interaction is promoted through the participation in mediated activities designed to allow co-construction of meaning, the appropriation of information, reflection and identity formation.

A socially-constructed model of learning and apprenticeship is proposed in Hedgcock (2002), aimed at developing novice teachers' knowledge-construction practices, which would enable them to explore, understand and—when appropriate—challenge the values and practices of experienced language teacher practitioners. Hedgcock embraces the shift from teacher training to teacher education. Teacher education, he believes, values novices' beliefs and prior experiences, and aims at developing novices' understanding of language teaching through reflection and integration into the community's discourse, in so doing achieving status as legitimate practitioners.

4.6 Context-sensitive LTE

Perhaps one of the most important characteristics of modern LTE programmes is context-sensitivity (Rajagopalan, 2005; Canagarajah, 2002, 2005; Lin et al., 2005). This characteristic is based upon the notion that different contexts offer unique opportunities for the development of language teaching and learning, and require unique solutions to

problems. Each particular setting is also subject to a series of parameters not to be found in other settings. In addition, they all argue, the fact that the implementation of an approach has been successful, or otherwise, in any given context, offers no guarantee that its use would lead to similar outcomes elsewhere. Therefore, it would seem profitable, if not essential, to take the contextual uniqueness of each setting into consideration when developing LTE programmes (Lo, 2005).

4.6.1 Considering the impact of social factors in LTE

Context-sensitive LTE is a result of the awareness in the second language field of the importance of social aspects in teaching and learning. In order to maximise the chances of success in the language classroom, LTE programmes should aim at preparing novice language teachers to adapt to the conditions of the particular settings where they will be teaching after they graduate. If nothing else, awareness of context sensitivity, and a focus on how adequately LTE takes into account the target contexts, would prevent LTE programmes from being implemented blindly, and destined to failure (Rajagopalan, 2005; Canagarajah, 2005).

Rubdy (2000) investigates the potential impact of socio-cultural factors on the success or failure of educational projects. This study is based on a means analysis, as opposed to a needs analysis, of the target context; analysis of the existing local features, structure, conditions, and practices and on the use of participative methodology and evaluation. According to Rubdy, the shift from needs analysis to means analysis enables language teaching specialists to separate features of the target “ecosystem” according to whether they are immutable problems, flexible elements or exploitable features. The aim is to use the latter two elements to positive effect.

The participative methodology and evaluation is based on an authentic dialogue between specialists and local subjects to investigate how their ideas could productively be turned into practice and to determine ways and instruments to evaluate the results of the project.

Rubdy's study argues that context sensitivity can be a key factor in the success of LTE programmes.

4.6.2 Not considering the impact of social factors in LTE

Ignoring the importance of target contexts in LTE can lead to unfavourable results. Lo (2005) reports on the case of a Taiwanese TESOL teacher undertaking a Master's LTE programme in North America, which included a course in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Her in-depth case study set out to investigate the relevance of particular knowledge of Second Language Acquisition for TESOL teachers across different contexts and language backgrounds.

The study showed that the mismatch of theoretical orientation, methodological preferences, and reading materials preferences, between the lecturer conducting the course in SLA and the teacher taking it, led to adverse results. After the completion of the course, the teacher went back to Taiwan, and felt that the knowledge she had developed during the course was irrelevant to her work.

Breen (2001) explores the influence of different sociocultural aspects on the language classroom, such as participants' "personal purposes, attitudes, and preferred ways of doing things" (p. 126). He highlights the importance of considering each context's particular social conditions and claims that mainstream research in second language acquisition is asocial. "It neglects the social significance of even those variables which the investigator regards as central" (p. 125). He proposes a metaphor to define the language classroom which encompasses "both cognitive and social variables": the classroom as culture.

Breen envisions the language classroom as "devoted to the discovery and development of a new language and its use" (p. 137). In practical terms, classroom dynamics need to be construed by all participants as a social exercise, through the inclusion and active

participation of all (Breen, 2001). Thus, as has been argued by many scholars in this area, including the impact of social factors in LTE is crucial to the development of effective LTE programmes. Omitting a focus on the impact of these factors will deliver a less than successful programme.

4.7 Non-native English speakers in TESOL

Non-native English speaker (NNES) teachers have been a strong presence in TESOL for many decades (Chagas, 1967; Machado, Campos, & Saunders, 2006), teaching mainly in their home countries, but also internationally, although on a smaller scale. “In many areas of the world, the vast majority of English language teachers are non-native speakers of English” (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004, p. 157). The number of NNES teaching English worldwide was estimated in 1999 to sum 80% of all TESOL teachers (Canagarajah, 1999). With the rapid expansion of English as a second language throughout the world, the participation of NNES in the TESOL industry internationally is expected to rise (Wright, 2010), in answer to market forces. Pasternak and Bailey (2004) highlight the fact that “the demand for English classes in both ESL and EFL settings far outweighs the supply of so-called native teachers” (p. 156).

4.7.1 The negative image of NNES TESOL teachers

However, NNES teachers in the TESOL field have often been perceived in a negative light, by native and non-native speakers alike. The belief, largely held in the past, was that native speakers were inherently superior teachers of their mother tongue to NNS; this has relatively recently started to be reassessed (Phillipson, 1992).

No scientific evidence to support the notion that native speakers are better teachers of their mother tongues seems to have been found (Canagarajah, 1999), and this notion has increasingly been labelled “the native speaker fallacy”. The expression was coined by Phillipson (1992) and is used by Nemtchinova (2005), Pasternak & Bailey (2004), Braine

(1999), and Canagarajah (1999), amongst others, to denounce the inaccuracy of the idea of native speaker superiority as teachers of their native language.

4.7.2 The qualities of NNES TESOL teachers

It has been recognised that NNES are capable of providing good teaching, and are the possessors of qualities and skills that can aid their work as TESOL teachers (Nemtchinova, 2005). Studies have been published which show that NNES TESOL teachers have many strengths, amongst which may be: "grammaticality and idiomaticity in English, multilingual and multicultural resources" (Nemtchinova, 2005, p. 235).

Additionally, the experience of having consciously learned English is often perceived as an advantage by the teaching community, and some claim it makes non-native speakers better qualified to teach the language than those who are born to it (Phillipson, 1992 in Braine, 1999; Nemtchinova, 2005).

4.7.3 The search for better education by NNES

In addition, NNES teachers seem to be seeking more adequate TESOL education, and many are going to English speaking countries which have strong traditions in TESOL, and enrolling in LTE programmes (Liu, 1999). In 1999, the number of NNES enrolled in TESOL teacher education programmes in Australia, Britain and North America was estimated to amount to 40% of the total (Liu, 1999). There is no indication to suggest that these numbers have decreased; it is likely that they are currently even higher.

4.7.4 The response of LTE programmes to NNES

However, despite the fact that scholars have recognized NNESs' particular needs and conducted studies to explore ways to adapt TESOL programmes in order to better serve NNESs (Flowerdew, 1999; Murdoch, 1994; Medgyes, 1999; Liu 1999; Pasternak &

Bailey, 2004; Carrier, 2003), mainstream TESOL programmes have failed to address the specific needs and interests of NNES novice teachers (Liu, 1999).

Liu (1999), for instance, asserts that NNES have been neglected in LTE, because language teacher educators have failed to recognise their specific needs. According to Liu, meeting NNES needs has posed a great challenge to LTE programmes and, by neglecting NNES novice teachers, language teacher educators are neglecting the millions of students these novices would be teaching after they graduate. Liu claims that LTE is currently rooted in ethnocentric ideologies and methodological dogmatism which serve linguistic imperialism—"an effort to spread Western values and maintain existing power through language education" (Liu, 1999, p. 199).

Liu acknowledges that few language educators would consciously embrace this agenda, but insists that the ethnocentric ideology, or the maintenance of the one-way flow of information from centre, knowledge-producing countries to peripheral, knowledge-consuming countries in LTE ultimately aids linguistic imperialism. More importantly, the export of dogmatic theories and methodologies from centre to periphery disregards the importance of contextual forces, and can render LTE ineffective (Canagarajah, 2005a)

5 Summary

Extracted from the literature on language teacher education reviewed above, the most relevant basic issues with which this study is concerned are outlined: the theory–practice divide in Language Teacher Education, which contributes to a communication gap between researchers and practitioners; the lack of a common body of knowledge for TESOL, which impacts severely on the design and content of LTE programmes; the issue of internal consistency in LTE programmes which generally do not reflect the practices and dynamics they suggest participants adopt for their classrooms; the issue of context-sensitivity, which is not sufficiently accounted for in LTE; the issue of non-native English

speaker TESOL teachers, which needs to be addressed more appropriately in LTE programmes; and the impact of these and other attendant issues in the language classroom.

Within this complex context it is certainly too ambitious a project to set out in a quest for specific solutions for each of these multifaceted issues. However, it is possible to tease out strategies from the literature reviewed here, which might be used to address the issues which permeate the work of many scholars referred to above. Some of their ideas and strategies they propose are used in the next chapter in the construction of a tentative model of LTE, aimed at addressing the basic issues identified above.

---

[5] "Modern languages" refer to languages which are currently in use, as opposed to classical languages such as Latin and Ancient Greek.

[6] This might not be the case with the Grammar Translation method, due to the dependency of the teachers on the prescriptions which constitute the method.

[7] Emulation is a practice in which the outcome of the task is what matters most, as opposed to the specific way in which the task is carried out. Imitation is a process in which importance is placed on the particular way the activity is completed, as well as on the end result of the activity. Emulation presupposes awareness and understanding of goals, but not means. Imitation requires awareness and understanding of both goals and means. It is a potentially transformative process, in which the action can be repeated several times, at different stages, with the objective of perfecting it until the individual is satisfied. As the process requires conscious awareness of both means and goals, imitation can build on the latest stage of the imitator's performance, instead of the original observed action. This can lead to transformation and development of the original action.

Chapter II

The Self-Adaptive Model of LTE

1 Introduction

In this chapter, a Self-Adaptive Model of Language Teacher Education (LTE) is outlined, as a means of addressing the research question: to what extent, if any, does the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impact on participants' classroom behaviour?

In section 2, the guiding principles of the model are listed. In section 3, the development of the model is discussed. In section 4, the structure of the course through which the model is implemented, henceforth the LTE course, is presented. In section 5, the curriculum of the Self-Adaptive Model is discussed. In section 6, the syllabus which emerged as part of the LTE course in the implementation is presented. The main ideas of the chapter are summarized in section 7.

2 Guiding principles of the model: complementarity, dynamism and self-adaptation

The essential guiding principles of the model are complementarity, dynamism and self-adaptation. These emerge from the synergy among ideas from the literature review, such as the complexity of knowledge, and the sociocultural character of learning, and others such as fractals, which are discussed below.

'Complexity of knowledge' is a view of knowledge as a dynamic concept under constant transformation. As individuals engage in a multitude of activities, they rely on their

existing body of knowledge to guide their participation in such activities. However, what individuals know is simultaneously being transformed through their participation in such activities, to incorporate new experiences. Ultimately, knowledge guides human engagement in the world and is transformed as a result of this engagement. Humans are constantly learning and reshaping what they know.

The sociocultural character of learning emerges from how humans engage in learning activities. Individuals use sociocultural artefacts, such as language, to participate in activities which can lead to the development of knowledge. These activities often involve collective participation, and are guided by more experienced participants, although not necessarily so.

Fractals (Mandelbrot, 1983) are structures which reproduce similar patterns of organization at a multitude of levels. For instance, a tree, which exhibits the same basic design observed in a single leaf throughout its entire body, e.g. in the various sizes of branches and the tree as a whole. From the concept of fractals emerges the idea of reproducing the organization suggested for the LTE classroom in the language classroom.

2.1 Complementarity

From the synergy among these three concepts—complexity of knowledge, the sociocultural character of learning, and fractals—we can derive the idea that the role of all participants in educational settings and their contributions are mutually determinant of the outcome: learning. If knowledge is complex (constantly changing), people learn by doing things together (sociocultural) and teachers' and students' knowledge is self-similar (fractals), teachers' and learners' roles complement one another. This is expressed here as the principle of complementarity.

In the context of this study, education is seen as a complex dynamic system. One fundamental aspect of complex dynamic systems is that these systems are believed to be

fractal structures (Mandelbrot, 1983)—they reproduce the same basic organizational patterns on a multitude of levels, from macro to micro—but become increasingly complex at each smaller level.

Consequently, the education system is seen here as a multilayered system, which follows particular dynamics at each layer, emerging from these layers level of complexity and depending on the specific conditions present at any given time. Understanding the different levels of complexity and the specific dynamics exhibited by the system at each particular layer is crucial to the successful implementation of educational projects. It is proposed here that this is achieved through an understanding of the amalgam of two modalities or strata of knowledge: macro or "general expert knowledge"—understanding the system in general, and micro or "specific local knowledge"—understanding a particular layer of the system.

Complementarity refers to the need for learners' and teachers' particular kinds of knowledge to be combined, in order to allow each kind of knowledge to activate the other. Inbuilt in this principle is the idea that both kinds of knowledge, that of the teacher and that of the learner, are equally important and indispensable. In the model, the LTE classroom architecture is based on the idea of complementarity. This emphasises the complementariness of these two different kinds of knowledge, and addresses a number of issues identified in the literature (see particularly Chapter I, section 4.3).

If Second Language Education (SLE) is considered as a system, LTE may be seen as a macro level layer, and second language teaching and learning as a micro level layer of this system. In the context of this study, the concept of fractals entails that the LTE classroom architecture resemble that proposed for the second language classroom, and that it incorporate the principles promoted by the Self-Adaptive Model. For SLE to be a fractal, both the LTE classroom and the second language classroom have to be analogously organized.

2.2 Dynamism

The principle of dynamism is evident in the way existing knowledge and learning are mutually determined and constantly changing. The notion of dynamism is derived from the interaction between these three concepts: fractals, complexity of knowledge and the sociocultural character of learning.

The concept of complexity of knowledge states that knowledge is dynamic: i.e., knowledge is dialectic or ever changing. According to Wells (1999), knowledge evolves from existing prior knowledge, through a process referred to as "the process of coming to know" (see Chapter I, section 4.5.1).

The process of coming to know is rooted in sociocultural practices. This is in line with Vygotsky's views of the educational process: people learn by doing things together; all that is essentially needed to promote learning is social interaction amongst a group of individuals, guided by a more experienced participant, working in the direction of knowledge construction (Vygotsky, 1986).

"Coming to know" involves the development of hypotheses, based on new information, which, after investigation and testing, informed by existing knowledge, leads to the construction of new knowledge by the individual. The resultant knowledge is not transferable, since it emerges from an individualized process: it is not the outcome of the process which constitutes knowledge, but the undergoing of the process oneself.

As knowledge needs to be built upon existing knowledge, individuals' previous knowledge is crucial to the learning process. The content proposed for knowledge construction, what the individuals are learning, and the individuals' prior knowledge, what participants already know, are constantly restructuring one another and are equally important and necessary to the learning process.

Through social engagement, individuals can constantly update and reshape their knowledge. The process of knowledge construction (Wells, 1999) is thus characterised as dialectic (never-ending) and sociocultural in nature. Existing knowledge is always called upon to process new information, in a way which can lead to both the construction of new knowledge on the basis of the information being processed, and the re-evaluation and transformation of existing knowledge, simultaneously.

2.3 Self-adaptation

The principle of self-adaptation takes into account the uniqueness of particular learning contexts. According to this principle it is crucial that the teaching-learning process is constructed flexibly to adapt in response to the specificities of each particular context.

Considering that the outcome of learning in formal educational settings derives from the interplay among participants in sociocultural classroom activities, and is mutually determined by all participants, as the principle of complementarity states; and that the character of learning is transformational, given that existing knowledge and learning are mutually determined and constantly changing, as the principle of dynamism states; it seems evident that classroom practices need to be flexible in order to accommodate change.

If the focus of classroom activities shifts from outcomes exclusively to include processes, then it is expected that participation in these activities will promote change to the teaching learning process and to the activities themselves.

Bearing in mind that teaching and learning take place in a multitude of different contexts, which comprise unique individuals and specific sociocultural configurations, different groups of participants would set in motion changes to the teaching learning process in accord with the particular specificities of their own contexts, and therefore the kinds of changes would not be unvaried. This requires flexibly organized education settings where

classroom dynamics respond to participants' input and environmental conditions, described here as the principle of self-adaptation.

2.4 The enabling environment

For the implementation of the model to be viable, a set of necessary conditions has to be satisfied. These conditions, without which the model is not sustainable, are described here as authenticity, meaningful roles for learners, balance of power between teacher and learners and self-regulation or homeostasis.

Wertsch (1998) and Palincsar and Brown (1984) among many others, show that classroom interactions are often not authentic ways of coming to know: they are staged, and focussed exclusively on ends. Activities are performed as routines rather than implemented as processes: 'emulation' rather than 'imitation' (see Tomasello 1999 for a deeper discussion of the concepts). This is due to the roles traditionally assigned to the teacher and the learners, according to a metaphor in which teachers are the possessors and learners the recipients of knowledge. In such a picture, classroom dynamics are tightly controlled by the teacher, and fail to afford learners a meaningful epistemic role. The enabling environment entails creating an alternative classroom architecture, based on new roles for the teacher and the learners.

If the principles of complementarity, dynamism and self-adaptation are observed, we expect that the classroom architecture afford authenticity in classroom interactions. If classroom interactions are authentic, it is expected that classroom dynamics enable participants to play meaningful roles. Playing a meaningful role entails active participation, which in turn is expected to lead to a fairer power balance between teacher and learners. The combination of these conditions in action is expected to result in classroom dynamics which afford self-regulation.

2.5 Features of the model

Based on the conceptual considerations above, the crucial features to be incorporated in the model are: (1) self-adaptation—the model is designed to facilitate the co-construction of the course by participants; (2) validation of participants' knowledge—it facilitates the interaction of universal, general knowledge and local, specific knowledge; (3) the fostering of agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community (Shulman, 1996), believed to be principles characteristic of effective learning; (4) the promotion of the shift from the knowledge-transfer approach to a knowledge-construction one; (5) simultaneous informing and apprenticeship of participants; (6) suitable applicability to the context in which it is implemented.

3 The development of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE

In order to address the research question of the study: "to what extent, if any, does the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impact on participants' classroom behaviour?" all the major issues related to the development of the model and its implementation are addressed below.

3.1 Description of the model

The model implemented here is intended as a complex dynamic system (Van Gelder, 1998; De Bot, Verspoor, & Lowie, 2005; De Bot, 2008) in which the course facilitator and language teachers are considered to be the elements.

In the case study itself, the model is implemented in a particular context. The course offered to the teachers is centred on an integrative approach to learning, based on problem solving exercises, and reliant on the natural dialectic emerging from such activities. It is designed to assist participants in identifying practical or philosophical problems relevant

to their teaching contexts and to suggest tools to be used in the construction of possible solutions.

Participants are encouraged to assist one another in this problem-solving process. After an initial discussion of a problem, participants can divide themselves into groups or not, according to participants' positions in relation to the problem or the tools to be used in the pursuit of solutions, or any other criterion agreed upon by the group.

The problems are characterized by hurdles to the teaching/learning process, identified by participants, according to their own experience, or suggested by the facilitator. All participants are seen as contributors, and what is included in the discussions and what is left out is under the control of the group.

Since the elements in this system are human, there are major forces at play at the macro level, which impact on collective behaviour, and at micro level, which impact on individual behaviour. In this system, the course facilitator introduces the principles of the model, intended to function as general aims toward which the system is expected to move, considered to be macro level forces. Participants are expected to contrast these aims with their personal expectations, and derive individual aims, considered here to be micro level forces.

The initial set of "evolution rules" or rules of engagement, described here as the classroom architecture, which regulates the processes through which the system evolves, is proposed by the course facilitator and discussed by the group. After the participants agree about the initial procedure, the system is freed to self-regulate and self-adapt.

As with all complex dynamic systems, behaviour emanates from the interaction of its elements. In this particular case, the behaviour of the teachers as a group emanates from classroom dynamics, understood here as the result of individual actions of each teacher in relation or in response to the actions of others. All participants are free to feed the system with disturbances (personal contributions) at any point. Provided the disturbances are

naturally emerging occurrences and are contextually relevant, they are expected to be assimilated by the system. By assimilating participants' contributions, the group considers a number of variables, which might be accepted, rejected, or recycled. This process determines the evolution of the system and is crucially influenced by micro level forces, such as the teachers' intentional behaviour.

The course facilitator monitors emergent behavioural patterns, and may interact directly with the system, through the use of disturbances. This creates the possibility of guiding the system in a certain direction, as well as the chance to test assumptions and evaluate the impact of the disturbances. The facilitator may also choose to let the system interact freely and note its behaviour, keep notes of perturbations and map the system's trajectory, to feed the information back to the system at a later stage, and monitor its reaction.

4 Course structure

The course runs the length of one academic semester, with two contact hours per week. The sessions follow a workshop format. The central topic is introduced by the course facilitator, who, along with other participants responds to questions and gives further explanations if necessary. Thereafter, general discussion, group work and feedback are likely to ensue.

Apart from contact during the formal time set aside for the workshops, participants are encouraged to communicate through an online forum (See appendix 6 for a sample of participants' online activity), in order to express their concerns, preferences, doubts, suggestions, opinions, and share their experiences. This is designed to amplify the discussions, which can thus be carried on continuously, and integrated into ongoing practice.

Participants can choose to protect their identity in the forum, and are encouraged to do so, through the use of codenames. This creates a safe environment and encourages

participation, freeing participants from personal concerns such as shyness or fear of being wrong. Each participant is asked to create a codename and an email address, which can be used to communicate with course facilitators or other participants privately and anonymously. Course facilitators are entitled to post the content of any email received from participants in the online forum, as issues are not regarded as personal and participants' identities are protected.

Reading material is available online; course participants are invited to download and read material prior to each workshop. Participants are free to start the discussions at any point through the forum. They can post questions, check their understanding of proposals and concepts, ask for clarifications, express opinions, and make any contributions they feel are relevant.

The content is divided into independent blocks, which may include one or several domain areas. The blocks are built up in each course by the participants in each group according to their view of each domain's importance, time requirement, relevance, and interest. The first meeting is reserved for an inaugural introductory session, with a presentation about the project, to clarify goals, present the theoretical underpinnings on which the course is based and explain the project's implementation. Forms and other documents are signed, online procedures explained, and participation confirmed.

The order of the blocks is irrelevant, except in the case of General Pedagogical Knowledge and Pedagogical Content Knowledge, which are presented in the order they appear here (See Table 2, section 6.2). This creates the opportunity for the group to choose in which order they want to address the domains according to their priorities. It alleviates the time pressure, because if any domain is not covered during the course, it does not impact severely on the implementation, due to the blocks being independent, and the order being prioritized by participants. Also, if the online community of practice is

successful, any issue left undiscussed for the duration of the course can be addressed by the community, either during the period of the course or afterwards.

5 The Curriculum of the Self-Adaptive Model

5.1 Introduction

The widespread traditional curricula of LTE courses reviewed in this study seem to share a number of basic common problems, amongst which are: a prescriptive authoritarian model based on the replication of expert performance; lack of context sensitivity; lack of consistency (see Chapter I, section 4.5.3); reinforcement and repetition of the knowledge-transfer approach; failure to adequately prepare language teachers; adoption of a training rather than educational approach to teacher preparation (Brandt, 2006). This "training" carries through into practices in the language classroom, which follow long established and much criticized patterns.

Whereas it seems illogical or counter-intuitive to design a teacher education programme without having a precise idea about what specific content the language teachers are to teach, how they are to teach this content, and what they need to know to be able to teach it well, in the particular case of Language Teacher Education, trying to establish precisely what each of these fundamentals should comprise yields no easy answers.

5.2 What should language teachers teach?

Identifying what exactly language teachers should teach is a considerable challenge. This issue has been discussed for at least two centuries. On the one hand, the content to be taught has been highly influenced by the methodology applied; on the other hand, methodology has been developed to suit specific content. Different methods and approaches, developed since the 1800s, from Grammar Translation to the Communicative Approach, required particular types of syllabi (Richards, 2001).

Notably, in language teaching, the idea of universality in syllabus design has prevailed. The focus of more modern approaches to curriculum design, such as the Task Based Approach and Needs Analysis Approach is not on the actual learners, but on idealised stereotypical learners, and the idea that curricula can be universally applicable to all learners still predominates in practice as of the time of writing (2013). For instance, we see the dissemination of syllabi produced in ANTEK[8] countries throughout the world, accompanied by their prescribed methodologies. These packages have established a stronghold in curriculum design which still prevails (Brandt, 2006).

Currently, however, in 2013, research in the field of curriculum development in TESOL has advanced and has incorporated more complex ways of thinking about curriculum development, such as means analysis (Rubdy, 2000) and context sensitivity (Rubdy, 2000; Rajagopalan, 2005; Canagarajah, 2002, 2005; Lin et al., 2005). Using means analyses entails that programme development should take into account not only the specific needs of the target group, but also the specificities of the target context and the means available to teachers and learners.

Context sensitivity requires that local stakeholders be respected and included in the process of programme development. Emerging from means analyses and a focus on context sensitivity is the clear requirement for an amalgam of local knowledge and universal knowledge in curriculum design. In this worldview, without the participation of the people directly involved in the implementation of the programme, designing a curriculum would not be possible.

It is, of course, possible, and perhaps necessary, to investigate whether there are common areas of knowledge and skills pertaining to language learning. Bachman and Palmer (1996), for instance, have proposed that what language learners need to know in order to use the language might be divided into separate domains of knowledge, such as sociolinguistic knowledge, grammatical knowledge and pragmatic knowledge.

Exploring these domains of knowledge to inform Language Teacher Education offers language teacher educators a focus, while at the same time keeping the curriculum open to input from those taking part in LTE courses. In relation to the domain of content knowledge, the content itself need not necessarily be specified in terms of what items should be included, but could point to the language features to be explored.

Bachman & Palmer's (1996) model of language knowledge domains, designed for the purpose of proficiency evaluation, can also be used to inform language teaching, and is included in the curriculum proposed for LTE in the model discussed here, in relation to the domain of content knowledge (See Table 3, section 6.2.1).

5.3 How should language teachers teach?

The most recent trends in Language Teaching Methodology identified in research on LTE point in the direction of socially based methodology (See Chapter I for an extended discussion). The methodology used to implement this particular tentative model is socially based, and located within a specific approach towards Language Teacher Education and the sociocultural development of knowledge. The concept of the 'learning process' espoused here is described according to Shulman's (1996) four principles characteristic of effective learning: agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community (see Chapter I, section 4.5.1).

5.4 What do language teachers need to know?

As understood here, 'what teachers need to know' is a dynamic concept and dependent on the issues explored above in sections 5.2 and 5.3. Based on the principle of dynamism, the knowledge base to be included in the LTE course proposed here cannot be strictly specified, as it is dynamic in nature.

The knowledge base is deliberately under-specified because the essence of the model is its self-adaptability and context sensitivity. Instead of setting a rigid table of contents, which would preclude its co-construction by course participants, the initial requirement for any instantiation of the model is a flexible set of domains of knowledge that are negotiated on an ongoing basis by the participants. The collaboration with course participants is critical, to ensure the content is relevant to the target context, to validate course participants' knowledge background and experiences, and for the course to meet participants' expectations as much as is feasible.

The procedure for deciding on course content is thus designed to be inclusive, collaborative, and reflective, to permit course participants' co-construction of the ultimate content of the course. The diverse reflective contributions of each particular cohort of participants have the potential to impact differently on a course's final configuration. The potential for constant change is what characterizes the content of a course as dynamic.

The rationale for this design is based on three principles. First, as Kamhi-Stein (1999) points out, designing curricula that course participants perceive as relevant to their needs and interests is believed to increase participants' motivation. The collaboration of course participants in curriculum design is said to lead to better outcomes than those achieved by means of externally developed curricula, as it permits the incorporation of local social realities into the programme (Breen, 2001; Rubdy, 2000).

Second, the inclusion of course participants as co-authors of the programme avoids the perpetuation of the one-way flow of information from centre to periphery countries in TESOL LTE, which is thought by some to be counterproductive and to exacerbate linguistic imperialism (Liu, 1999; Canagarajah et al, 2002; Canagarajah, 2004; Pennycook, 2006). Additionally, programmes constructed in collaboration with participants are less likely to encounter resistance from the target community. Finally, this procedure is in line with the social-constructivist paradigm, the basis of a number of

recent studies in LTE (Hedgcock, 2002; Burley & Pomphrey, 2002, 2003; Mantero, 2004).

The course proposed here initially includes ten domain areas. Eight of these domains were identified and extracted from research previously discussed (Johnson, 2006; Mantero, 2004; B. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Shulman, 1987): content knowledge; general pedagogical knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; knowledge of learners; knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of educational ends; knowledge of educational context, and support knowledge. The remaining two domains, discourse knowledge and field specific knowledge, were identified based on the research of Muchisky & Yates (2004); Burley & Pomphrey (2002/2003); Hedgcock (2002); Northedge (2002); Geisler (1994).

In summary, the idea is that each of these domains be explored in collaboration with course participants to define its relevance to the context and to establish which topics, within each relevant domain, should be part of the content of the programme. The specific design of the course and its content entail an egalitarian relationship between course participants and facilitators, as the course is built conjointly by both.

Particularly in the case of in-service teachers, at least four of the domains proposed here can be seen as the knowledge strongholds of the participants: knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational ends, and knowledge of educational context. Course participants are considered to have expertise in these domains, whereas course facilitators are expected to learn from participants. In this model, then, one of the governing principles is parity among all the participants, including the facilitator.

A brief description of each domain area is given in Table 2, below, and constitutes a tentative initial syllabus for the Self-Adaptive Model.

6 The syllabus in the case study

In the case study, during the implementation of the model in Brazil, after an introduction to the project, the teachers were invited to elaborate the syllabus to be used in the course. This is in line with the aim of self-adaptability sought in the model, and constitutes evidence of the equivalence of participants' knowledge and the facilitator's knowledge.

6.1 The construction of the syllabus

After greeting the participants, and introducing himself, the researcher briefly explained the aims of the project and handed out the documents to be signed by the participants.

The teachers were introduced to the research project and invited to discuss the central ideas proposed in the course: the complementarity of participants' knowledge (including the facilitator), the dynamism of knowledge and the need for contextualization. Based on this discussion, the initial classroom architecture for the course was established by the group. The workshops were to be based on collaborative sharing of ideas and open discussions aimed at the construction of solutions to participants' perceived problems.

The researcher started a discussion about the specificities of the workshops, such as the language to be used, and about the content of the course by presenting a summary of the relevant findings from the survey questionnaire, and asking participants to discuss the findings, as those were going to be used to inform decisions about the course.

6.2 Domains of teacher knowledge

The teachers were presented with the tentative syllabus in Table 2, and asked to briefly discuss each domain. A discussion about what could be part of each domain was conducted. As a group, the teachers constructed a general description of each domain in relation to their specific context. They were then asked to decide which domains should be part of their course.

The participating teachers decided that the core content of the course should comprise the "general pedagogical knowledge" and "pedagogical content knowledge", understood respectively as knowing how teaching and learning occurs, and knowing how the teaching and learning of English occurs in the case of speakers of other languages.

Table 2 – Teachers' domains of knowledge

Content knowledge	Knowledge of the subject matter
General pedagogical knowledge	Knowledge of general teaching and learning theory and practice
Pedagogical content knowledge	Special knowledge of how to present particular content in a comprehensible way, informed both by pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge – developed through teaching practice
Knowledge of learners	Knowledge and understanding of learners' background, motivation, and social context
Knowledge of curriculum	Knowledge and understanding of the scaffolding of course content, of the particular abilities that students are expected to develop, of the rationale behind the curriculum's organization, of the core materials involved in teaching, of alternative aiding materials, and of the approach to teaching the curriculum is based on
Knowledge of educational enterprise	Purpose of educational institutions, their values, historical and philosophical grounds
Knowledge of educational context	Knowledge and understanding of particular socio-cultural and economic scenarios where teaching and learning takes place– contextual means analysis
Discourse knowledge	Familiarity with the field's specific jargon and understanding of specialist discourse, knowledge of peers' and learners' discourse
Field-specific knowledge	Understanding of the second language acquisition field in particular, and of parallel disciplines such as first language acquisition, applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, semiotics, language testing and evaluation, discourse analysis, history of methodological developments in TESOL
Support knowledge	Knowledge of complementary disciplines which are perceived as helpful to language teaching and learning, and issues which are relevant for the target context – learning psychology,

	pedagogy, NNES in TESOL

Table 2

These two domains, together with the knowledge of content, were chosen because the group perceived them as the most crucial part of the language teacher knowledge base. The participants agreed that, even though they considered knowledge of content to be essential to their work, it would not be feasible for this domain to be the focus of the course, due to its sheer volume and complexity. It was decided instead to briefly explore content knowledge as the initial topic, and to investigate what the domain would include, since the participants thought that the understanding of this domain held by the course facilitator and themselves would filter through the discussions on pedagogical content knowledge.

The areas of expertise of the participants were specified as the domains of: knowledge of learners, curriculum, educational enterprise and educational context. It was decided that their expertise in these domains should be used to ground the discussions in the course, rather than be the foci of discussions. The remaining domains: knowledge of discourse, field-specific and support knowledge were seen as subsidiary. The group decided that the development of these domains would be a consequence of the sharing of ideas, and that deeper knowledge would have to be constructed through further studies in specific areas and through personal experience.

The tables in the following sections show a summary of the topics discussed under each domain. See appendices 2, 3, 4 and 5 for an overview of the course schedule and a sample of PowerPoint slides used during the workshops in Brazil.

6.2.1 Content knowledge

For the cursory discussions on content knowledge, participants were given Bachman & Palmer's (1996) model of language knowledge domains, to develop a greater understanding of these language domains, and to construct for themselves a contextualized description of each domain.

Table 3, below, shows a summary of the topics initially proposed in regard to content knowledge.

Content knowledge (Based on Bachman & Palmer, 1996)
Organizational Knowledge
Grammatical Knowledge
Knowledge of vocabulary
Knowledge of syntax
Knowledge of phonology/graphology
Textual knowledge
Knowledge of cohesion
Knowledge of rhetorical and conversational organization
Pragmatic Knowledge
Knowledge of ideational functions
Knowledge of manipulative functions
Knowledge heuristic functions
Knowledge of imaginative functions
Sociolinguistic Knowledge
Knowledge of dialects/variety
Knowledge of registers
Knowledge of natural or idiomatic expressions
Knowledge of cultural references and figures of speech

Table 3

6.2.2 General pedagogical knowledge

Table 4, below, shows a summary of the reference material and topics discussed in regard to general pedagogical knowledge.

Reference material: Farrell, 2007; Flowerdew, 1999; Palincsar, Brown & Campione, 1993/1994, Richards, 1996; Shulman 1996; Wertsch, 1991/1998; Wells, 1999; Wells & Claxton, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a.
1. **The knowledge-transfer paradigm**: discussion about the validity of the belief that knowledge can be transferred from teachers to learners, its impact on educational practices, and about alternative beliefs to that of knowledge transfer.
2. **The knowledge construction paradigm**: discussion about the view of knowledge as a collectively constructed individual achievement, in line with Vygotsky (1987) and work based on the Soviet socio-historical tradition.
3. **Education as a complex dynamic system**: discussion about the proposed principles of complementarity, dynamism and self-adaptation.
4. **The learner as a system variable**: discussion about which variables related to learners play a part in the educational process guided by Kumaravadivelu's (2006) list of learning factors and processes.
5. **Classroom architecture**: discussion about how the classroom can be organized to foster knowledge construction and promote Shulman's (1996) principles of effective learning.
6. **The roles of teacher and learners**: discussion about the power balance between teacher and learners and the meaningfulness of the roles given to students in light of studies related to reciprocal teaching.
7. **Reflective practice**: discussion about the need for ongoing reflective practice to avoid stagnation and keep up with the dynamism of knowledge (Richards, 1996)

Table 4

6.2.3 Pedagogical content knowledge

Table 5, below, shows a summary of the reference material and topics discussed in regard to pedagogical content knowledge.

Reference material: Farrell, 2007; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Johnson, 2006; Borg, 2003/2006; Johnson, 2005 (ed); Weir, 2005; Tsui, 2003; Hiebert, Gallimore, & Stigler, 2002; B. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Zeichner, 1999; Flowerdew, 1999; Richards, 1996; Schon, 1995; Shulman, 1987.
1. **The amalgam of theoretical and practical knowledge**: discussion about how teachers derive pedagogical content knowledge from teaching experience in light of studies on practitioner knowledge (Johnson, 2006; Hiebert, Gallimore, & Stigler, 2002; B. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Zeichner, 1999; Schon, 1995; Shulman, 1987)
2. **Practitioners' beliefs and experiences**: discussion about apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 2002) and the role of teachers' beliefs in their classroom practices in light of studies on the culture of teaching (Farrell, 2007; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Flowerdew, 1999; Richards, 1996).
3. **Teaching strategies**: discussion about the development of expertise in teaching, planning, implementation and reflection (Tsui, 2003/2005).
4. **Individual skills teaching strategies**: discussions about how to teach each of the language macro skills, guided by the division of necessary resources into knowledge and strategies, and how to help learners develop expertise in each macro skill, informed by the research of Johnson, 2005 (language expertise), Goh, 2005 (listening), Wallace, 2005 (reading), Bygate, 2005 (speaking) and Weigle, 2005 (writing).
5. **The role of instructional materials**: Discussion about the selection, adaptation and design of teaching materials aimed at the contextualization of instructional materials.
6. **Testing and evaluation**: discussion about the aspects of validity in assessing students' development and the role of various testing instruments and techniques (Weir, 2005).

Table 5

7 Summary

In sum, in response to problematic issues identified in the literature on LTE, discussed in Chapter I, a Self-Adaptive Model of LTE is proposed here. In the model, course participants and the facilitator of the course are regarded as contributors of distinct, yet equally necessary, kinds of knowledge. The continuous amalgam of macro knowledge (instantiated by the proposed content of the course, based on the experience and theoretical expertise of the facilitator), and micro knowledge (instantiated by participants' contributions to the development of the course, based on their background knowledge, practical experience and familiarity with the local context), characterises the approach to knowledge proposed in this study, epitomising the model as self-adaptive.

The validation of participants' practical knowledge and experience and the recognition of participants and the facilitator as essentially equal counterparts and contributors—complementarity; the recognition of the transformative character of knowledge—dynamism; and the responsiveness of the teaching/learning process to contextual specificities—self-adaptation, are the fundamental guiding principles of this model.

These principles are essential in the construction of a classroom architecture which facilitates the implementation of the model proposed here, and were implemented in the collaborative development of the syllabus of the LTE course conducted in Brazil by the researcher and participating teachers.

The model is aimed at fostering the four principles characteristic of effective learning identified by Shulman (1996): agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community. An evaluation of the implementation of the model will assess its success in a particular context, according to the criteria specified in the following chapter.

[8] Anglophone TESOL knowledge-producing countries: Australia, the UK and the USA.

Chapter III

Methodology

1 Introduction

In this chapter, the research methodology is presented and discussed. In section 2, a rationale for the methodological approaches adopted in this study is presented. In section 3, the data collection methods are listed, followed by an explanation of how each method was used in the research. Section 4 details the development of the questionnaires used in this study. Section 5 presents the criteria for the evaluation of the model. The crucial elements relating to the methodology of the study are summarised in section 6.

2 Research design

In order to investigate to what extent, if any, the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impacted on participants' classroom behaviour, the present study uses a case study approach to research, and both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, to document participating teachers classroom behaviour in two stages, prior to the introduction of the model to the teachers (stage 1), and after the model had been introduced to them (stage 2). The data collected in each stage are then compared, to establish whether or not different patterns of classroom behaviour occur. Finally, the implementation is evaluated using criteria specifically developed to measure the impact of the guiding principles and crucial features of the model on participants' classroom behaviour.

The present work follows a case study approach to research, and adopts systematic classroom observation as the main data gathering method. The design was chosen because it is compatible with the objective of the present project: to investigate the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model in a particular case in Brazil; and with the research question.

2.1 The research question

To what extent, if any, does the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impact on participants' classroom behaviour?

2.2 The case study approach

The case study approach has been described as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (Yin, 1984, p. 23).

A multiple data collection methods approach is used in this study; in order to enable the triangulation of the data collected. The multiple data collection methods approach has been described in the research methods literature as having been "traditionally seen as one of the most efficient ways of reducing the chance of systematic bias" and "as a way of ensuring research validity" (Dörnyei, 2007).

Data were collected from participant teachers and participant learners, in relation to their accounts of what took place in their classroom, recorded on DVD and transcribed by the researcher; through direct classroom observations conducted by the researcher according to a questionnaire checklist; through DVD recordings of the lessons observed, transcribed, and, when not in English, translated by the researcher; and through a review

of the footage of the lessons observed, conducted by independent assessors according to the questionnaire checklist and a review questionnaire.

The data collected were used to determine whether or not the implementation of the model had had an impact on participants' classroom behaviour, and to evaluate the extent to which any impact observed related to the principles and crucial features of the model, according to criteria specifically developed for this purpose.

2.3 The participants

All participants were TESOL teachers who worked for the State government, teaching at public schools. The group was mixed in many aspects, such as the age of the participants, which ranged from 24–57. The level of education and experience also differed: some participants had completed postgraduate studies and others had not; the less experienced participants had been teaching for two years, and the most experienced had been teaching for 32 years. They all held degrees in English Language and Literature.

These teachers were recruited through a campaign involving the State Bureau of Education and Culture. The campaign advertised the course amongst English teachers working for the State government through letters, email, web sites, presentations at university and schools, and a meeting with principals from 137 public schools run by the State government. Participation in the course was voluntary.

2.3.1 How the participants were recruited

The group of teachers taking part in the case study will be referred to here as the experimental system, and the local TESOL community as the target system. To create the experimental system, the LTE course was publicised among the local TESOL teachers through a series of presentations in schools, meetings with education officials and school principals, posters on information boards, and the Internet. The teachers were invited to participate in the LTE course on a voluntary and free of cost basis. In response, 22

teachers showed interest in the course and filled out survey questionnaires. From this group, 13 teachers participated in the LTE course, and 4 completed the whole programme.

2.4 The applicability of the research design

Given the description of the language classroom (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008a) adopted in this study, it is evident that between the phenomenon this study aims at investigating, "language teaching and learning", and the context in which this investigation is to be conducted, "the participants' classrooms", there are no clear boundaries, meaning that the phenomenon cannot be separated from its context without suffering consequent changes in its nature. It is not possible to investigate the phenomenon in a controlled environment, since the environment is part of the phenomenon. This fits the description of the case study approach to research given above (Yin, 1984)

Also, in order to collect data to investigate the implementation of the model proposed here, a variety of sources of evidence needs to be used, following quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection and analysis, as has been noted in other studies similar to the present project (Castellano & Datnow, 2004; Kubanyiova, 2007), and in the research methodology literature (Dörnyei, 2007; Duff & Hornberger, 2008; Robson, 2011).

Castellano and Datnow (2004), for instance, conducted research following the case study approach, using both quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate the implementation of a model of school reform called Success For All (SFA), which was being implemented in hundreds of schools in the United States and elsewhere. The authors report: "We used a case study approach, which enabled us to examine the process of SFA implementation in real-life contexts" (p. 237), and claim that "systematic, guided observation is the best way to explore what happens in classrooms" (p. 231).

Systematic classroom observation, as described in education research literature, is "a quantitative method of measuring classroom behaviours from direct observations that specifies both the events or behaviours that are to be observed and how they are to be recorded." (Waxman et al., 2004, p. 2). Through this method, it is possible to identify, record and quantify the occurrence of certain kinds of classroom behaviour, often with reference to the frequency, duration or chronological order in which the behaviours occur. This is exemplified by Datnow and Yonezawa (2004) as follows:

> We entered the field with notions of what constituted worthwhile school change efforts and ideas on where and how the process of change might manifest itself. We did so with the intention of giving the study direction and guiding data collection (p. 179).

A similar approach to that in Datnow and Yonezawa (2004) is adopted here, with the intention of giving the study direction and guiding data collection. Moreover, the claim made by Castellano and Datnow (2004), Elmore (1996), and others, that for an educational intervention to be effective, it must have an impact on classroom behaviour, corroborates the assumption guiding the focus of the data collection in this study. As was indicated earlier, the language classroom is described in this study in terms of participants' classroom behaviour.

Consequently, the impact of the intervention in this study is evaluated based on what happens in participants' classrooms in terms of the behaviour of the teacher and their students, and not in regard to the teachers' cognitions or beliefs[9], as is the case in other similar studies such as Kubanyiova (2007). The focus of the investigation is on the action-reaction patterns of classroom behaviour; therefore, the appropriateness of systematic classroom observation as a data collection method in this study.

2.5 The applicability of using multiple methods of data collection

Along with quantitative research methods, this study relies on qualitative methods as well. In the pursuit of enabling data triangulation, according to Duff (2008, p. 143), "An

important principle in current qualitative research is that both insider (emic) and outsider (researcher/analyst) perspectives of phenomena should be incorporated to the extent possible", as this "increases the internal validity of the study".

In order to implement this principle, and consequently gather valid qualitative evidence to investigate classroom behaviour, this study relies mainly on the researcher's perception of the participants' classroom, and the participants' perception of their own classrooms. Each of these sources requires different data gathering methods. The researcher's perception was documented through systematic observation, as well as qualitative methods such as unstructured interviews, and non-systematic observations in a participant-observer role. The participants' perceptions were documented through their reports and interviews.

These sources of data are extended by including the classroom perceptions of some of the language students taught by the participating teachers, collected through group interviews, to add to the validity of the findings. Participant (the teachers and their students) feedback is a strategy by which validity and reliability can be checked (Dörnyei, 2007).

In order to establish the external validity and reliability of the findings, the study also makes use of a review of the footage of classroom observations by independent assessors, carried out after the completion of the implementation. This strategy, referred to as peer checking in the literature, is in accord with the research methodology literature (Dörnyei, 2007; Robson, 2011), and is described as "a very useful strategy" (Dörnyei, 2007) for checking reliability, especially when considered in addition to participants' feedback. Peer checking is regarded as one type of triangulation, characterized as "a valuable and widely used strategy" which "can help to counter all of the threats to validity" (Robson, 2011).

3 Data gathering methods

A range of methods was employed to gather data in this study, including the use of a survey questionnaire, systematic observations, an observation questionnaire checklist, DVD recordings, group interviews with participating teachers, unstructured interviews with participating teachers, group interviews with participants' students, and a review questionnaire.

3.1 Survey questionnaire

The survey questionnaire was designed to gather information from prospective participants to inform the development and design of the LTE course with regard to content, the language to be used for discussions, and reading material, taking into account the preferences of the prospective participants. This is in accord with the ideal of self-adaptation that the model is built to accommodate.

The aim was to enable the researcher to draw up a general profile in regard to: (a) prospective participants' disposition in relation to key aspects of the research project; (b) their previous knowledge about communities of practice; (c) their preferences relating to the logistics of the course; (d) their expectations regarding course content and outcomes; (e) their perceived difficulties as TESOL teachers; (f) their ideas for improving the teaching and learning of English in their schools; (g) their educational background; (h) their plans for further education; (i) their teaching background; (j) their familiarity with and access to computers and the Internet. The data were used to inform the preliminary design of the LTE course being offered to the teachers.

The questionnaire comprises an identification section, unnumbered, where prospective participants were required to provide their names, email addresses, the name of the school where they taught and indicate which levels they taught. This section is followed by 24

items, in a mix of “Yes” or “No” questions, multiple choice and open questions, which yield a combination of quantitative and qualitative data.

3.2 The application of the survey questionnaire

The survey questionnaire was made available online to anyone interested in taking part in the project, in two versions: Portuguese and English. This was done because, at the time, it was not known if the level of proficiency in English required to fill out the questionnaire completely, accurately and appropriately would pose a problem for those who were inclined to participate.

Prospective participants were informed about the questionnaire and the language options and that they were free to choose between these options. As a requirement for enrolling in the course, prospective participants were asked to download and fill out the survey questionnaire and send it to the researcher via email or post. Twenty two teachers sent their completed questionnaires, of which eight were in English.

3.3 Systematic observations

In order to investigate if the implementation of the model had any impact on participating teachers’ classrooms, these classrooms were directly observed by the researcher. These observations are the primary source of evidence in this study.

According to Anderson, Burns and Dunkin (1989), one advantage of using classroom observation is that it can be used to encourage change and to identify whether or not there have been changes. In systematic observations, the researcher pre-establishes a set of behaviours on which the observations are to be focussed, and determines beforehand how these behaviours are to be recorded (Waxman et al., 2004). Although systematic observation is considered a quantitative method of data collection, it is not uncommon that researchers use it in combination with qualitative methods (Dörnyei, 2007).

Table 6, below, shows the survey questionnaire filled out by the prospective participants prior to the implementation of the model.

Survey Questionnaire

Name:
Email address:
School:
Level taught:

Would you be willing to share your opinions, knowledge and experience with other participants?
( ) Yes ( ) No
Would you permit observations to be conducted in your classroom?
( ) Yes ( ) No
Have you ever heard about communities of practice? If yes, what do you know about them?
What is the most suitable day for you to attend classes? Please select one:
( ) Mon ( ) Tuesday ( ) Wednesday ( ) Thursday ( ) Friday
( ) Saturday ( ) Sunday
What is the ideal time for you to attend a 2-hour session?
( ) 8–10 ( ) 9–11 ( ) 10–12 ( ) 11–1 ( ) 1–3 ( ) 2–4
( ) 3–5 ( ) 4–6 ( ) 5–7 ( ) 6–8 ( ) 7–9 Other:
Would you prefer the discussions to be conducted in
( ) English ( ) Portuguese
Would it be a problem if the discussions were conducted in English?
( ) Yes ( ) No
Would you prefer the reading material to be in
( ) English ( ) Portuguese
Would you have any problems reading the material in English?
( ) Yes ( ) No
What content would you expect to see covered in the programme?
What areas of your knowledge would you like to improve?
What are some of the difficulties you face at work which you would like to see addressed in the programme?
Do you believe that the teaching of English in your school could be improved? If yes, how?
When did you finish your degree?
Have you completed post-graduate studies or any other courses related to your work as an English teacher? If you have, please comment.
If you did not, do you intend to undertake any post-graduate studies?
( ) Yes ( ) No
How long have you been teaching English?
Where have you taught English?
( ) private school ( ) public school ( ) language school
What levels have you taught?
Where do you teach at the moment?
( ) private school ( ) public school ( ) language school
Are you comfortable with using computers? ( ) Yes ( ) No
Do you have easy access to a computer? ( ) Yes ( ) No
Do you have easy access to the Internet? ( ) Yes ( ) No
How often do you use the Internet? ( ) everyday ( ) Most days
( ) occasionally ( ) rarely ( ) never

Table 6

3.4 How the observations were conducted

Participants were observed by the researcher in their classrooms for the duration of one entire lesson each time. The observations were divided into two stages, referred to here as "stage 1": before the teachers were introduced to the principles of the model, and "stage 2": after the teachers were introduced to the principles of the model.

During stage 1, which was two weeks in duration, the participating teachers were asked to conduct peer observations, in an attempt to minimize the impact of the role of the researcher as an observer, share this role with the participating teachers, and produce records of a participant-generated description of the classrooms in parallel with those produced by the researcher. The researcher observed each of the participants separately in their classrooms during the same period. During stage 2, which lasted for six weeks, the researcher again observed the participants in their classrooms. No peer review was conducted during this stage, but during the workshops, the participants reported on their experiences implementing their new approach.

In both stages, the researcher's observations followed the same procedure. The researcher would meet the teacher being observed prior to the lesson; make small talk as the time allowed it; follow the teacher to the classroom. The teacher would announce to the class that they had a visitor; the researcher would briefly acknowledge the presence of the students by smiling and nodding his head; position himself at the back of the room; if possible, set up and start the recording equipment; sit at one of the desks; open a laptop; bring up the questionnaire checklist on the screen; and make himself scarce; trying to appear more interested in the computer than in the lesson; while paying full attention to classroom events and completing the questionnaire.

The use of the laptop instead of a clipboard possibly created the opportunity of minimizing the impact of the observers' presence, since the image of someone watching the lesson attentively while ticking boxes on a form might trigger some discomfort for

certain teachers. The laptop might also offer the possibility for the researcher to appear concerned with parallel matters, which might have a positive effect, contributing to reducing the initial pressure of the situation.

The researcher did not interfere with the lessons on any occasion, and did not participate in any classroom event unless invited by the teacher, which did occur on a few occasions. After the lesson was completed, the researcher would pack up the equipment, thank the class and follow the teacher out. If there was enough time, the researcher would ask the teacher to evaluate the lesson and comment on any event considered important.

The observations in stage 2 were conducted in the same week with all participating teachers, following a schedule organized with the participants.

3.5 Observation questionnaire

During systematic classroom observations in this research project a questionnaire checklist, which constitutes an observation system, was used to record data. This tool is based on a kind of system identified in Medley (1992) as a sign system, described as "a list of behaviours that the observer using the system is supposed to watch for and record during a specific period of time" (p. 1311). Medley explains that each of the behaviours on this list "is there because the occurrence of that behaviour is known or is believed to be a significant indicator, or sign, of the presence (or absence) of a dimension of classroom behaviour that the system is intended to measure" (p. 1311).

The questionnaire was developed to guide data collection and document relevant aspects of the classrooms observed, focusing on both the teacher and the students (Waxman et al., 2004).

The items in the questionnaire were chosen based on the researcher's previous knowledge of certain behaviours in the target context and a projection of the behaviours the model was designed to encourage. Unlike in other similar studies, the aim of the questionnaire

developed for this project was not to register the frequency with which particular behaviours were manifested, the duration of specific behaviours, or the duration and chronological order in which these behaviours occurred, but to identify whether or not particular behaviours were manifested, and in some cases to identify the intensity of the behaviour.

Consequently, the questionnaire is comprised of items of a particular kind. This type of item is described in the literature as a context item. It differs from items designed to identify behaviours which "occur at a definite point in time" in that a "context item describes a state of affairs or condition that persists for all or most of a period of observation" (Medley, 1992, p. 1312).

3.6 The application of the observation questionnaire

3.6.1 Observation questionnaire - first application

Observation questionnaire was first applied in a reflective exercise during the first workshop, aimed at encouraging participants to reflect on their own classrooms and fill out the questionnaire as if they were observing themselves. At the completion of the exercise, participants handed in their questionnaires. The objective of this exercise was to trial the questionnaire and at the same time to collect evidence to document participants' own perception of their classroom behaviour. This exercise also served to familiarize the participants with the questionnaire, facilitating their use of it in subsequent peer observations.

3.6.2 Observation questionnaire - subsequent applications

The Observation questionnaire was also used during a round of peer observation, during which participants were encouraged to mingle and attend other teachers' schools. The objective was to document participants' perceptions of one another's classrooms. Table 7, below, shows the observation questionnaire.

Observation questionnaire used by the participants during peer observation, by the researcher during classroom observations and later by observers of DVD recordings.

	Teacher 1	Obs 1	Obs 2	Obs 3	Obs 4	Obs 5
1) Which approach best resembles the approach used by the teacher?	Grammar translation					
	Communicative					
	Audiolingual					
	Model-based					
2) How high was the students' level of interest?	High					
	Medium high					
	Medium					
	Medium low					
	Low					
3) How high was the students' level of engagement?	High					
	Medium high					
	Medium					
	Medium low					
	Low					
4) How was the content presented?	Teacher tells					
	Teacher explains					
	Teacher Asks					
	Group investigates					
5) Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily?	Yes					
	No					
6) Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her?	Yes					
	No					
7) Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement?	Yes					
	No					
8) Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson?	Yes					
	No					
9) Did the teacher encourage Ss' interaction with each other?	Yes					
	No					
10) Was there any group work/pair work?	Yes					
	No					
11) Did students contribute to the lesson?	Yes					
	No					
12) Was learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher?	Yes					
	No					
13) Did students display learning autonomy?	Yes					
	No					
14) Did students collaborate with each other?	Yes					
	No					
15) What language was used by the teacher?	Target					
	Local					
	Both					
16) Did students produce the target language?	Yes					
	No					
17) Were students encouraged to produce the target language?	Yes					
	No					

Table 7

These peer observations were organized by the participants themselves and conducted over a period of two weeks between February 11 and 25, 2010.

During this period, the researcher also arranged to observe the participants, and used the same questionnaire. Each classroom was observed from 4 to 5 times. The questionnaire was used in all classroom observations by the researcher between February 11 and June 10, and was subsequently used by the independent assessors during their review of the footage. This review was carried out after the implementation, with the objective of adding an additional source of data and at the same time triangulating the researcher's observations of the lessons.

3.6.3 How the observation questionnaire was filled out by the researcher

The researcher filled out one questionnaire checklist for each lesson observed. The questionnaires were completed on a laptop computer and stored in specific folders.

For *Yes* or *No* items, once the feature of classroom dynamics corresponding to the item in the questionnaire was sufficiently identified, the researcher would tick *Yes*. At the end of the lesson, every *Yes* or *No* item left unticked would be ticked *No*. For the remaining items, the researcher would wait until two thirds of the lesson had been observed, and select the option which best agreed with his overall perception of the lesson.

The same procedure was used during the review of the footage by independent assessors.

3.7 DVD recording

One of the data recording tools chosen for the systematic observations of participants' classrooms is DVD footage, which can serve as a qualitative tool. According to Jacobs et al. (1999), "video data make possible a cyclical analytical process that takes advantage of the fact that they can be used as both quantitative and qualitative research tools" (p. 718). However, in order for video data to serve as a quantitative research tool, footage has to be

collected on a large scale, which was not the case in this study. The DVD footage in this project serves mainly as a qualitative research tool, since the analysis of these data produces new and more detailed descriptions of the changes recorded through other means, and also as a means of triangulating the research findings.

3.8 How the footage was shot

Learners were informed by their teachers of the presence of the researcher and that the lesson was going to be recorded as part of a teacher development programme, and that the footage was focusing on the teacher. The lessons were recorded using a single fixed camera and inbuilt microphone, placed at one of the back corners, or some other position at the back which offered the most favourable view of the classroom. The footage was collected continuously for the duration of the lesson.

3.8.1 How the footage was transcribed

The transcripts from the footage collected during observations are continuous segments of each of the lessons, from the start up to the point when the relevant behavioural patterns emerging from the footage had been captured in the transcriptions. These are shown in chapter V.

The only exception to this transcription system is made when recurrent patterns of behaviour predominate in the footage eliminating the usefulness of registering such events through transcribing them further. On any such occasions, a pause was made in the transcriptions until other behaviours emerged, or the lesson ended.

3.9 Interviews with the participants and their students

In order to document the participants' perceptions of their own classrooms and the course, and as a means of promoting reflection, unstructured interviews were conducted with participants and recorded on DVD. These followed two designs: group interviews,

conducted during the workshops with all participants who were present; and individual interviews, conducted with each participant after the observations, provided that the conditions allowed.

3.9.1 Group interviews with participants

Group interviews were conducted during the workshops on a volunteer basis, were untimed, and had no pre-established questions. These interviews were divided into two types, according to topic and aims. The first topic was the participants' perceptions of the course itself.

The teachers were invited to reflect on the course, evaluate their participation, and report on their overall impressions about the course, both positive and negative, focussing on aspects such as difficulties, level of satisfaction, relevance, usefulness or any other issues of their choice. The aim was for the participants to evaluate the course and for the researcher to collect data on the participants' feedback.

The second topic was the participants' classrooms. These interviews were initiated by inviting teachers to reflect on their classrooms and report on their implementation of any changes, highlighting both positive and negative aspects. The aim was for the researcher to gather teachers' perceptions of the ongoing dynamics of their classroom.

3.9.2 Unstructured interviews with participating teachers

Further interviews were conducted immediately after the classroom observations, whenever possible. These interviews followed the same design as the group interviews, except that they were conducted at the participants' schools, and included only the researcher and the participant just observed. The topic of these interviews was the lesson observed. The teachers were invited to evaluate the lesson and comment on any aspects, positive or negative, they wanted to highlight.

3.9.3 Group interviews with participants' students

In some cases, participants' students were also collectively interviewed, and invited to give their opinions about the changes they perceived in their classroom. These interviews were conducted in the classrooms, after an observation, and without the presence of the teacher.

3.10 Review questionnaire

The review questionnaire was developed following the same specifications presented in the case of the observation questionnaire: it is comprised of context items designed to investigate states of affairs or conditions that predominate in the entire period of observation (Medley, 1992).

The second questionnaire had two main objectives: to investigate whether there were changes in classroom behaviour perceptible to assessors between stage 1 and stage 2; and whether there were any recognizable influences of the model on perceived changes in classroom behaviour apparent to assessors. Additionally, assessors' responses would provide yet another source of data to be considered in the overall evaluation of the implementation.

The items in this questionnaire are divided into three formats: *Yes* or *No* questions, choice within a range of options, and identification of examples from the lesson. Questionnaire 2 is shown below in Table 8.

3.10.1 How the observation data were reviewed

3.10.1.1 The assessors

The Brazilian project observation footage was reviewed by two independent assessors, both postgraduate professionals, who have had extensive experience conducting classroom observations, as part of their coordinator roles in ESL schools in Sydney.

Table 8, below, shows the review questionnaire, used by the assessors during the review of the observations.

		OBS 1		OBS 2		OBS 3		OBS 4		OBS 5	
		A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2
Can you perceive any differences between the first observed lesson in Stage 1 and the lesson you have just reviewed?	No										
	Yes										
If you answered yes, the differences you perceived are related to: (tick as many as apply)	Teacher's role										
	Classroom atmosphere										
	Lesson mode										
	Class dynamics										
	Ss'comfort level										
	Teacher's rapport										
	Ss' role										
	Control level										
	Lesson content										
How would you describe changes to:											
Teacher's role	More participative										
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
Classroom atmosphere	Improved										
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Lesson mode	Shift to Knowledge construction										
	Maintained Knowledge transfer										
Class dynamics	Improved										
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Ss'comfort level	Improved										
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Teacher's rapport with Ss	Improved										
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Ss' role	More participative										
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
Teacher's control level	Increased										
	Decreased										
	Maintained										
Lesson content	More contextualized										
	Less contextualized										
	Maintained										
Did you recognize any influence of principles of the Self-Adaptive Model in the reviewed lesson?	Yes										
	No										
If you answered yes, which of the following principles did you recognize? Please give an example for each recognized principle.	Context sensitivity										
	Collaboration										
	Social interaction										
	Ss' agency										
	Meta-cognition										
	Other (please specify)										

Table 8

During the reviews, the assessors filled out two questionnaires as they watched the DVDs of the lessons observed. The first was the observation questionnaire checklist used by the researcher in Brazil. The purpose of this exercise was to triangulate the researcher's classroom observation results (presented in Chapter V).

The second questionnaire was designed to identify if there were any noticeable differences in classroom behaviour between each of the teachers' first and subsequent lessons observed, and if there was any apparent impact of the model on the changes identified. If assessors did notice and identify such differences, they were subsequently asked if they could recognize any influence of the model in the perceived differences, and to specify the principles of the model they recognized, if any.

3.10.1.2 The review process

To ensure inter-observer reliability in the review process, the two assessors participated in a series of calibration sessions aimed at familiarizing them with each item of each questionnaire, and the principles of the model. Group discussions including the researcher were held to clarify any doubts about the model. No information about the implementation of the LTE programme in Brazil, or the teachers who participated, was available to assessors.

Both questionnaires were presented to assessors in the calibration sessions. Each item in the questionnaires was explicated by the researcher, to familiarize the assessors with these instruments, and clarify any doubts about how to fill out the questionnaires.

The review process was explained to the assessors: they were shown footage of the series of observations of each teacher recorded on DVD separately and in sequential order, from Teacher 1 to Teacher 3, from first to last lesson observed. For each observation, the assessors filled out the observation questionnaire, as they watched the DVDs.

The purpose of this was to triangulate the researcher's observations using the same questionnaire. From the second observation onwards, the assessors were asked to fill out the review questionnaire as well as the observation questionnaire. After having watched the observation of the particular teacher under consideration, the assessors were given time to reflect on the lesson just observed, recorded during stage 2, and compare it to the first observation of the series, recorded during the stage 1, to fill out the review questionnaire.

There were two purposes for asking the assessors to fill out the review questionnaire. The first was to provide a frame for the assessors to be able to focus on the dimensions of classroom behaviour relevant to the research in comparing the lesson observed in stage 1 to the lessons observed in stage 2. The second was to investigate whether or not the influence of the model would be apparent in classroom behaviour, and to what extent.

4 The design of the questionnaires

4.1 The survey questionnaire

The survey questionnaire was designed in order to collect information to draw up a profile of prospective participants, and explore their expectations in relation to the LTE course. The following subheadings detail each item or group of items and explains how responses are to be interpreted.

4.1.1 Items 1 and 2

Items 1 and 2, below, were designed to investigate whether prospective participants would agree to two of the basic tenets of the project: meaningful participation and direct observation.

Table 9, below, shows items 1 and 2 of the survey questionnaire.

1. Would you be willing to share your opinions, knowledge and experience with other participants?
   ( ) Yes ( ) No
2. Would you permit observations to be conducted in your classroom?
   ( ) Yes ( ) No

Table 9

Item 1 was designed to inform prospective participants about the expected course dynamics—collective knowledge construction, and investigate whether or not they would agree to it. The item was also designed to demonstrate to participants how they were to be perceived in the project—as contributors rather than recipients, and to inspire respondents' sense of self-worth and respect (although this was not being investigated in the research). If respondents answered "Yes", this would indicate agreement to assuming the role expected of them. If respondents answered "No", this would indicate that they did not agree to assuming the expected role.

Item 2 was designed to establish whether respondents would allow direct observations to be conducted in their classrooms.

4.1.2 Item 3

Item 3, below, was designed to investigate whether or not prospective participants had knowledge of communities of practice, and, if they did, what they knew about them.

Table 10, below, shows item 3 of the survey questionnaire.

3. Have you ever heard about communities of practice? If yes, what do you know about them?

Table 10

Item 3 is divided into two parts. The first part was designed to investigate whether respondents had knowledge of the contemporary idea of communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This part yields a measure of respondents' level of information about

communities of practice, which could relate to their knowledge of contemporary issues in teaching and learning.

The second part of item 3 was designed to investigate what respondents knew about communities of practice. This part yields a measure of respondents' prior knowledge about communities of practice. If respondents had such knowledge, their collective views could be shared during the workshops and used as contributions to construct further knowledge.

4.1.3 Items 4–9

Items 4–9 were developed to investigate respondents' availability and their preferences in regard to the language to be used in the course.

Table 11, below, shows items 4–9 of the survey questionnaire.

4. What is the most suitable day for you to attend classes? Please select one:

   ( ) Mon ( ) Tuesday ( ) Wednesday ( ) Thursday ( ) Friday
   ( ) Saturday ( ) Sunday

5. What is the ideal time for you to attend a 2-hour session?

   ( ) 8–10 ( ) 9–11 ( ) 10–12 ( ) 11–1 ( ) 1–3 ( ) 2–4
   ( ) 3–5 ( ) 4–6 ( ) 5–7 ( ) 6–8 ( ) 7–9 Other:

6. Would you prefer the discussions to be conducted in

   ( ) English ( ) Portuguese

7. Would it be a problem if the discussions were conducted in English?

   ( ) Yes ( ) No

8. Would you prefer the reading material to be in

   ( ) English ( ) Portuguese

9. Would you have any problems reading the material in English?

   ( ) Yes ( ) No

Table 11

The information collected through this section of the questionnaire was used to inform the decision about which language should be used in the workshops.

4.1.4 Items 10 and 11

Items 10 and 11 were designed to investigate respondents' expectations in regard to course content and learning outcomes, respectively.

Table 12, below, shows items 10 and 11 of the survey questionnaire.

10. What content would you expect to see covered in the programme?
11. What areas of your knowledge would you like to improve?

Table 12

Item 10 requires respondents to indicate the content they expected to see covered in the course. This item yields some information about the respondents' expectations of course content. If respondents indicated the content they expected to be covered in the course, this information was used to inform the development of course content.

Item 11 requires respondents to indicate which areas of their knowledge they expected to improve in the course. This item yields an idea of respondents' expectations about course learning outcomes. If respondents indicated the areas of their knowledge they expected to improve in the course, this information was used to inform the development of course content.

4.1.5 Items 12 and 13

Table 13, below, shows items 12 and 13 of the survey questionnaire.

12. What are some of the difficulties you face at work which you would like to see addressed in the programme?
13. Do you believe that the teaching of English in your school could be improved? If yes, how?

Table 13

Item 12 yields information about respondents' perceived difficulties expected to be addressed in the course. If respondents indicated the difficulties they expected to be covered in the course, this information was used to inform the development of course content.

Item 13 is divided into two parts. The first part requires respondents to indicate whether they believed that the teaching of English could be improved in their schools, and the second part requires respondents to indicate how they thought the improvements could be accomplished. This item is designed to elicit some of the respondents' ideas for improvements in the teaching of English in their schools. If respondents indicated their ideas for improvement, this information was shared with other participants during the implementation.

4.1.6 Items 14–16

Table 14, below, shows items 14–16 of the survey questionnaire

14. When did you finish your degree?
15. Have you completed post-graduate studies or any other courses related to your work as an English teacher? If you have, please comment.
16. If you did not, do you intend to undertake any post-graduate studies? ( ) Yes ( ) No

Table 14

The three items yield information about respondents' education background and plans for further education. If respondents provided information, it was used to inform the development of a general profile of the prospective participants.

4.1.7 Items 17–20

Items 17–20 were designed to establish the respondents' teaching background. They required respondents to indicate: how long they had been teaching English; the type of

schools where they had taught; the level they had taught; and the type of the schools where they were currently teaching, respectively.

Table 15, below, shows items 17–20 of the survey questionnaire.

17. How long have you been teaching English?
18. Where have you taught English?
( ) private school ( ) public school ( ) language school
19. What levels have you taught?
20. Where do you teach at the moment?
( ) private school ( ) public school ( ) language school

Table 15

The four items yield information about respondents' teaching background and current work. If respondents provided information, it was used to inform the development of a general profile of the prospective participants.

4.1.8 Items 21–24

Table 16, below, shows items 21–24 of the survey questionnaire.

21. Are you comfortable with using computers? ( ) Yes ( ) No
22. Do you have easy access to a computer? ( ) Yes ( ) No
23. Do you have easy access to the Internet? ( ) Yes ( ) No
24. How often do you use the Internet? ( ) everyday ( ) Most days
( ) occasionally ( ) rarely ( ) never

Table 16

Items 21–24 were designed to investigate respondents' familiarity with and access to computers and the Internet, in order to inform the design of the LTE course in regard to online components and materials.

The four items yield information about respondents' computer use and Internet habits. If respondents provided information, it was used to inform the development of a general profile of the prospective participants.

4.2 Observation questionnaire

Observation questionnaire was developed in order to focus the observations on the aspects of classroom behaviour relevant to the study, as a means of documenting these aspects to allow future comparison, and to gather evidence to identify the relevant changes.

The following tables, 17, 18, and 21–24, show each individual item or group of items in the observation questionnaire, separated according to their purpose and accompanied by an explication of how the item was designed and how the responses to the item or group of items are to be interpreted.

Items 1–4 in this questionnaire require the identification of complex sets of behaviours represented here by coded constructs, and in some cases (items 2 and 3) the gradation of the construct within a given scale. These constructs are discussed under the respective heading for each of the items.

Items 5–17 in this questionnaire are designed to investigate whether or not a particular behaviour or set of behaviours is apparent to the observer. Within these, items 6, 9, 11, 12 and 13 explore complex sets of behaviour that involve constructs which might not be necessarily self-evident: encouraging students' interaction (items 6 and 9); students contributing to the lesson (item 11); encouraging learning autonomy (item 12); and displaying learning autonomy (item 13). The constructs involved in these items are discussed under their respective headings.

On the definition of behaviour items, Medley (1992) wrote: "The art—and it is very much an art—of defining explicit, dependable and easily observable cues for discriminating categories or items is as mysterious […] as any other" (p. 1312). In light of this comment, the information provided about each item of the questionnaire is not intended to exhaust the description of the construct or definition of the behaviour item, but to offer a set of

easily observable cues, on which the observer can depend to identify the behaviour or set of behaviours corresponding to the dimension of classroom behaviour signalled by the item.

4.2.1 Item 1

Table 17, below, shows item 1 of the observation questionnaire

(1) Which approach best resembles the approach used by the teacher?	Grammar Translation
	Communicative
	Audiolingual
	Model-based

Table 17

Item 1, above, was designed to investigate which approach was used by the teacher observed. It requires observers to identify the approach.

4.2.1.1 The constructs

The constructs involved in this item are the approaches to teaching and learning implemented by the teacher. There can be much variation in the interpretation of each, therefore the following descriptions apply:

1) Grammar translation—teacher centred; classroom fronted by the teacher; instruction through prescribed grammatical explanations delivered in the local language (formulaic language); high use of grammatical jargon (metalanguage); use of translation as a means of understanding the target language; rote learning; high degree of control by the teacher; use of controlled questions by the teacher; students' answers have to match an answer key; speech monopolized by the teacher; students as the target of instruction.

2) Communicative (as it is normally implemented in Brazil)—teacher centred; instruction through modelling; high degree of control by the teacher; class activity prescribed by the course-book; emphasis on structured practice following modelled production; classroom dynamics following a lock step fashion.

3) Audiolingual—teacher centred; instruction through modelling and drilling; high degree of control by the teacher; class activity prescribed by the course-book; emphasis on the repetition of modelled production; classroom dynamics following a lock step fashion; one way flow of speech from teacher to students.

4) Model-based—an approach developed by the teacher, informed by the Self-Adaptive Model, encouraging behaviours such as partnership between teacher and students; classroom not fronted by the teacher; learning through discussion; control shared by the teacher and students through negotiation; classroom dynamics emerging from participants' interaction; emphasis on collaboration, high degree of student freedom.

4.2.1.2 How the responses to the item are to be analysed

Considering that the interpretation of each of these approaches by each observer may not correspond to that of others, and that personal beliefs may influence or overpower the descriptions given above, individual responses to this item might vary substantially.

The relevance of this item lies primarily in the later identification of change over the course of the implementation, not in the particular choice of approach identified by observers. If responses to this item can show that the approach recognized by observers differs, between first and subsequent observations, it would indicate that some change has occurred. The item is also relevant later in the identification of the influence of the model in the approach implemented by each teacher observed.

If observers recognize the influence of the model in the approach implemented by the teacher observed, and identify the approach as "Model-based", this would suggest that there is evidence that the teacher has adopted some of the principles of the model.

4.2.2 Items 2 and 3

Items 2 and 3, below, were designed to investigate the students' level of interest and engagement. Observers were required to grade each feature, (interest and engagement) choosing among 5 alternatives. As with item 1, individual observers' perceptions may not always coincide. However, given that the questionnaire is to be administered more than

once for each teacher, the two items could yield evidence of change and a measure of development. It is to be considered that change has occurred if observer responses in stage 1 differ from those in stage 2.

Table 18, below, shows items 2 and 3 of the observation questionnaire

(2) How high was the students' level of interest?	High
	Medium high
	Medium
	Medium low
	Low
(3) How high was the students' level of engagement?	High
	Medium high
	Medium
	Medium low
	Low

Table 18

4.2.2.1 The constructs

The constructs involved in this item are students' interest and engagement. These constructs are intertwined and it can be argued that interest is one of the components of engagement. Research in various fields has produced considerable material about students' engagement. Appleton et al. (2008) investigate the construct and present a table of "definitional variations across conceptualizations of engagement." A simplified version of this table is given below.

Appleton et al. (2008) claim that "although uses of this construct have proliferated, definitional clarity has been elusive. The theoretical and research literatures on engagement generally reflect little consensus about definitions and contain substantial variations in how engagement is operationalized and measured" (p. 370). This is shown in Table 19, below.

Engagement: construct definition (Appleton et al., 2008)

A.	Audas & Willms, 2001	Extent to which students participate in academic and non-academic activities and identify with and value the goals of schooling.
B.	Connell & Wellborn, 1991	When psychological needs (i.e., autonomy, belonging, competence) are met within cultural enterprises such as family, school, and work, engagement occurs and is exhibited in affect, behaviour, and cognition (if not, disaffection occurs).
C.	Russell, Ainley, & Frydenberg, 2005	Energy in action, the connection between person and activity; consisting of three forms: behavioural, emotional, and cognitive.
D.	Skinner & Belmont, 1993	Sustained behavioural involvement in learning activities accompanied by positive emotional tone (vs. disaffection).
E.	Skinner, Wellborn, & Connell, 1990	Initiation of action, effort, and persistence with schoolwork and ambient emotional states during learning activities.
F.	National Research Council/Institute of Medicine (2004)	Involves both behaviours and emotions and is mediated by perceptions of competence and control (I can), values and goals (I want to), and social connectedness (I belong).
G.	Libby, 2004	Extent to which students are motivated to learn and do well in school.
H.	Fredericks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004	Emotional (positive and negative reactions to teachers, classmates, academics, and school), Behavioural (participation in school), and Cognitive (investment)
I.	Furlong et al., 2003	Affective, Behavioural, and Cognitive Engagement subtypes (same as Jimerson et al., 2003) within student, peer group, classroom, and school wide contexts.
J.	Jimerson, Campos, & Greif, 2003	Affective (feelings about school, teachers, and peers), Behavioural (observable actions), and Cognitive (perceptions and beliefs).
K.	Chapman, 2003	Willingness to participate in routine school activities with subtle cognitive, behavioural, and affective indicators of student engagement in specific learning tasks.
L.	Natriello, 1984	Student participation in the activities offered as part of the school program.
M.	Yazzie-Mintz, 2007	Cognitive/Intellectual/Academic (students' effort, investment, and strategies for learning), Social/Behavioural/Participatory (social, extracurricular, and non-academic school activities; interactions with peers), and Emotional (feelings of connection to school, including their performance, school climate, and relationships with others).
N.	Marks, 2000	Psychological processing involving the attention interest, investment, and effort students expend in the work of learning.
O.	Newmann, Wehlage, & Lamborn, 1992	The student's psychological investment in and effort directed toward learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge, skills, or crafts that academic work is intended to promote.
P.	Mosher & MacGowan, 1985	Attitude leading toward and participatory behaviour in secondary school's programs (state of mind and way of behaving).
Q.	Klem & Connell, 2004	Ongoing engagement (behavioural, emotional, and cognitive components); reaction to challenge (ideally engage optimistically).
R.	Christenson & Anderson, 2002	Psychological (e.g., belonging), Behavioural (e.g., participation), Cognitive (e.g., self-regulated learning), and Academic (e.g., time on task) Engagement.
S.	Finn, 1989, 1993; Finn & Rock, 1997	Participation in (at four increasing levels) and identification with school (belonging in school and valuing school-related outcomes).

Table 19

For the purpose of the present questionnaire, the construct of engagement is defined according to a description of engaged behaviour by Johnson (2012, 3 and 4 ¶). Johnson presents a set of 11 specific behaviours or groups of behaviours that can be used as evidence of students' engagement, shown in Table 20, below.

Behaviours indicative of students' engagement

1) Paying attention (alert, tracking with their eyes)
2) Taking notes
3) Listening (as opposed to chatting, or sleeping)
4) Asking questions
5) Responding to questions
6) Following requests
7) Reacting (laughing, crying, shouting, etc.)
8) Reading critically (with pen in hand)
9) Writing to learn, creating, planning, problem solving, discussing, debating, and asking questions
10) Performing/presenting, inquiring, exploring, explaining, evaluating, and experimenting
11) Interacting with other students, gesturing and moving

Table 20

In order to specify which behaviours can be indicative of interest and engagement, it is useful to draw on the apparent difference between the two constructs: interest can be manifested through passive behaviour, while engagement would indicate active behaviour. The division is made because students can seem disengaged and yet demonstrate interest simultaneously[10].

Based on the list above, behaviours (1) Paying attention; (3) Listening; (5) Responding to questions; and (6) Following requests can be interpreted as signs of interest. These behaviours can be indicative of item 2 ("interest") of the questionnaire checklist. Conversely, behaviours (2) Taking notes; (4) Asking questions; (7) Reacting; (9) Writing

to learn, creating, planning, problem solving, discussing, debating, and asking questions; (10) Performing/presenting, inquiring, exploring, explaining, evaluating, and experimenting; and (11) Interacting with other students, gesturing and moving can be interpreted as signs of engagement. These behaviours can be indicative of item 3 ("engagement") of the questionnaire checklist. Even though not all these behaviours can be easily observed, these two sets can be used to guide the attention of the observer, providing examples of what to look for.

4.2.2.2 How the responses to the items are analysed

If responses in stage 2 show a qualitative increase, i.e., if they indicate that the classroom behaviour observed is more in accord with the model, in relation to those in the stage 1, this is to be considered as indicating some positive change. If responses in stage 2 show a qualitative decrease in relation to those in the stage 1, this is to be considered as indicating a negative change. If responses in stage 2 do not differ from those in stage 1, it is to be considered that change has not occurred.

4.2.3 Item 4

Item 4 is designed to investigate the power balance between teacher and students based on classroom discourse. It requires observers to note the speech acts and general pragmatic behaviour adopted in the classroom, and grade the level of authority shown by the teacher, evident in the directionality and interactivity of the classroom discourse. The item yields information about the nature of the "teacher as authority".

Table 21, below, shows item 4 of the observation questionnaire

(4) How was the content presented?	Teacher tells
	Teacher explains
	Teacher asks
	Group investigates

Table 21

4.2.3.1 The constructs

'Teacher tells' describes a lecture style class and ranks as the highest level of 'teacher as authority', characterized by unilateral speech flow from the teacher to students, without much interaction. 'Teacher explains' describes a semi-interactive style class and a lower level of 'teacher as authority', characterized by the teacher regularly checking students' understanding and adapting the given explanations in case of incorrect or uncomprehending responses from students.

'Teacher asks' describes a controlled interactive style class and a low level of 'teacher as authority', characterized by the teacher asking questions to students in an attempt to lead the class to infer answers. 'Group investigates' describes an interactive style of class and participative instead of authoritative discourse, characterized by the entitlement of all participants to contribute toward the achievement of a common goal; the power balance between teacher and students is fairly equalized. This style is characteristic of a Self-Adaptive Model-based approach to teaching and learning.

4.2.3.2 How the responses to the item are analysed

If responses to this item show that the mode of delivery recognized by observers differs between first and subsequent observations, this would indicate that some change has occurred. The responses to this item are also relevant in the identification of the influence of the Self-Adaptive Model in the approach implemented by the teacher observed.

If the responses to the item indicate a decrease in the level of 'teacher as authority', that would indicate some influence of the model in the approach implemented by the teacher observed, and if the responses to the item identify 'Group investigates' as the mode of delivery, this would indicate evidence to suggest that the teacher has adopted some of the principles of the model.

4.2.4 Items 5–14, 16 and 17

Items 5–14, 16 and 17, below, were designed to map key features of classroom dynamics. In stage 1, responses to these items indicate each classroom's initial state in the case study. In stage 2, they can be indicative of either change or of maintenance of classroom dynamics. If the responses to any of these items changed from the way they were at stage 1 during the course of the implementation, this would be considered to indicate an alteration in the trajectory of the classroom.

Tables 22 and 23, below, show item 5–14, and 16 and 17 of the observation questionnaire

5) Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily?	Yes No
6) Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her?	Yes No
7) Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement?	Yes No
8) Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson?	Yes No
9) Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with each other?	Yes No
10) Was there any group work/pair work?	Yes No
11) Did students contribute to the lesson?	Yes No
12) Was learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher?	Yes No
13) Did students display learning autonomy?	Yes No
14) Did students collaborate with each other?	Yes No

Table 22

16) Did students produce the target language?	Yes No
17) Were students encouraged to produce the target language?	Yes No

Table 23

4.2.4.1 The constructs

As is mentioned above, some of the items in this list require that the behaviours indicative of the item be defined: items 6, 9, 11, 12 and 13. These are discussed below.

4.2.4.1.1 Item 6—encouraging students' interaction with the teacher

This item is based on identifying how accessible the teacher is to students. It requires the observer to focus on the teacher's attitude toward the students. According to Rimm-Kaufman (ND), the behaviours associated with encouraging students to interact with the teacher can include the following:

> Teachers show their pleasure and enjoyment of students; teachers interact in a responsive and respectful manner; teachers offer students help in achieving academic and social objectives; teachers help students reflect on their thinking and learning skills; teachers know and demonstrate knowledge about individual students' backgrounds, interests, emotional strengths and academic levels; teachers seldom show irritability or aggravation toward students (¶ 8).

4.2.4.1.2 Item 9—encouraging students to interact with one another

This item is based on identifying the extent to which the teacher creates opportunities and makes suggestions for students to collaborate with one another, such as working in groups, debating a topic or question, assisting one another in the completion of tasks. The behaviours associated with this construct can include: encouraging students to talk to one another during the lesson; allowing students to move around in the classroom; suggesting students collaborate with one another; giving students tasks to be completed collectively.

4.2.4.1.3 Item 11—students contributing to the lesson

This item is based on identifying whether or not students contribute actively to the lesson. The behaviours associated with this item can include: students giving their opinions; commenting on past experiences; asking questions; responding to the teacher's requests for examples or explanations; bringing materials or topics to the classroom.

4.2.4.1.4 Item 12—encouraging learning autonomy

This item is based on identifying whether or not the teacher creates opportunities for students to develop learner autonomy, and allows students to direct their own learning.

The concept of learner autonomy has been developed since the mid–1970s, and according to Benson (2007), "Since the turn of the century interest in autonomy has grown considerably" (p. 21). Nevertheless, there is no consensus among researchers about the definition of the concept. As La Ganza (2008) points out, many writers approach "learner autonomy from various, and at times conflicting, perspectives" (p. 65).

The complexity of the construct is amplified by studies which suggest that learner autonomy is context sensitive and constantly evolving (La Ganza, 2008; Oxford, 2003; Palfreyman & Smith, 2003; Palincsar et al., 1994). La Ganza (2008) claims that learner autonomy is the result of a constant interplay between the teacher and students, and that "this constant interplay constitutes a dynamic system" (p. 67).

Cotterall (2000) offers five domains which relate to learner autonomy: (1) learner goals, (2) the language learning process, (3) tasks, (4) learner strategies, and (5) reflection on learning (p. 110). According to Cotterall, the core concept underlining learner autonomy is choice. She explains that "[T]his principle relates particularly to extending the choice of strategic behaviours available to learners, and to expanding their conceptual understanding of the contribution which strategies can make to their learning" (p. 111).

Based on the discussion above, the behaviours associated with this item can include: conversations with students about individual learning styles; conversations about learning objectives; raising awareness in the students of the role of learners as active participants; acknowledging students' strengths; acknowledging students' contributions and incorporating them into the construction of solutions or explanations; setting tasks to be completed outside classroom time; encouraging students to assess and revise their progress.

4.2.4.1.5 Item 13—displaying learning autonomy

This item is based on identifying whether or not students display learner autonomy. In face of the complexity of learner autonomy, as a guide to the identification of a set of behaviours related to this construct, the following description is useful.

A generally accepted profile of autonomous learners is that they are aware of educational purposes; share the responsibility for their own learning; share decisions about their learning objectives; plan their practice; implement adequate learning strategies; and assess and revise their own progress (Cotterall, 1995, 2000).

While much of the above might not be directly observable, and might only occur if the teacher affords opportunities, a list of behaviours related to learner autonomy may include: carrying on tasks independently; choosing learning strategies, such as working in groups or independently; making decisions about topics or output format; extending the content of the lesson, as in asking for additional information or lexical items, or carrying out research; and bringing to class work completed outside classroom time.

4.2.4.2 How the responses to these items are analysed

Responding to these items may involve some degree of subjectivity, as observers have to decide when and how often the occurrence of the particular feature under investigation is enough to justify a positive response. Apart from this, the items seem to be self-explanatory: observers are required to indicate if they recognize the occurrence of a phenomenon, or not.

The responses to these items can also provide information as to the intensity of the impact of the model on classroom dynamics. A high number of item responses showing differences between stage 1 and stage 2 is to be considered a strong impact of the model on classroom dynamics; a low number of item responses showing differences between stage 1 and stage 2 is to be considered a weak impact of the model on classroom dynamics.

The responses to these items can also reveal some quality improvement or loss in the context of the model. Each item offers a positive response, which indicates features believed to aid learning, such as “students contributing to the lesson” (item 11), and a negative response, such as “students not contributing to the lesson”, which indicates features believed not to assist learning, according to the principles of the model. If the number of positive responses in stage 2 increases (more student contribution) in relation to those in stage 1, this is suggestive of improvement in quality in the context of the model, and assimilation of the principles of the model. If, on the other hand, the number of positive responses in stage 2 decreases (less student contribution) in relation to those in stage 1, this could indicate a loss of quality in terms of the context of the model.

4.2.5 Item 15

Item 15, below, was designed to investigate which was the language of instruction used in the classroom. Observers are required to choose among three possibilities: target language, local language or a mixture of both. The responses to this item are expected to reveal a picture of the overall English proficiency in the classroom, given that, in this context, it is a norm for the teachers to match the amount of target language they use to the students’ level of proficiency. English as the language of instruction is traditionally introduced gradually, as students’ proficiency increases, until it becomes the predominant language in the classroom.

Table 24, below, shows item 15 of the observation questionnaire

15) What language was used by the teacher?	Target
	Local
	Both

Table 24

4.2.5.1 How the responses to the item are analysed

Considering the context of implementation, the use of the target language by the teacher implies a high level of proficiency on the part of the students[11], as both teacher and

students would need to have a reasonable level of English proficiency to cope with the demand of classes conducted in English; by comparison, the use of both languages suggests a medium level of proficiency; and the use of the local language suggests a low level of proficiency.

4.3 Questionnaire 2

4.3.1 Item 1

Table 25, below, shows item 1 of the review questionnaire

(1). Can you perceive any differences between the first lesson you observed and the lesson you have just reviewed?	No										
	Yes										

Table 25

The first item in the questionnaire was designed to investigate whether assessors would perceive differences between the first lesson observed and each of the lessons observed subsequently. It requires assessors to choose between two options: *Yes* and *No*. If the assessors choose *yes* for this item, this would indicate that changes in classroom dynamics or in the behaviour of classroom participants were apparent.

4.3.2 Item 2

Table 26, below, shows item 2 of the review questionnaire

(2). If you answered yes, the differences you perceived are related to: (tick as many as apply)	Teacher's role										
	Classroom atmosphere										
	Lesson mode										
	Class dynamics										
	Ss' comfort level										
	Teacher's rapport										
	Ss' role										
	Control level										
	Lesson content										

Table 26

The second item was designed to investigate in which specific classroom features, if any, change was apparent. It requires the assessors to choose from 9 key classroom features: teacher's role; classroom atmosphere; lesson mode; class dynamics; students' comfort level; teacher's rapport with students; students' role; teacher's control level; lesson content; and indicate in which particular feature, if any, change was perceived.

4.3.3 Item 3

The third item was designed to investigate if the changes perceived in each classroom feature indicated by the assessors were positive or negative.

Table 27, below, shows item 3 of the review questionnaire

(a) Teacher's role	More participative										
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
(b) Classroom atmosphere	Improved										
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
(c) Lesson mode	Shift to knowledge construction										
	Maintained knowledge transfer										
(d) Class dynamics	Improved										
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
(e) Ss' comfort level	Improved										
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
(f) Teacher's rapport with Ss	Improved										
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
(g) Students' role	More participative										
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
(h) Teacher's control level	Increased										
	Decreased										
	Maintained										
(i) Lesson content	More contextualized										
	Less contextualized										
	Maintained										

Table 27

The item is divided into 9 sub-items, each corresponding to one of the classroom features presented in the previous item. Each sub-item requires the assessors to choose among a set of alternatives, which indicate either positive, negative or no change.

Sub-item (a) teacher's role, and sub-item (g) students' role, present assessors with 3 alternatives: more participative, less participative and maintained, which would indicate, respectively, positive change, negative change and no change.

Sub-items (b), (d), (e) and (f) correspond to classroom atmosphere; class dynamics; students' comfort level; and teacher's rapport with students, respectively, and present assessors with 3 alternatives: improved, deteriorated, maintained, which would indicate, respectively, positive change, negative change and no change.

Sub-item (c) lesson mode, requires the assessors to indicate if they thought the mode of the lesson changed to knowledge construction (positive change), or maintained knowledge transfer (no change).

Sub-item (h) teacher's control level, requires the assessors to choose among 3 options: increased, decreased and maintained, which would indicate, respectively, negative change, positive change and no change.

Sub-item (i), lesson content, requires the assessors to choose among 3 options: more contextualized, less contextualized and maintained, which would indicate, respectively, positive change, negative change and no change.

4.3.4 Item 4

The fourth item was designed to investigate if the assessors recognized any influence of the model in the changes perceived in the classroom. It requires the assessors to choose between two options: *Yes* and *No*. Responses to this item would indicate if some principles of the model are apparent in the classroom dynamics.

Table 28, below, shows item 4 of Questionnaire 2

(4). Did you recognize any influence of principles in the Self-Adaptive Model in the reviewed lesson?	Yes										
	No										

Table 28

4.3.5 Item 5

The fifth item was designed to investigate which, if any, of a range of classroom features associated with the model would be apparent in the classroom behaviour. The assessors were required to select from a list of features: context sensitivity; collaboration; social interaction; students' agency; metacognition; and other. The assessors were also required to provide an example, from their observation of the classroom in the lesson observed, to demonstrate how they thought the feature was apparent. Responses to this item are expected to indicate which domains of classroom behaviour were impacted by the model and how they changed.

Table 29, below, shows item 5 of the review questionnaire

(5). If you answered yes, which of the following principles did you recognize? Please give an example for each principle you recognize.	Context sensitivity										
	Collaboration										
	Social interaction										
	Students' agency										
	Meta-cognition										
	Other (Please specify)										

Table 29

5 Evaluation of the Self-Adaptive Model

The main intervention in this study is the implementation of an in-service teacher professional development course. The implementation is evaluated on the basis of

whether or not the course in which the Self-Adaptive Model was implemented had an impact on participants' classroom behaviour, and the extent to which the impact, if any, related to the guiding principles and crucial features of the model.

Unlike other studies conducted under similar conditions (Kubanyiova, 2007), this study does not aim at investigating teacher change, or teacher cognition. This thesis is not about in-service teacher professional development (PD)—it is about LTE. The practical reason for implementing the model with in-service teachers, as opposed to pre-service teachers, is that this implementation enabled the investigation of the impact of the model in participants' classrooms within the short timeframe of the study.

Implementing the model with pre-service teachers would require a much longer timeframe to enable such an investigation, since participants would need enough time to complete the course and gain employment before their classroom behaviour could be investigated. Further, if the participants were pre-service teachers, change would not play such an important role in the evaluation of the Self-Adaptive Model, because participants would not have displayed previous patterns of classroom behaviour which could possibly change. Under those circumstances, the investigation would have to follow a different design.

However, in the case of the in-service teachers, embracing some of the principles promoted by the model would require changing their classroom behaviour, because these principles are not compatible with traditional classroom behaviour in the target universe. Change is viewed as a significant indicator of the impact of the model, to the extent that the changes observed are in accord with the proposed principles of the model.

Despite the obvious role that teacher cognition and beliefs surely play in classroom behaviour, this study was not designed to investigate cognitions or beliefs directly. It is understood that change in classroom behaviour is rooted in the teachers' psychological

apparatus, and it is assumed that teachers' mental lives are manifested through classroom behaviour.

It is precisely these phenomenological manifestations, directly observable behaviours, that this study was designed to investigate. Therefore, no remarks are made about teacher cognition and beliefs, except what the teachers actually say in interviews, which are not analysed beyond the extent to which they confirm or disconfirm the data gathered through observation.

Thus, the impact of the implementation of the model proposed here is investigated based on: (a) whether or not the teachers' classroom behaviour deviates from the traditional model, as observed; (b) whether or not some of the principles of the Self-Adaptive Model can be recognised in the teachers' subsequent classroom behaviour; (c) to what extent, if any, those principles can be recognised in teachers' classroom behaviour by observers; (d) whether or not the participants' students respond to their teacher's behavioural change; and (e) whether or not participants' students response, if any, is in accord with those behaviours believed to be favourable to learning in the context of the model.

Some sources of data, such as interviews with the participants and their students, and the review of the DVD footage of classroom observations, are presented to triangulate, extend and support the data collected through observation. This evidence consists of the participants' own perception of their classroom behaviour, and peer checking (Dörnyei, 2007; Robson, 2011). Its strength might be found in the extent to which these data show correspondence between the participants', the assessors' and the researcher's perception of classroom behaviour. The working assumption here is that if the implementation of the model impacted on classroom behaviour, this should be apparent to the participants and the assessors as well as the researcher.

5.1 Evaluation criteria

The evaluation of the implementation is based on a set of evaluation criteria, which identify whether the implementation has succeeded or failed, and the degree of success achieved, if any, in terms of the observation of participants' classroom performance prior to and during their participation in the course.

In order to have construct validity, the evaluation was developed according to the guiding principles and crucial features of the model. Each individual criterion was designed to measure whether or not a particular principle or feature could be recognized, and to investigate to what degree these were recognizable.

5.2 The criteria

Participants' classroom performance—Following a case study approach, participants are to be observed in their own classrooms prior to the commencement of the LTE course and also asked to report on their classroom practices both before the commencement of the course, and during the progression of the course itself. The assumption here is that if the implementation is to be regarded as successful, participants should modify their classroom practices over time, to include the knowledge they have developed.

These modifications need to be noted and measured, through interviews with participants, which can yield qualitative evidence of the participants' perceptions of their own classrooms; systematic classroom observation with the completion of questionnaire checklists, a traditionally quantitative method (Medley, 1992) which can be used to identify whether or not particular behaviours have occurred, quantify the occurrence of particular behaviours, and also to grade specific dimensions of classroom behaviour, possibly leading to qualitative measures; DVD footage of lessons observed; and review of the footage to be conducted by independent assessors, based on the questionnaire

checklist and review questionnaire. Modification of classroom practices would indicate at least partial success in the implementation of the course.

Learners' classroom performance—The assumption here is that the performance of participants' students can indicate the impact of the LTE course on language learners. If classroom practices are modified according to the principles of the model, and these modifications have an effect on learners, their classroom behaviour should change. These changes are to be noted and measured, through classroom observation; interviews with participants; the completion of questionnaire checklists; DVD footage of lessons observed; and review of the footage to be conducted by independent assessors.

If these changes are found to have occurred, it can be assumed that not only was the teachers' behaviour affected by their participation in the course but that it affected the students' behaviour too. If these changes are observed, a higher degree of success in the implementation of the course may be assumed, than if only the classroom practices were seen to have been modified.

Impact evaluation—The governing assumption is that the implementation of the LTE course is geared towards an improvement in learning and teaching conditions in particular target environments. If it can be demonstrated that changes identified in classroom dynamics have led to improvement of teaching/learning conditions, according to the principles of the model, this indicates that the impact of the implementation has been successful.

These changes would have to be noted in the data collected during implementation, measured according to the specific criteria outlined above, and confirmed through review of the footage by independent assessors.

6 Summary

The present study uses a case study approach to research, and both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, to investigate to what extent, if any, the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impacts on participants' classroom behaviour. The investigation was conducted through implementing a professional development course to in-service TESOL teachers in Brazil, and collecting data through classroom observations and interviews.

The methods employed to gather data in this study include the use of a survey questionnaire, systematic observations, an observation questionnaire checklist, DVD recordings, group interviews with participating teachers, unstructured interviews with participating teachers, group interviews with participants' students, and a questionnaire used by independent assessors to review the footage of the classroom observations conducted in Brazil.

Participating teachers classroom behaviour was documented in two stages. The first stage (stage 1) was documented prior to the introduction of the model to the teachers; the second stage (stage 2) was documented after the model had been introduced to the teachers. To establish whether or not different patterns of classroom behaviour were apparent in each stage, the data collected during stages 1 and 2 were compared.

A set of criteria was specifically developed to measure the impact of the guiding principles and crucial features of the model on participants' classroom behaviour, in order to evaluate the implementation and consequently the model itself. The next chapter presents the case study investigated here in detail.

---

[9] This is an important issue which requires its own independent study.

[10] Naturally, interest and engagement are far more complex constructs than can be measured through the occurrence of a behaviour. However, according to the working assumptions in this study, the observation of a set of particular behaviours can indicate evidence of these constructs.

[11] In other contexts, it is possible that teachers will use the target language in the classroom regardless of the students' level of proficiency.

Chapter IV

The Case Study

1 Introduction

In search of ways in which TESOL teacher education can improve the quality of English teaching and learning in the context at hand, a tentative model of LTE was proposed in Chapter II. The model constitutes an attempt to answer the research question: To what extent, if any, does the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impact on participants' classroom behaviour?

This chapter presents a description of an implementation of the LTE model outlined in Chapter II. First, the Brazilian TESOL context is described in section 2, to the extent that it is relevant to the focus of this study, followed by an explanation of TESOL teacher education in Brazil in section 3. An overview of the implementation process is described in section 4. The most important ideas of the chapter are summarized in section 5.

2 The context

To understand the development of Language Teacher Education (LTE), and Second Language Education (SLE) in Brazil, a historical investigation was conducted, to trace their trajectory in the scenario at hand, concerning both classroom practices and teacher education.

Despite compulsorily studying English for several years, from year five onwards, as part of the standard curricula in Brazilian schools, students do not seem to be able to learn the

language, without undertaking extra studies at language schools. The Brazilian TESOL context in regard to LTE seems to be affected by problems similar to those discussed for other TESOL contexts in the literature reviewed (see Chapter I), in addition to by a generally low proficiency in English amongst both the pre-service and in-service teacher population. The approach to TESOL used in Brazilian public schools is mostly Grammar Translation or variations thereof. It is one of the assumptions underlying this study that the problems in TESOL in Brazil are related to LTE.

An overview of the trajectory of SLE in Brazil reveals a long history of English teaching, dating back more than 200 years. Concerns with both quality of instruction and LTE by Brazilian Education authorities have been apparent from as early as the 1930s. The contemporary trajectory of LTE in particular, indicates that reforms are currently being sought by Brazilian universities and education authorities. Recent changes in government educational policies have created possibilities for the reform of LTE curricula at local level.

2.1 History of foreign language teaching in Brazil

Records in Brazilian legislation which refer to obligatory education indicate that English was compulsorily taught to the local economic elite, prior to the 1930s (Machado et al., 2006). In fact, there is also evidence of the inclusion of English language courses in Brazilian schools in the early 1800s: a decree signed by the Regent Prince of Portugal in 1809 stipulated the creation and implementation of a French language course and an English language course in Brazil (Oliveira, 1999), as a part of aristocratic education, in recognition of the usefulness of English and French in international affairs.

Although there is not a complete historiography of English language teaching in the formal education system of the country, records suggest that a college founded in Rio de Janeiro in 1837, Colégio D. Pedro II, was the first in Brazil to include English and French

in its standard curriculum, as modern foreign languages, along with the classical languages Latin and Greek, from its inception, and that the college had an important influence on the inclusion of English amongst the subjects compulsorily taught as part of Brazilian public education (Nogueira, 2007).

In contrast to the case of Greek, Latin, French, German and Spanish, which are no longer taught as part of the standard public education in Brazil, English has been maintained, and is a subject that is still part of standard public schooling: learning English is compulsory in the Brazilian school system. All contemporary curricula, from primary school to university degree courses include a modern foreign language, which in the vast majority of cases is English. Some private institutions offer a choice, generally between Spanish and English.

The methodologies presently used to teach English in Brazil are mostly based on Grammar Translation and audio-lingual methods. Despite early efforts made by Brazilian education officials to implement more effective second/foreign language teaching methodologies, the methodological approaches to language teaching which are still used overwhelmingly in Brazil appear not to have changed for 30 years (see 2.2 below).

There is, however, historical evidence which shows that almost a century ago there were already concerns amongst the government education authorities about the methodological aspects of foreign language teaching in Brazil.

2.2 Brazil in the 1930s and English teaching methodology

The 1930s was an era of deep transformation in Brazil and in the world: the Brazilian political situation had been brewing turbulently for a while with ruptures and shifts of alliance among the ruling oligarchies.

Brazil followed the world tendencies of rupture with the conventional state of affairs and of the pursuit of political and economic restructuring. In 1930, the newly elected

president of Brazil, Julio Prestes, was deposed before assuming office. An interim government took power, and promoted a series of changes. Amongst the policies implemented by the new government, with the objective of reconstructing and modernising the country, were the creation of work laws; the reform of the Brazilian constitution, and emphasis on the reform of the national education system, leading to the creation of the Ministry of Education and Public Health, which reformulated and unified the politics of education in Brazil.

In respect to language teaching, the reform of the education system implemented by the then recently created Education Ministry instituted, by the decree number 20.833, in 1931, that the Direct Intuitive Method was the official method for teaching modern foreign languages (French, English and German) in Brazil. In spite of what was prescribed by the new legislation, "the approach used to teach languages in Brazil never actually went beyond Grammar Translation techniques" (Machado et al, 2006).

Research points out that the main reason the implementation of the legislation failed was the unpreparedness of language teachers in Brazil: "the absolute lack of teachers whose linguistic and pedagogic training would allow the completion of such an advanced programme"[12] rendered the law inapplicable (Chagas, 1957 in Machado et al, 2006, ¶ 8)

2.3 The Current TESOL context in Brazil

The context of language teaching in Brazil in the 1930s, and the Brazilian TESOL field in the second decade of the 21st century, seem to be extremely similar. Recent research (Franco, 2010; Sateles & Almeida Filho, 2010) shows that the situation has not changed over the years, and Grammar Translation has been consolidated as the methodological approach to language teaching used in the Brazilian standard school system, while methodological models mainly based on audio-lingualism are implemented in language schools in Brazil.

Paiva (1997) identifies deficiencies in the Brazilian higher education courses in the area of languages as a major contributing factor for the problems in TESOL in Brazil:

> Undergraduate English degree courses, in general, provide instruction about the language and do not provide any knowledge in the specific field of foreign language learning. We have examined English language undergraduate degree programmes in 7 university faculties in Minas Gerais and the results are indicative of the precariousness of our (language) teachers' education (p. 9-17).

Paiva (1997) recognises a dichotomy in the contemporary Brazilian TESOL scenario, and identifies two groups of institutions which provide English courses: private language institutes and schools belonging to the standard education system. Paiva also identifies the differences in profile between the professionals belonging to each group.

Among teachers of ESL, on the one hand, there are fluent speakers of English, most having acquired oral proficiency overseas but lacking adequate writing skills, who have no formal knowledge of second language acquisition or foreign language teaching and learning, and who work in language institutes. On the other hand, there are graduates with degrees in English Language and Literature (Letras) who in most cases do not speak the language well, have no formal knowledge of second language acquisition or foreign language teaching and learning, but have a solid knowledge of English grammar (as pedagogically specified), and who work in standard schools. The profile of these graduates partially explains the survival of Grammar Translation techniques in English teaching in Brazilian standard schools.

2.4 The Brazilian language institutes

Alongside the standard schools in Brazil, in which English is taught as a subject, there exist English language schools. Below is a general profile of the English language schools in Brazil, based on institutional commonalities at a macro-level, such as the use of overseas-developed materials and standardised pedagogical models. Obviously, at more micro-levels, differences might set these apart.

The absolute majority of language institutes in Brazil are private, expensive institutions, and most language schools in the country are franchises from the UK or the US, and more recently Canada. In addition, a small number of language schools were developed in Brazil, by migrants or locals, based on overseas models. The most important of these are *Fisk*, created by a North American migrant in the 1950s, and *CCAA – Centro de Cultura Anglo Americana* founded in 1961. Both companies have since become powerful franchised chains, and now compete with the overseas-developed *Pink and Blue*, *Wizard*, *CNA*, and other franchisers.

These schools are tightly wrapped in contracts with their franchiser, and are obliged to conform to the prescribed methodology and policies, as well as to use the franchised materials only, excluding the possibility of any supplementation by the school or teachers. Their materials and methodologies are commonly known in Brazil as "The Communicative Approach", but actually derive from audio-lingualism (Franco, 2010).

No formal qualifications are usually required to teach in these schools, but their teachers have often completed the highest levels of studies at one such school. To enforce the prescribed models, the Brazilian language institutes provide "teacher-training" programmes to those who intend to work for them as teachers, and ensure that all teachers conform to the particular instructional methods of the institution.

Ultimately, private language institutes do not offer fertile ground for the implementation of new methodological orientations, for there is no space in those types of institutions for the application of methodologies and techniques other than what is prescribed by the franchiser. Brazilian language institutes, as a whole, constitute an exclusive, self-regulating industry, which is closed to the intervention of academia, or other external influences, such as state education policies.

2.5 The standard education system in Brazil

Education is currently compulsory for children in Brazil from 6 years of age up to completion of fundamental education; a minimum of 9 years of schooling. Brazil offers free public education at all levels of study: fundamental, middle—equivalent to year 10–12 at Australian schools, and superior, including all under-graduate and post-graduate levels.

The standard education system is divided into public and private sectors and both sectors offer the full range, from pre-school up to tertiary education. Some schools offer professionalising programmes along with standard education, turning out certified technicians in diverse areas at the end of high school, granting a chance of a career to those not able to undertake tertiary courses, and also allowing job qualification at a young adult age to those who need to commence employment when they complete school.

In regard to English teaching, both the private and public education sectors in Brazil follow the same policies, and usually start English lessons at year 5, continuing until graduation in year 12. The learning outcome, as far as learning English goes, is no different if the two groups are compared; the great majority of learners fail completely to acquire anything more than a small vocabulary and basic grammar rules, which they seem unable to use in any way[13], despite private schools having access to much better material and being in a superior overall condition.

2.6 English teaching in standard schools

In the standard education system there is a much stronger correlation between LTE and classroom practices. The legislation in Brazil requires that all applicants for teaching positions at standard schools hold a degree in the relevant subject area; in the case of English, only English graduates may apply. These schools are free to choose any methodology and materials, usually trusting the teacher to make all decisions concerning

these. If the teachers wanted and were able to, they could have long since changed the methodology from Grammar Translation.

However, the graduate English teachers have not been prepared to make this transition, and have maintained the same approaches they were subjected to as students and also as teacher trainees. In contrast, teachers without university degrees in English, but who might have oral fluency in English, which would enable them to switch from the Grammar Translation method to more effective approaches, are not allowed to work in the standard school system.

The freedom of choice regarding all aspects of teaching methodology, amongst other factors, makes the standard school system in Brazil the ideal ground for the implementation of innovative TESOL programmes.

3 The curricula of English Language and Literature degrees

Studies conducted by Paiva (2003, 2004) show that recent changes in educational policies allow for improvements to be made to LTE curricula, but suggest that Brazilian language teacher educators are not well prepared to promote deep curricular restructure. This situation highlights the relevance of the present study and others of its kind. The inadequacy of Brazilian LTE programmes explains why teachers are not sufficiently equipped for teaching English in Brazilian schools (Paiva, 2004).

In the most recent curriculum evaluation, *English Undergraduate Degree Courses Evaluation and Teacher Education* – 2004 (Vol. 5, n.1 and 2) Paiva concludes, with regard to the current curricula of English undergraduate degree programmes in universities across the country:

> The analysis of the syllabus generally reveals the predominance of traditionally organised curricula, designed to include courses which do not discuss the developments in the field (p. 2); the syllabuses of double specialisation (Portuguese and English) degrees continue to favour

> Portuguese language contents, leaving the foreign language with very little space in the curriculum (p. 8); Foreign LTE content is generally ignored, and the courses in which curricular activities stimulate reflections about acquisition, teaching and learning of foreign language are rare (p. 8)

The curricula of all English Language and Literature degree programmes in Brazil followed, until 2002, a rigid structure determined by the National Education Council—CNE ("Conselho Nacional de Educação"). This structure included a list of compulsory courses to be completed by the students for the award of the degree, which was called the minimum curriculum. Universities were permitted to add courses to their programmes but could not change the minimum curriculum.

In Brazil, the English Language and Literature degree courses are known as "Letras" courses. The programme was created in the 1950s, mainly to educate teachers of Portuguese, and offered a choice of two specializations: Portuguese, or Portuguese combined with a foreign language—in most case English. It is evident, shown by the lack of a degree exclusively dedicated to a foreign language, that the educational legislation favoured the study of Portuguese.

In 1962 the Brazilian Federal Council of Education approved Valnir Chagas' proposition n° 283, to create a minimum curriculum for the "Letras" courses. The document stipulated that the degree programmes were to be composed of the following courses: Portuguese; Portuguese Literature; Brazilian Literature, Latin; Linguistics, plus three courses chosen from the following: Brazilian Culture; Literary Theory; a modern foreign language; literature corresponding to the chosen modern foreign language; Latin Literature; Roman Philology; Greek; Greek Literature.

Furthermore, the base document of the minimum curriculum from 1962 declares that it is a total absurdity to authorize someone who does not have complete mastery of the Portuguese idiom to teach a foreign language in Brazil. In other words, according to this legislation, teaching English in Brazil requires a double specialization—Portuguese and

English—which excludes the possibility of anyone without academic competence in Portuguese teaching English in Brazil, i.e., most native English speakers.

In 1966, the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) approved a proposal from the University of Sao Paulo (USP), to create an experimental third specialization for the "Letras" degree: Foreign Language. From that point on, the study of foreign languages at Brazilian universities was detached from the study of Portuguese and a specialization solely for English was created (Paiva, 2003, p. 11).

In 1969, resolution n° 9 determined that the following courses were to be added to the minimum curriculum of all teaching degrees: Psychology of Education, Didactics, and Structure of Secondary Level Education. The resolution also determined the inclusion of a compulsory practicum component in all education courses. Paiva points out that the resolution does not make any reference to disciplines specific to the teaching of English (Paiva, 2003).

In 1972, the resolution n° 1/72 established a total of 2200 hours of activities for the "Letras" degree. Paiva demonstrates the lack of interest in the English teacher manifested by the education authorities, when she writes: "The legislation has never shown any concern with English Teacher Education, and has never defined (in the case of the double specializations) a percentage of the total hours to be dedicated to the study of English." (Paiva, 2003, p. 12).

According to Paiva, prior to 2002, there were no significant changes in the educational legislation in Brazil from the time of the 1972 resolution, and the context of the "Letras" courses remained practically unaltered.

After the most recent reforms approved by the competent organ (CNE) in 2002, and implemented before 2004, the curricula of the "Letras" courses appear to be organised with more flexibility. Instead of the minimum curriculum, a new concept has been implemented, according to which the course is to be organised by the universities,

respecting the guidelines established by the CNE. This means that each university is now free to build individual curricula, provided the CNE guidelines are met. Universities now have the opportunity to address problems regarding LTE by developing language-teaching-specific curricula.

It appears that the changes in the educational legislation have not had the desired effect on the "Letras" courses yet. This might be due to university officials' inadequate preparedness to deal with reforms at such a deep level, which can be explained as a result of having a curriculum imposed upon them for 40 years. However, the simple fact that universities are now able to implement reforms is a very important step towards better LTE Programmes in Brazil.

Paiva's conclusions are supported by the following examination of a standard curriculum currently in use by a Brazilian Federal University at the time of writing, 2013 (see appendix 7). A brief analysis of this curriculum shows that specific language-teaching courses are not prioritised, nor given sufficient space in the structure of the course as a whole. From the 2,295 hours established for the completion of the course, only 555 hours are dedicated to courses with specific content in teaching and learning, and the study of linguistics. Of this amount, only 180 hours are dedicated to courses with specific content in language teaching and learning.

As Paiva (2003) indicates, even the practicum component of these courses is "generally supervised by a pedagogue without academic training in the specific (language teaching) area" (p. 12).

Table 30, below, shows a list of all courses from the curriculum which have specific content regarding either teaching in general, linguistics, or language teaching in particular. Only three of the courses focus on language teaching; these are marked in bold.

CODE	COURSE	CREDITS	LOAD
404059	Introduction to Linguistics	04	60
404051	Linguistics I	04	60
401011	Structure and Functioning of Secondary Education	04	60
406256	Introduction to learning Psychology	04	60
401101	Pedagogy	05	75
401143	**English Teaching Practice I**	04	60
401144	**English Teaching Practice II**	04	60
404084	Psycholinguistics	04	60
404085	**English Teaching /Applied Linguistics**	04	60

Table 30

4 Project implementation

The Self-Adaptive Model of LTE was implemented in a course provided to a group of in-service TESOL teachers, working at public schools, from February to June 2010, in Joao Pessoa, Brazil. Data were collected, through interviews with participating teachers, interviews with participants' students, classroom observation questionnaires, group reports, discussions and evaluations, footage of observations, discussions and interviews, review questionnaires completed by external assessors who reviewed the footage of the classroom observations.

4.1 The case study

The purpose of the case study was to investigate whether the in-service teachers were responsive to the principles and the model proposed, to establish whether they would be inclined and able to implement some of the ideas generated during the course in their classrooms, and to investigate whether or not their students would respond to changes promoted by their teachers. This investigation was conducted through the delivery of a

professional development course to State TESOL teachers, in which the Self-Adaptive Model was implemented.

The participating teachers answered questionnaires, were interviewed by the researcher, reported on their experimentation with the changes they promoted in their classrooms, and were observed by the researcher in their respective classrooms. Some of the interviews, reports and classroom observation were recorded on DVD.

4.2 Context

The Self-Adaptive Model of LTE was implemented from February 11 to June 17, 2010, with a group of English teachers who worked at local public schools. The course started with 13 teachers, and four of them took it to completion.

4.2.1 The school

The LTE model was implemented through a professional development course conducted on the premises of Centro de Linguas (Languages Centre), a language school funded by the State government, in Joao Pessoa. The school is a public version of a private language school, offering similar conditions to those in franchised language school chains at token rates. It is the only one of its kind in the whole state.

4.2.2 Course participants

The four participants who completed the programme were female, aged between 24 and 57, and taught at public high schools. Three of the teachers worked at State schools and one at a Federal institution. The state teachers, Teacher 1, 2, and 3, were observed in their classrooms, and some of these observations were recorded on DVD, constituting one of the sources of data presented here. The teacher working at a Federal institution, Teacher 4, however, did not obtain permission from her school for the observations to be conducted in her classroom. In the case of Teacher 4, due to the impossibility of

collecting data to establish whether any changes had taken place in her classroom, no further mention of her participation is made.

4.3 Implementation

The course was divided into two main parts. The first part was designed to promote interactive guided discussions and encourage the writing of a reflective diary by each participant. The second part included observations of participants' classroom practices and their own reflections on their implementation of the principles of model.

Participants met once a week for a two-hour workshop. An online forum was opened and participants were encouraged to contribute and use it as a channel to voice their opinions, doubts, critiques, suggestions or in any way they saw fit.

A preliminary observation exercise was carried out by the course facilitator, to investigate the participants' perceptions of their own patterns of classroom behaviour. In this exercise, participants were asked to reflect on their own classroom practices to produce a self-observation report according to the observation questionnaire (See Chapter III section 3.6). Participants were then asked to observe one another in their classrooms (see appendix 8 for a sample of questionnaires filled out during peer observation), and were observed by the researcher according to the same questionnaire checklist.

The results of participants' peer observations and self-observations coincided totally. The facilitator's observation results differed from those of the participants. According to the participants 45% of them used Grammar Translation in their classrooms as the main approach, and 55% used the Communicative Approach; 70% claimed to use course-books; and only 10% perceived their students' level of engagement as low. The researcher's observations were, using the same questionnaire, that 85% of the teachers used Grammar Translation as their main approach; only 15% used a course-book, and

that in 55% of the classes observed, the students displayed low levels of engagement. These percentages are shown in Table 31, below.

According to	Teachers	Facilitator
Used Grammar Translation	45%	85%
Used Communicative Approach	55%	15%
Had course-books	70%	15%
Students had low engagement	10%	55%

Table 31

It became evident through the facilitator's observations that there had been a misunderstanding among participants completing the questionnaire about the use of course-books. Some teachers used teachers' books to guide their work, but their students had no books, which characterised the books as teacher supports or aids rather than course-books. It was also clear that participants were not sure about what the approach that they used was called and thought that Grammar Translation was restricted to the translation of texts.

The first part of the course introduced the core concepts of the model, and discussions explored how these could be applied to each participant's teaching context. Participants' level of interest in and acceptance of these ideas was high, as it is evident in participants' reports and interviews presented in Chapter V. All participants agreed to try to make changes to their classroom practices based on the approach with which they were engaging.

In the second part of the course, course activities were adapted to suit course dynamics. Despite the high level of interest displayed by course participants in the course, it proved extremely difficult to have them produce extra-classroom written work during the first part. Even their participation in the online forum was scant. Since participants seemed reluctant to do additional written work, oral reports about their attempts to implement the

ideas they chose were recorded on DVD by the researcher. Most of the observations by the researcher of participants' classroom were also recorded on DVD.

Flexible activities are conducive to adaptability and allow for practices to emerge from course dynamics. Instead of imposing a pre-determined practice—the writing of the journal—the activity was adapted in response to the dynamics present at that context; DVD recorded reports. Although the activity of writing reports had been successfully implemented in a pilot study with pre-service teachers, it did not suit the specificities of the context in the case study.

As opposed to pre-service teachers, in-service teachers do not normally engage in this type of activity—they are not enrolled in a class with assignments—and are more pressured for time outside classroom. After the adaptation, the activity still served the same purpose, to produce a record of participants' engagement with the proposed model, and the practice fit the context.

Unfortunately, the number of participants dropped to four due to changes in teachers' working schedules. Shortly after the beginning of the course, State teachers went on a strike that lasted from 26 of February to 30 of March. On returning to work, all teachers had to follow class schedules which differed from those they were following before the strike broke out, as a measure adopted by the State government to compensate students for the time lost during the strike.

The new schedules were part of the agreement between the teachers' union and the State government to end the strike, and could not be negotiated. In many cases, new schedules affected participants' availability, and caused them to abandon the course, as is shown by the results of an exit questionnaire, filled out by participants leaving the project (See Appendix 9 for a sample of exit questionnaires).

4.4 The remaining participants

As the course progressed, participants were asked to try to implement what they thought would be applicable to their context in their own classrooms, reflect on the results of the implementation and students' reactions, and report back to the group. They were also asked to evaluate the course as it went along, according to their perception of relevance and usefulness, and report on its ongoing impact on their teaching. This was done through a series of collective interviews, video recorded by the course facilitator, in which participants were given the opportunity to report on any aspects they wished to discuss and were also invited to answer questions. These video recordings constitute another source of data, presented in Chapter V.

These data, the participants' reports and interviews, and the classroom observations, show that the teachers were able to promote changes in their classrooms in accordance with the proposed model. Classroom observations also show that the changes promoted by these teachers had an impact on students' behaviour.

5 Summary

In summary, the tradition of English teaching has a long history in Brazil, dating back to the 1800s. The approach still predominantly used nowadays at standard schools in Brazil is Grammar Translation, which causes English teaching to be ineffective. There is evidence which suggests that this shortage might be the result of the inadequacy of the LTE programmes offered by Brazilian universities.

The Self-Adaptive Model was fully implemented with in-service TESOL teachers, to investigate whether the teachers would promote changes in their classrooms, and if so whether these changes would have an impact on their students' behaviour.

The teachers were introduced to the main ideas and principles of the model through a series of group discussions and reflections, designed to facilitate the fusion of the proposed ideas and the participants' own standpoint on teaching and learning, with the objectives of enabling participants to construct a hybrid and more complex view of the processes involved in education, and promoting a critical re-evaluation of participants' own beliefs and practices, in light of their more complex understanding.

The data collected during implementation of the project are presented and analysed in the next chapters.

---

[12] All quotes from documents in Portuguese have been translated into English by the researcher.
[13] This probably accounts for the popularity of the commercial language schools in Brazil.

Chapter V

Results

1 Introduction

In this chapter, a detailed description of the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE to in-service teachers in Brazil and the data collected during the implementation are presented, highlighting relevant results, to the extent that they contribute to answering the research question: to what extent, if any, does the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impact on participants' classroom behaviour?

First the sources of data are listed in section 2. Second, excerpts from interviews with participants are presented in section 3. Data collected during participants' classroom observations, including transcripts from DVD recorded lessons, a narrative description of each lesson observed and the researcher's comments about each lesson observed are presented in section 4. In section 5, the reviews of the classroom footage by the independent assessors are presented and discussed. The crucial points of the chapter are summarized in section 6.

2 Data to be evaluated

The data presented here were collected through a variety of methods, which include interviews with participating teachers, recorded on DVD and transcribed by the researcher; observation of participating teachers in their classrooms, recorded on DVD by

the researcher; observation questionnaire filled out by the researcher during classroom observations; observation questionnaire filled out by independent assessors who watched the DVD footage of the lessons observed; review questionnaire filled out by the independent assessors during the review of the footage of the lessons observed; and transcripts of lessons observed, translated by the researcher when the utterances were in Portuguese. All these sources of data are presented in this chapter and are analysed and discussed in Chapter VI.

3 Interviews with participants and their students

According to participating teachers' feedback, excerpted below from video recorded group interviews, their students had received the changes well. The teachers also said that they could see positive results from the implementation of their new approach. The participants saw the course as an opportunity to better their teaching, and viewed the content as novel. Some extracts revealing these opinions are found in the teachers' feedback presented below.

3.1 Excerpts from Teacher 1

(Transcribed, and edited to remove extraneous noise)

> This course has been an opportunity to open my mind to English language teaching in a way that I never had in any language course or at university. This course gave me the opportunity to tell my students that they would have a part to play in their own education, and that they could bring suggestions to the classroom, that they would be allowed to express themselves as well as I am, so we could learn together.
>
> I am trying—we are only at the beginning—to take this methodology to my classroom, which in fact is a reality very different from that of my colleagues, because some of my students are not there willingly, not because they really want to learn, but for the school certificate or other reasons, and to encourage education, specially English, is complicated. But this course is giving me this opportunity and I will succeed.

Well, their (students) suggestions were... I found very interesting, because they wrote things I never imagined they would like. I told them that if they had a job and wanted to know anything related to their job, they only had to write it down and we would try. There is a saleswoman who wants to know how she can offer pants, shirts—she works out on the streets, and she wants to know how she will offer her merchandise to tourists, if a tourist comes along. So this is all from their day to day life, it goes beyond the grammar I teach them, and many times we... I particularly get stuck in grammar, even because at university I studied a lot of grammar, so it goes beyond grammar, goes to conversation, to dialogue, goes to their day to day talk, and this is what I am going to try, bring this conversation to the classroom.

Some of them were really interested, even though I have papers here in which they say: the teacher is wonderful, the teacher this, the teacher that; but I want to know what interests them.

So some became very interested and I too became very interested in their ideas, I found it surprising.

3.2 Excerpts from Teacher 2

I found in this course another opportunity to help me build a favourable working space, learning space in my classroom. Here I found many tips and directions to do things right.

So I can already see the fruit of this work. Students' level of interest, engagement and participation are higher.

For me it means they feel very at ease, and I am enjoying this because I love changes and trying new stuff. I welcome the opportunity to participate in this project, and thank you for it, because I have been teaching for a long time and had never been offered anything like this, or anything at all, really.

Question: these changes you are promoting in class, do you think your students like them?

Of course! I need more time, and I expect them to improve a lot, but of course they love this, because everybody wants to be comfortable.

Questions: do you think this is going to have a positive impact on their learning? Do you think they will learn better?

Of course! Without a doubt! For me, when I am comfortable I learn much more.

3.3 Excerpts from Teacher 3

> Before this course I gave classes in a different way. I use to arrive in class and follow my lesson plan; it was much more I than I and my students. After starting this course, despite being away for three weeks, I have tried to change something.
>
> *Question: what is your evaluation of this experience? Do you think you would go back teaching the way you taught before this course or you will continue in the way you are doing it now?*
>
> No, I will continue in the style I am experimenting now; it is much better. Since the classes are at night, say 9 o'clock, 10 o'clock at night, if the students participate in this way, the classes become more interesting and dynamic, less tiring, so nobody falls asleep because they will always be expected to participate at any time. I reward their participation with marks to encourage them too, and they always respond well. I also tell them the topics for next class, so they can bring materials, organise what they know about it.

3.4 Participants' overall impressions of the new approach

In video interviews with the researcher, participants were asked to compare the approach they were presently taking in their classrooms to their traditional approach and indicate which they preferred and why.

> The new approach has an impact on education and the teaching learning process, in the way content is worked in the classroom, and it is much more than the traditional paradigm, which is based on grammar, texts and that is it. The new approach is very different; working with both paradigms simultaneously I can see that there are huge differences. The new approach is an instrument to make the students think, give them the opportunity to formulate their own phrases, to bring something from the English language to their own realities, so there is a huge difference between the two paradigms.
>
> I prefer to work using the new approach, even though it is more complicated for me, because of my low proficiency, but I am trying to improve myself.
>
> *Question: why do you prefer the new approach if it is more difficult to work with?*

Because it gives more opportunities for the students to talk, for the students to learn, and because I can see that it benefits my students.

Question: so, do you think it has a positive effect on your students?

Yes, I do. As a teacher I do, I am sure of it.

Question: would you be able to evaluate if the students learn better with the new approach than the traditional approach?

With the new approach they learn much better. I know because when I go to the classroom where I work with the new approach, students are able to express themselves, which is different from the traditional paradigm, in which I give them material and they are only expected to give the answers which are in the key, they don't contribute anything and what is in the book is all there is. So the new approach develops the students more, puts them into more contact with the language inside their own reality.

The use of the new approach in one of my classrooms is making it possible for students to talk more about the subjects, to say openly what they want and what they don't want to learn, so that they can participate actively in the classroom. I am now asking them to use dictionaries, which many don't have yet.

Comparing it to the traditional paradigm, what I can say is that the traditional paradigm is tighter, doesn't offer much opportunity for the student to integrate or participate, students sometimes have difficulties asking questions, and with the new approach it is different, the teacher is always creating opportunities for the students to express their opinions, expectations, likes and dislikes. So the new approach opens a possibility for the student to have a voice in the classroom, and for the teacher to get closer to the students, get to know students better, find out what they want to learn, and also to learn with them.

Question: do you think the fact that students have a voice has a positive impact on their learning?

It does have a positive impact, because they end up freeing themselves more and revealing what they would like to learn, what they are curious about, because they have curiosity; they just don't have the language, and if they think it is too complicated they give up. So if students have a voice in the classroom this is good, it is very good for them because classes are more productive than following the traditional paradigm, which we always used before.

3.5 Excerpts from students

Some students were also interviewed, and recorded at the end of the course.

Students were asked to comment and give their opinions about the changes implemented by the teacher. Below are excerpts from the transcripts, translated and edited for noise.

> (1) I loved it. I simply am loving this change because I think an English course has to put you in situations like you were out of the country, so much so that we know how to talk in English in the classroom, with the CD and the notebooks, but when we are put in front of the class it is different, sometimes you get stuck and you don't know a word, then you are really being trained to speak English. I loved it.
>
> (2) I also love it, because it is different, and we are forced to talk, and we are forced to research, so it is different.
>
> (3) I agree with her. Even because you are already tired of that school thing, so this is different.
>
> (4) I think you have to learn authentic language, that which you learn from your notebook is not it. Suppose you learn Portuguese from books and come to Brazil. Nobody will speak neatly, and no one will wait for you to open a book and recite already made phrases. So this is good.
>
> (5) I think it is not only the study of the language, you see other things this way; it is about general learning.

4 Observation of teachers

During the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model in Joao Pessoa, Brazil, participating teachers were observed in their classrooms and recorded on DVD by the researcher. The observations were divided into two stages, referred to here as stage 1; before the teachers were introduced to the principles of the model, and stage 2; approximately three months after the teachers were introduced to the principles of the model. During the observations, the observation questionnaire was filled out by the

researcher, as a means of recording aspects of classroom behaviour and gathering evidence to identify the relevant changes.

In this section, the researcher's observations of the participating teachers in their classrooms are presented. Each observation is divided into four sections: introduction, excerpts of a transcript of the lesson observed, a narrative description of the lesson observed, and a comment section.

4.1 Teacher 1

Teacher number 1 was female, aged 24, with two years teaching experience. At the time the research was conducted, she was teaching at two schools, one private and another public, and taught approximately 500 students in total. She implemented some principles of the model in one class at the public school, where she taught approximately 300 high school students in total. At the public school, the classes were held in the evenings and were part of the school's curriculum, English being a compulsory subject in the Brazilian standard education system.

Experience	2 years	
Qualifications	Undergraduate	Post-graduate
	Letras degree (English Language and Literature)	No
Completion	2009	-
Schools taught at	Public and Private High-schools	
Level of proficiency	Low	
Goals	Motivate students and create more interactive classroom dynamics	

Table 32, below, provides a summary of information about Teacher 1

Table 32

These evening courses in Brazil are considered especially problematic for various reasons: many of the students work or perform other activities during the day, and are frequently tired when they attend school; a large percentage of the students do not attend

school regularly, and the number of absentees is usually high; class time is 20% shorter than in day courses.

Table 33, below, shows the observation questionnaire for Teacher 1

Researcher's observation questionnaire for Teacher 1

	Teacher 1	Obs 1	Obs 2	Obs 3	Obs 4	Obs 5
1) Which approach best resembles the approach used by the teacher?	Grammar translation	**X**				
	Communicative					
	Audiolingual					
	Model-based		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
2) How high was the students' level of interest?	High			**X**	**X**	**X**
	Medium high		**X**			
	Medium					
	Medium low					
	Low	**X**				
3) How high was the students' level of engagement?	High		**X**		**X**	**X**
	Medium high			**X**		
	Medium					
	Medium low	**X**				
	Low					
4) How was the content presented?	Teacher tells	**X**				
	Teacher explains					
	Teacher Asks					
	Group investigates		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
5) Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
6) Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her?	Yes	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No					
7) Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
8) Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
9) Did the teacher encourage Ss' interaction with each other?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
10) Was there any group work/pair work?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
11) Did students contribute to the lesson?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
12) Was learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
13) Did students display learning autonomy?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
14) Did students collaborate with each other?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
15) What language was used by the teacher?	Target					
	Local	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	Both					
16) Did students produce the target language?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				
17) Were students encouraged to produce the target language?	Yes		**X**	**X**	**X**	**X**
	No	**X**				

Table 33

Other reasons for these evening courses to be considered problematic are: the student population is normally heterogeneous, comprising students at regular school age and mature students, who have decided to resume school later in life, frequently because they did not have the opportunity in their youth, and are trying to ascend to a better position in the job market. The students' age can range from mid-teens to late 50s or older. The classes observed had around 30 students each.

Generally, these students know very little prescriptive/traditional grammar in either Portuguese or English. The majority would struggle in Portuguese classes as much as they do in English classes. Their speech is often ungrammatical in their mother tongue, by traditional standards; they usually have a limited range of vocabulary; and do not produce or understand complex phrasal structures. Some of them would be considered semi-literate, by traditional standards.

4.1.1 Teacher 1 – stage 1 – Observation 1

At the beginning of the project, Teacher 1 was concerned about her students' level of interest, which she considered low. Preliminary observations by the researcher conducted in February 2010 confirmed her impressions; students seemed demotivated and apathetic. The first lesson observed in stage 1 followed a knowledge-transfer approach, and was based on explaining points of English grammar in Portuguese. As can be seen in the transcript[14] below, there was not much interaction between teacher and students, or amongst students themselves in the context of the lesson. The little interaction that was observed between teacher and students happened mostly in Portuguese, and was either initiated by the teacher asking students to answer questions, or by a few students checking if they understood what the given activity was. No questions were asked either way about the content.

4.1.1.1 Transcript – Teacher 1 – Observation 1

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher).

Teacher: Vocês estão vendo aqui os pronomes que nós estudamos; alguns verbos e substantivos. [You can see here (written on the board) the pronouns we have studied; some verbs and nouns]

Students: Silent

Teacher: você joga futebol? [Do you play football?]

Student: I not football.

Teacher: Espera ai! Você gosta de futebol? Você joga? [Hold on a moment! Do you like football? Do you play?]

Student: Não [no]

Teacher: Você poderia ter escrito ai: I play football. [You could have written there: I play football] Mas como vocês perguntariam a ela se ela joga futebol? [But how would you ask her if she plays football?]

Students: Silent

Teacher: Se eu quiser perguntar a ela; no caso você, se ela joga futebol, qual o auxiliar que eu usaria? [if I wanted to ask her, in this case you, if she plays football, which auxiliary would I use?]

The teacher points at *do* written on the board

Students: Do

Teacher: E qual o pronome que eu usaria? [And which pronoun would I use?]

The teacher points at *you* written on the board

Students: you

Teacher: E por que eu não usaria *does*? [And why would I not use *does*?] Porque *does* é para ser usado com [Because *does* is to be used with]

The teacher points at *he*, *she* and *it* written on the board

Students: He, she and it.

Teacher: Eu quero que vocês formem seis frases, usando a estrutura. Como nos já estudamos o "simple present", vocês lembram que nos temos dois auxiliares, o *do* e o *does.* Vocês lembram dos dois auxiliares, que nos usamos para interrogativa? E dois auxiliares que, acrescentando *o not*, ficaria don't e doesn't. [I want you to form six phrases. As we already studied the simple present, you can remember the two auxiliaries: *do* and *does*. Do you remember these two auxiliaries which we use for interrogatives? And two auxiliaries which, adding *not,* become *don't* and *doesn't*]

The teacher writes the English auxiliaries on the board as she speaks.

Teacher: Vamos supor que estou falando sobre mim. Você vai formar seis frases, por exemplo: "I drink coffee". Eu bebo café; uma frase simples. Se eu quizesse dizer: eu não jogo futebol. O que eu escreveria? *I* [Suppose I am talking about myself. You will form six phrases, for example: I drink coffee. I drink coffee; a simple phrase. If I wanted to say: I don't play football. What would you write? *I*]

The teacher points to the pronoun *I* written on the board.

Students: I

Teacher: Don’t

The teacher points to the auxiliary *don’t* written on the board.

Students: Don’t

Teacher: Play

The teacher points to the verb *play* written on the board.

Students: Play

Teacher: Football

The teacher points to the noun *football* written on the board.

Students: Football

Teacher: Então vocês vão formar seis frases. Podem ser seis na negativa e seis na afirmativa. Por exemplo: I drive truck; eu dirijo caminhão. [Then you will form six phrases. It can be six negatives or six affirmatives. For example: I drive truck.]

The teacher points to each word in this phrase, which are written on the board, as she talks: *I, drive,* and *truck*. She repeats this action throughout the entire explanation.

Teacher: Ou eu posso fazer uma negativa: I don’t drive truck; eu não dirijo caminhão. Por que que eu uso o *don’t*? Porque *doesn’t* e para *he, she, it*. Então vocês formam seis frases, usando apenas essas palavras que nos estudamos. Eu posso apagar o quadro? [Or I can make a negative: I don’t drive truck. Why do I use *don’t?* Because *doesn’t* is for *he, she, it*. So

54 you will form six phrases; using only the words we have studied. Can I

55 erase the board?]

56 Students: Silent

4.1.1.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript above.

In this lesson, the teacher assumes the traditional lockstep position; stands in front of the class and gives instructions for all the students to follow in concert. She talks to the students in Portuguese using meta-language, i.e., talking about the grammatical properties of the items she wants them to use and the processes she wants them to perform (Lines 1–4). The students are not responsive. Even when the teacher asks if she can erase the work from the black board, at the end of the transcript, no one seems to care enough to answer her.

The teacher reviews the use of simple present in English, and the affirmative and negative forms of the auxiliary *do*. She gives students a list of English verbs, such as *drink, eat, drive and play*; personal pronouns, *I, you, he, she, it*; and nouns, including *football, coffee,* and *truck*. The teacher writes these words on the board, grouped according to grammatical categories, and tells students that the words are to be used in an exercise: writing phrases in English.

The teacher gives a few examples of phrases in English, using the words which were given to the students. Her examples include *I don't play football*. The teacher emphasizes that only the words given in the list are to be used in the exercise. When, a little while later, the teacher asks a student in Portuguese if she plays football, the student is unable to reply correctly in English that she does not (lines 5–9). The teacher talks to the student in Portuguese and then tells the class, in Portuguese, that the student does not play football

and asks the class how they would ask the student, in English, if she played football. The teacher does not even wait for an answer and, indeed, no one does answer (lines 10–13).

The teacher goes straight to the blackboard and asks, in Portuguese, if the students remember the forms of the auxiliary verb they had already studied so many times: *do* and *does*. The students do not reply. The teacher then reminds the students of the two forms of the auxiliary verbs used to make questions in English, and asks them to practise with a partner asking questions using *do you*. She gives students a few examples. The teacher asks students which pronoun goes with each auxiliary, and she answers her own questions pointing to the appropriate pronoun written on the board; the students just read aloud from the board.

The teacher then asks students which auxiliary they would use if they wanted to ask their classmate if she played football. Again the teacher does not even wait for any of the students to try to answer her question. She continues guiding them, as she points to words written on the board for students to read (lines 14–22).

The teacher tells the students to ask each other questions using the words given, and instructs them not to write down the questions they are to ask their partners, but rather to write down the answers given by their partners. She goes back to the blackboard and again calls students' attention to the use of '*s*' for third person singular and to the structure of the answers they need to write, namely "pronoun" + "verb" + "Noun" (lines 1–3), as she refers to these word classes in Portuguese: pronome + verbo + substantivo. The teacher then writes answers using the negative construction in English, reminding students how to form the negative using the auxiliary *do* (lines 23–54).

Class time is over before they can start the exercise.

4.1.1.3 Comments

This lesson was a classic example of the knowledge-transfer paradigm in action in language education. The lesson proceeded in a strongly controlled manner, with the teacher demonstrating her knowledge of the content, which students were supposed to absorb. Students were not supposed to make any contributions, only to reproduce the content they were given. This was highlighted when the teacher emphasized that only the words from the given list were to be used in the exercise (lines 51–54). Students' participation was minimal, and they seemed to display very little interest, probably because they were unable to understand the teacher's instructions and explanations, despite the fact that they were delivered in Portuguese. The use of metalanguage—discourse about grammatical structure—is often not comprehensible to these students, who do not necessarily understand basic grammatical classification.

It is interesting to note that, back on the blackboard, when the teacher asked students how they would ask their colleague in English if she played football (lines 11–16), she had previously provided the students with the example, in English, *Do you play football?* and, despite that, the class still could not answer the teacher's questions.

4.1.2 Teacher 1 in the workshops

During the workshops, Teacher 1 concentrated on aspects of the model related to students' motivation. She explained that the vast majority of her students had low level knowledge of English, very few opportunities to use English in their daily lives, little or no desire to learn the language, and many were not in her classroom willingly and saw no reason for the study of English. Her goal in the workshops was to develop ways that could help her encourage her students and create more interactive classroom dynamics, in the hope that this would lead to an increase in students' level of interest and participation.

Before the second lesson observed by the researcher, in stage 2 (nine weeks after the first lesson observed), Teacher 1 introduced her students to the basic principles of the model, and proposed a partnership to them. She told students she would like them to work as a team, including herself as one of the members. If they agreed, they could learn together; help each other learning; students could have the opportunity to participate in classroom decisions; and everyone would have to share the responsibility for the work they were going to do.

With the students' acceptance, she began to investigate what her students would like to learn in her class. The teacher asked students to write down issues they would like to learn about, or language functions which they felt they could perhaps be able to use at work or in other aspects of their lives. According to the teacher, the students' responses surprised her, and the experience seemed to lead to the development of better rapport between her and the students. This follows the principles of the model: complementarity, dynamism and self-adaptation. If learners give input to lesson content, they complement the teachers' knowledge (complementarity); if their input is accepted it can be transformed through the lesson and transform the lesson simultaneously (dynamism); and if this is the case, the teaching learning process is adapted in response to classroom change (self-adaptation). This can lead to improvement in learning, since people learn better if they have a genuine interest in the content.

Despite her own difficulties with English, specially speaking skills, on her own assessment, Teacher 1 continued to work on lesson plans to implement increasingly unstructured lessons, gradually giving students more control over their own activities. Notably, it is another characteristic of the model that classroom practice should emerge from the interaction between classroom participants.

Shortly after she began implementing her new approach, the teacher reported initial resistance from some students to the changes she was trying to implement, and said that

she considered that it would take some time for many of them to understand what she was trying to do, and embrace this more challenging model of learning. Nevertheless, Teacher 1 seemed very confident that her efforts would bear fruit, and also reported positive effects of the implementation of her new approach. Lessons observed subsequently from May to June 2010 confirmed changes in the teacher's approach and in the classroom dynamics.

4.1.3 Teacher 1 – stage 2 – Observation 2

The second lesson observed, approximately 9 weeks after the first observation, showed a completely different picture from the previous one. The dynamics in the classroom had changed noticeably, and were more aligned with the principles of the model: the approach used by the teacher was markedly different, and the students' level of interest and participation had increased.

This lesson followed a model unlike the one adopted in the lesson observed previously. Instead of giving the students the grammatical structures to be studied, and explaining through the use of meta-language how they are used, the teacher used an interactive approach, giving students the chance to participate in the construction of the explanations, and relied less on the jargon of grammar, and more on students understanding what they were meant to do. This clearly reflects a move away from knowledge transfer, in the direction of knowledge construction.

4.1.3.1 Transcript – Teacher 1 – Observation 2

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

Teacher: Hoje eu trouxe algumas figuras para vocês. Eu vou colocar aqui no quadro e vocês vão descrever para mim. [Today I brought you some

pictures. I am going to place them here on the board and I want you to describe them to me.]

Teacher: Como é a aparência desse homem? Como vocês descrevem ele? [What is this man's appearance? How would you describe him?]

Students: Gordo [Fat]

Teacher: O homem é gordo, que em Inglês se diz *fat*. Que mais? [The man is fat, which in English is called *fat*. What else?]

The teacher sticks a card on the board, next to the picture being described, which reads *fat*. She repeats the word aloud a couple of times, and the students repeat after her.

The teacher touches the top of her head with her fingers showing her hair.

Students: Careca [Bald]

Teacher: Muito bem. Ele é careca, que em Inglês é *bald*. [Very good. He is bald, which in English is *bald*]

The teacher sticks a card on the board, next to the picture being described, which reads *bald*. She repeats the word aloud a couple of times, and the students repeat after her.

Teacher: Que mais? Gordo, careca e o que mais? [What else? Fat, bald and what else?]

A student: Feio [Ugly]

Teacher: (humorously) Assim não é legal; chamar os outros de feio. [This is not nice, call other people ugly]

Students: Baixo [Short]

Teacher: Muito bem; ele é baixo. [Very well. He is short]

The teacher sticks a card on the board, next to the picture being described, which reads *short*. She repeats the word aloud a couple of times, and the students repeat after her without being told to do so. She carries on describing the other pictures with the students, supplying cards with the English equivalent for each word contributed by the students, pronouncing the words aloud, which the students repeat after her.

Teacher: Agora que nos temos vários adjetivos, vocês podem formar frases sobre vocês usando o verbo *to be* que nos já estudamos, e poderiam também incluir o verbo *have* que é ter em Inglês. Eu tenho cabelos assim. Eu tenho olhos assim. [Now that we have many adjectives, you can write phrases about yourselves using the verb *to be* which we have studied before, and you could also include the verb *to have*, which means *have* in English. I have hair like this. I have eyes like that.]

4.1.3.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

In this lesson, Teacher 1 places a series of pictures on the blackboard, and asks students to describe them, guiding students a little through the use of mime. As students describe the pictures in Portuguese, she sticks cards onto the board, with the adjectives used by the students, written in English, next to the corresponding pictures, and repeats the English word a few times orally. The class is more alive than it had been in the previous observation. Students' level of participation is much higher and the exercise creates the impression that students are contributing the adjectives, even though their contributions are constrained by what the teacher has written on the cards.

For instance, at the beginning of the exercise, the teacher points at pictures on the board, mimes to the students trying to convey the idea she wants to highlight, and asks students

to describe the person in the picture (Lines 1–6). The teacher sticks cards on the board, with the key words elicited from the students in Portuguese, written in English, next to the corresponding picture. She repeats the key word aloud a couple of times in English. The students voluntarily repeat the word after the teacher. The teacher then comments on students' answers, and encourages them to describe further, guiding them a little with mime.

The teacher sticks a card on the board, which reads *bald*, next to the picture of the man being described. She repeats the word aloud a couple of times, and the students voluntarily repeat after her (Lines 7–12). The teacher continues guiding and encouraging students, commenting on their contributions and eliciting more vocabulary. When students contribute a word for which she doesn't have a card prepared, the teacher negotiates with the students to drop the word (Lines 13–17). The teacher continues eliciting the relevant vocabulary.

After this first part, in which the teacher had been using students' experience and contributions, she goes back to her usual grammatical meta-language, talking in Portuguese to students about phrase construction using the verbs *to be* and *have* (Lines 20–26).

However, the classroom dynamics do not revert to those seen in Observation 1. Students interact freely with the teacher and with each other and seem much more motivated and interested than they had previously.

Later, the teacher writes some phrases on the board in English, and guides the students, through using oral modelling, on the construction of phrases used to describe themselves. She then asks students to write such phrases, and walks around the classroom checking their work and helping them.

4.1.3.3 Comments

This lesson provided an example of the shift in the teacher's approach and its effects on classroom dynamics. The influence of the principles of the model was apparent in the teacher's new approach. The first activity in the lesson can be considered as implementing the complementarity principle of the model. It united the whole classroom around the task of describing the given pictures. This type of exercise also draws in students' background knowledge, and offers students the opportunity of contributing to the content of the lesson. As opposed to what was obvious from the first observation, students displayed high levels of participation and engagement.

In this lesson, the teacher moved away from the knowledge-transfer approach and, in the main, from using grammatical meta-language. She provided students with a practical task, and included the aid of visual material. Her role was that of a guide and organizer, facilitating students' contributions rather than delivering content. The response of the students went beyond this particular exercise, so that even when the teacher reverted to her usual style, talking to students about grammar, classroom dynamics were maintained. The students seemed engaged in writing their own descriptions, asking the teacher to supply words which were not on the board, checking their understanding with other students sitting next to them.

This exemplified the principles and features of the Self-Adaptive Model of (i) Complementarity—partnership between teacher and students: students contributed to the lesson; (ii) students' agency—students asked the teacher for missing words; (iii) Self-adaptation—collaboration and social interaction as emergent practices: students shared and checked their work with classmates.

As part of workshop practices in stage 2, during the LTE workshop subsequent to this second lesson observed, Teacher 1 reported her attempt to implement her improvement plan to the group. The lesson was discussed, and participants agreed that it would have

been better if the presentation with the pictures had been followed by a more participative exercise. For instance, it was suggested by the researcher that the teacher could have asked students to imagine someone they wanted to describe, write down their descriptions in Portuguese, and then work in groups to write them in English. The teacher could have helped them by supplying missing words. This would have given students more opportunities to make contributions and give more input to the lesson's content; could have facilitated even more the social interaction in the classroom; and could have more closely approached the principles that the teacher wanted to implement.

It is interesting to note here that the teacher who had planned and carried out the implementation said that she did not think she herself would have had the proficiency to supply all the words that the students might want. Note particularly that she tried to talk the students out of using a certain word (Lines 15–17). She was worried about what would happen if a student asked for a word she did not know. It was suggested by the facilitator that she take a dictionary to class, and look up any unknown words.

The teacher was surprised by the suggestion and asked if she could really do that; wouldn't it suggest that she lacked knowledge? She talked about being harassed by students previously, for failing to be able to translate a word into English. She had been told on occasion by students that if she was an English teacher she should know all the words. She also said that during her undergraduate degree course, there was a strongly reinforced belief that teachers who took pieces of paper, or any other aids to the classroom, were not good teachers. The teacher's self-report clearly reflects a classroom culture based on the knowledge-transfer paradigm, in which teachers are seen as the possessors of knowledge, and are therefore expected to know everything about a subject and have answers to any questions thrown at them.

The course conductor suggested that if the teachers were confronted with situations such as this, it would be worth reminding the students that nobody knows every word even in

their mother tongue. He reminded them that despite not knowing every word in English, they knew many more words than the students did, and that was one reason why they were teachers. He noted that according to the principles of the model, the teacher is a more experienced classroom participant, who also learns with the others. If this arrangement were put to the students, it would perhaps reduce the pressure on the teacher and promote collaboration between teacher and students. The teachers seemed to be comfortable with the idea. In the observations that followed, Teacher 1 showed that she had embraced this idea; she seemed more confident and, in fact did take a dictionary to her classroom to look up words with her students.

4.1.4 Teacher 1 – stage 2 – Observation 3

In the third lesson observed, two weeks after the second lesson, the classroom dynamics seemed to reflect the principles of the model more closely than they did in the previous lesson. The teacher contextualized the content of the lesson to the students' daily lives, and created the opportunity for authentic contributions to be made. The group investigated English words commonly used in their local context. There was also opportunity for students to reflect on and discuss the influence of English on their mother language. The students' level of engagement and interest appeared to be higher than in previous lessons.

4.1.4.1 Transcript – Teacher 1 – Observation 3

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

Teacher: Hoje nós vamos fazer uma aula falando de palavras que nós encontramos por aí. [Today we are going to have a lesson talking about words which we encounter in our daily life]

The teacher writes on the board: palavras da língua Inglêsa que usamos no nosso dia a dia. [English words which we use in our day to day life]

Teacher: Olha la gente. Como vocês já estão vendo aí. Palavras da língua Inglêsa que usamos no nosso dia a dia. Me digam duas, que nós mais usamos. [So guys; as you can see there: English words which we use in our day-to-day life. Give me two, which we use the most]

A student: Good morning; good afternoon

Teacher: Ói que a gente usa? Good morning; good afternoon? [Are you sure that we use good morning and good afternoon?]

Students: Não! Não! [No! No!]

Teacher: Quando a gente chega num lugar a gente diz bom dia ou boa tarde; em Português. [When we arrive some place we say good morning or good afternoon; in Portuguese]

A student: Eu não uso nenhuma, que eu não falo Inglês! [I don't use any, because I don't speak English]

Teacher: Ói?! Olha que você usa! [Really?! I think that you do!]

Same student: *Shopping*[15]

Teacher: Ah! *Shopping*!

A student: *Shampoo*

Teacher: *Shampoo*! Que mais? [*Shampoo*! What else?]

A student: *Coffee*

23	Teacher:	*Coffee*, mas você não usa assim pra chamar café de *coffee*, não é?
24		[Coffee, but you don´t really use it like the others; do you say coffee
25		instead of café?]
26	The student:	Não. [No]
27	A student:	*Short*[16]
28	Teacher:	*Short*! Que mais? [*Short* what else?]
29	A student:	*Futebol* [football]
30	Teacher:	*Futebol*! Mas a gente também teria *football* que seria escrito de outra
31		maneira [even though in English it is spelt differently: *football*]
32	A student:	*Play*
33	Teacher:	*Play*! A gente usa o *play* pra quê? [What do we use *play* for?]
34	A student:	Controle remoto. [Remote control]
35	Other student:	Para o DVD. [For DVD players]
36	Teacher:	DVD! Para parar ou para tocar? [To stop or to start?]
37	Students:	Para tocar! [To start]
38	Teacher:	Então Diane? E a senhora fica indignada porque a gente tem que estudar
39		Inglês. Agora me diga, você usa ou você não usa? [So Diane? And you
40		get irritated because we need to study English. Tell me, do you use it or
41		don’t you?]
42	The student:	É verdade. Eu uso. [It is true, I do use it]

The students go on supplying words in English which are used in their daily lives, such as: *end*; *hot dog*; *fashion*, *LAN house* etc.

4.1.4.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

At the beginning of this lesson, when the teacher is trying to elicit from the students the English words they commonly use, some students say they never use any. The teacher jokes, with the objective of causing these students to doubt their own answers, and review their positions. A student volunteers: *good morning and good afternoon*. The teacher questions the contribution with humour: *Are you sure? Good morning or good afternoon*? The students dismiss those expressions (lines 8–11). The teacher is now no longer ignoring the students' contributions which are not in agreement with what she wants, or simply dismissing them as wrong. She is instead letting the group judge their own contributions, guiding students with comments, but not making decisions for them. She questions the validity of the proposition, and gets the class, including the student who made the contribution, to re-evaluate what was proposed and decide if it is valid (lines 8–11 and 23–26).

A little while later, the students seem to understand what the objective of the exercise is: to investigate English words which are commonly used in Brazilian Portuguese in their local context, and someone says: *shopping*, which is a commonly used word in Brazil for shopping centre (line 18). Soon, *shampoo*; *shorts*; *hot dog*; *football*; *play*; *fashion* and others follow, volunteered by different students, all of which are appropriate examples of English influence on Brazilian Portuguese.

It is interesting to note that the same student who contributed the word "*shopping*" had previously claimed not to use any English words, because she did not speak English (lines

15–18). The teacher did not comment on the student's self-contradiction then, using the momentum to elicit more words from students, but questioned the student's original claim later in the lesson (lines 38–41); the student admitted that she does use English words (line 42).

The teacher then uses this evidence of English influence on Brazilian Portuguese to remind students that English is not as alien as some may suggest. She jokes with a student who thinks that studying English is nonsense because she (the student) does not even know proper Portuguese (the student means she does not know how to use the prestige Portuguese dialect), and tries to get students to acknowledge that English is closer to their realities than they might think. It needs to be highlighted here that the whole class seems to be eager to participate in the discussion, (lines 27–37) which certainly was not the case before the implementation of the principles of the model.

Following the discussion stage of the lesson, the teacher sets a task, contextualized to students' own lives, for them to complete independently of her, working in groups. The teacher still maintains a strong leadership presence in the classroom; she decides what is to be done and how it is to be done, but she also opens up space for students to discuss what is being done and contribute to the lesson.

4.1.4.3 Comments

The third lesson given by Teacher 1 serves as a good example of the implementation of the principles and core features of the model. In this lesson Teacher 1 contextualized the content of the lesson to the students' linguistic universes, aiming at words in English which were commonly used by the students. Such contextualization maximized students' chances of participation, and the teacher explored this feature, demonstrating full awareness and understanding of the dynamics and possibilities of her chosen approach. Instead of simply giving the words to the students, the teacher opened up a discussion, and asked the students which English words they used more frequently, encouraging

social interaction. This reflects the teacher's changing role: according to the model, she is a more experienced participant, rather than the authority. Classroom dynamics are also in accord with the idea of community of inquiry (Wells & Claxton, 2002); the classroom dynamics show the principle of complementarity in action (lines 15–42)—the group becomes increasingly aware of the use of English words in their daily lives through one another's contributions.

It is apparent that the teacher has moved away from a traditional model of teaching, and embraced some concepts from the model, such as allowing for social interaction; creating a collaborative environment; balancing the power relation between participants more fairly; easing the pressure on students; facilitating knowledge construction; and setting in motion a community of inquiry.

4.1.5 Teacher 1 – stage 2 – Observation 4

In the fourth lesson observed, two weeks after the third lesson observed, the classroom dynamics closely reflected the guiding principles of the model. The teacher gave the students a task to be carried out in groups, gave them a few instructions, and let them organize themselves to complete the task which was set. The teacher intervened only in response to students' requests for help, and to encourage them in the completion of the task. She assumed the role of a more experienced participant, and seemed confident and completely comfortable in her new role, helping students use the dictionary to find English words which she admitted being unable to supply: she was learning simultaneously with the students.

4.1.5.1 Transcript – Teacher 1 – Observation 4

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

Teacher: Nós vamos fazer algo semelhante a o que nós fizemos na aula passada. Nós vamos trabalhar em dois grupos. Vamos formar um grupo aquí e outro alí. Você pode se justar a esse grupo ou aquele. Dois grupos estão sendo formados e você pode se juntar a um ou outro. [We are going to do something similar to what we did in the last class. We are going to work in two groups. We will form a group here and another one there. You can join this group or the other group. Two groups are being formed, and you can join one or the other.]

After the students are organized into two groups, the teacher sets out the activity.

Teacher: Vocês aqui vão pensar em uma pessoa famosa. Vocês alí vão pensar em outra. Juntos, cada grupo vai pensar e discutir como descrever a pessoa que vocês escolheram. Então vocês podem escrever suas descrições no quadro. Nós podemos fazer como uma gincana, para ver quem se sai melhor. [You guys here will think of a famous person. You guys there will think of another. Together, each group will think and discuss how to describe the chosen person. Then you can write your descriptions on the board. We could do it like a competition, to see who comes first]

Students: Professora! Como é que procura isso aquí: *Alto*. [Teacher! How do we look for this in the dictionary: *tall*?]

Teacher: Você tem que procurar nessa seção: Português para Inglês. Está tudo em ordem alfabética, então você procura o *A*, segue até você encontrar *AL*, e dalí até você encontrar *alto*. [You need to look in this section: Portuguese to English. It is all in alphabetic order, so you look for *A*, follow until you find *AL*, and go from there until you find *alto*.]

24 Students: Professora! Essa aqui a gente não achou! Como é *apresentadora*?
25 [Teacher! This one we could not find! What is *presenter* in English?]

26 Teacher: *Apresentadora*? [Presenter?]

27 Students: É, apresentadora de TV. [Yes, TV presenter]

28 Teacher: Eu também não sei. Vamos procurar no dicionário. [I don't know it
29 either. Let's look it up in the dictionary]

30 Students: A gente já procurou e não tem. [We already looked and it is not there.]

31 Teacher: Então vamos pensar em outra coisa. Que tal *personalidade de TV*, ao invés de
32 apresentadora? [Then let's think of something else. How about *TV personality*,
33 instead of presenter?]

4.1.5.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

At the start of the lesson, the teacher asks students if they have brought what she had previously asked them for: dictionaries. Only one student produces a dictionary. The teacher divides the class into two groups, and provides another dictionary so each group of students can have one. The activity is set: describing a famous person then finding the necessary words in English (lines 1–16).

Students work together and write their descriptions in Portuguese on the board. After a while, the teacher asks them to write the descriptions in English with the help of the dictionary. Students start to provide words for what they already know, and other members of the group search for unknown words in the dictionary. The teacher works with them, moving from one group to the other group as requested by students, guiding

and trying to solve problems. She instructs students on how to use the dictionaries, and suggests alternatives to words which are not found (lines 17–33). The teacher also uses the observer's presence in the classroom to facilitate the exercise, asking him for help, and including him as another participant.

4.1.5.3 Comments

The lesson was an excellent example of the implementation of the principles of the model. The teacher set a task for students to complete independently, which relied totally on their own decisions, creating the opportunity for students to express themselves and experiment with what they wanted to learn. This is totally in accord with the model, as it creates opportunity for social interaction, student agency, student collaboration and permits classroom practices to self-organize in response to group dynamics.

The teacher put herself in the position of a more experienced classroom participant, helping students to find solutions for the problems that arose, while sharing with students her own limitations and clearly displaying a student's attitude as well as maintaining her guiding role. This represented a considerable change in the teacher's attitude. Before taking part in the LTE course, Teacher 1 was extremely concerned about students' criticism if she were to show her weaknesses in class; an attitude rooted in the knowledge-transfer paradigm. Her concern and beliefs about this were made clear in the discussion of the second lesson observed (see section 4.1.3.3 in this chapter).

It was clear from the observation of this lesson that the teacher had reflected on previous lessons and had taken steps to implement suggestions made by her colleagues and the course facilitator during the workshops. These suggestions were mostly regarding the facilitation of students' participation, allowing class dynamics to emerge from the participants' interaction to permit classroom self-regulation, and restructuring the image of the teacher in line with the model. Teacher 1 succeeded in the implementation of the

suggestions made during the workshops, demonstrating naturalness and comfort in her new role.

4.1.6 Teacher 1 – stage 2 – Observation 5

The fifth lesson observed, two weeks after the fourth lesson observed, exhibited similar dynamics to those observed in the previous lesson: students worked collaboratively to complete a set task. In the case of this lesson, however, the work produced by each student was going to be used as an assessment. The level of collaboration was high: not only did the teacher help students, but they also helped one another. The teacher demonstrated high levels of comfort and confidence and seemed completely integrated with the students. The students also seemed comfortable, and displayed a high level of interest and engagement.

4.1.6.1 Transcript – Teacher 1 – Observation 5

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

Teacher: Muito bem! Teve gente que já trouxe o trabalho pronto. Olha que interessante! Quem é que falta fazer o nosso trabalho? [Very well! There are people who already brought the work all finished. Look how interesting it is! Who still needs to complete our work?]

Students: put their hands up except one.

Teacher: Todo mundo? Não acredito! Então vamos lá. Vamos pegar o trabalho e vamos fazer. Eu já tinha pensado nisso, e como eu sei que vocês não tem dicionário em casa e que vocês todos trabalham, vamos fazer o trabalho em sala? Vamos terminar isso hoje, que essa vai ser a primeira nota de voces esse semestre. [Everybody? I can’t believe it! Then let’s get on

with it. Let's get our work and finish it. I had actually already thought about it, because I know you have no dictionaries at home, and I also know that all of you work. So, let's do our work in class!? We are going to finish this today, because this will be your first grade this semester.]

Teacher: Nós temos uma visita novamente hoje. Mas já está bem íntimo de vocês, né? Já ajudou na gincana. Sim inclusive, quem participou da gincana? Eu já peguei o nome de vocês? Já peguei o seu, e o seu. Eu já peguei seu nome? [Today we have a visitor again. But he is already very familiar, isn't he? He already helped us with our class competition. By the way, who participated in our class competition? Did I already take your names? I already took yours, and yours. Did I take your name?]

Student: Não. [No]

Teacher: Me lembre de anotar mais tarde. [Remind me to write it down later.]

A student: Precisa botar foto? [Do we need to add a picture?]

Teacher: Não é necessário. Cadê aquela menina, a loirinha? [It is not necessary. Where is that girl, the blond girl?]

A student: Ela não veio hoje não porque o pai dela ta doente. [She didn't come today because her father is sick.]

4.1.6.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

The teacher starts the lesson reminding the students of the previous lesson, and asks them if they had completed the research task which was set. Only a couple of students produce the work. The teacher then explains that the work is going to be marked for evaluation

purposes, and that she needs the students who have not yet completed the exercise to do so in class. She shows the work handed in by other students to the class, as examples, and comments on it.

In this lesson, the teacher asks the students which of them still needs to complete the work and seems surprised to find out that the vast majority of the students have not done it yet. However, she says she had already predicted that that would be the case; because she knows that all the students have jobs and that they don't have much time to spare (lines 1–4). Teacher 1 also acknowledges the fact that the students do not have dictionaries at home. She then invites the students to complete the work during class time (lines 5–13).

The teacher walks around the classroom, talking to individual students: answering questions and asking about missing students, commenting on a class competition they had previously had and checking if students who participated have given her their names. She calls students' attention to the observer's presence as a visitor and says that he is already familiar, reminding the students that the observer had helped when they had the class competition (lines 14–20).

The teacher explains once more what the students need to do: write a description of a famous person in English with the aid of dictionaries. For the remainder of the lesson, the teacher does not address the class as a whole. She responds to students' requests for help and clarification, while students talk to one another, moving around the classroom asking others for help to complete their task.

Students work independently or in pairs, according to their preferences. There is considerable activity in the classroom: students sharing dictionaries; asking questions of one another; requesting help from the teacher; checking their work against other students'

work; and asking their peers for confirmation when they are not sure about their production.

4.1.6.3 Comment

This lesson was a further example of the implementation of the principles of the model. The students wrote texts in English based on their own research with the help of a dictionary. The collaboration between students was the most prominent feature of this lesson. This classroom behaviour embodies the core features of the model, such as collaboration, social interaction, creation of a safe environment, evolution of a community of inquiry. This can be seen in the way the students work toward a common goal; there is a high level of activity; students interact freely; more experienced peers help students with their doubts. Given that students' interaction in class in this context is not commonly encouraged or accepted, it represents a considerable change in classroom dynamics.

The teacher demonstrates understanding of the students' specific situation (knowledge of learners) when she highlights the fact that many of the students work and don't have much spare time, and that most of them do not have access to dictionaries outside school. This shows students that the teacher is empathetic with their lives and situations (lines 6 – 12), is part of the partnership between teacher and students encouraged by the model, and can be understood as a strategy to develop a supportive community, which pertains to the set of principles of effective learning (Shulman, 1996) encouraged by the model.

In the same part of the transcript, the teacher says that she had predicted that the students would not be able to complete the work at home, which demonstrates that she is taking students' contextual factors into consideration when planning her lessons and problematizing the application of her lesson plans, which is evidence of context-sensitive reflexive lesson planning, as suggested in the model.

The teacher also uses group-bonding strategies, demonstrating interest in missing students and asking the class for information about them (lines 24–27) which not only is provided by students but also shared with the whole class as it is spoken out loud. This dynamic has the potential to aid group identity building.

At the end of class, the teacher asked students which activity they preferred, the research task or working with a given text, which is what they had normally done before the new approach was implemented. The students said that they strongly objected to using given texts, and argued in favour of the alternative task, even though they recognized that it consumed more time outside the classroom and that not everyone had this time available. This suggests that the students were significantly more comfortable with the new approach than they had been with the previous approach.

4.1.7 Summary – Teacher 1

The main differences between observation 1 carried out in stage 1, prior to the teacher's introduction to the model, and observation 2, conducted in stage 2, three months after the teacher had commenced the self-adaptive LTE course were that, in observation 2, the classroom atmosphere became light and good humoured; the core content of the lesson had shifted from grammar instruction; the level of interaction amongst students in the class and between students and teacher seemed much higher; there was a sharp increase in students' voluntary interaction amongst themselves and with the teacher; students started seeking their peers' and teacher's collaboration to check understanding of the lesson's content and try out their hypotheses; and students started responding to peers' requests for help.

Subsequently, during observations 3, 4 and 5, conducted from May to June 2010, the same main differences between observation 1 and 2 were observed between 1 and 3, 4, 5. In addition, the teacher gradually assumed the role of a more experienced participant,

rather than only that of an expert; students seemed to be increasingly comfortable, vocal and participative, asking for the teacher's attention; students were not always confined to their desks but moved around, and the teacher seemed much more confident than during stage 1. Thus, participation in the workshops appeared, in the case of Teacher 1, to entirely change the classroom dynamics.

This is evident in the checklist completed by the researcher during the observations, shown in Table 33 above, which suggests that the teacher shifted her approach from knowledge transfer to another approach based on the principles of the model, leading the class to exhibit behaviour in accord with the principles of the model, thus becoming a community of enquiry.

The students' level of interest and engagement rose from low to high/medium high; lesson mode shifted from 'teacher tells' to 'group investigates'; students started to interact voluntarily with the teacher and with each other in the lesson; students moved from a passive to active attitude and started contributing to the lessons; the teacher started to encourage students' learning autonomy and the production of the target language; and students started producing the target language.

4.2 Teacher 2

Table 34, below, presents a summary of the information about Teacher 2.

Experience	32 years	
Qualifications	Undergraduate	Post-graduate
	Letras degree (English Language and Literature)	No
Completion	1978	-
Schools taught at	Public language school	
Level of proficiency	Medium	
Goals	Promote self-initiative and the development of learning strategies	

Table 34

Teacher number 2 was female, aged 53, and had 32 years teaching experience. At the time the research was conducted, she was teaching at *Centro de Linguas*, the venue at which the workshops were held, and she taught approximately 95 students. This teacher's situation differed profoundly from those of the other two teachers observed. *Centro de Linguas* is a State funded version of the private language schools in Brazil.

The courses at *Centro de Linguas* are not part of regular schooling and are not compulsory. Most of the student population is taking the English courses because they perceive learning English to be an important aspect of their education, or simply because they like the language. Classes are held in the afternoon, and are two hours long. Students have 4 hours a week of English.

The school uses what is called the "Communicative Approach", which is to say, they follow a curriculum based on the *American Headway* course book series, and the complete teaching materials are available and compulsory both for teachers and students.

Table 35, below, shows the researcher's observation checklist 1 for Teacher 2

Researcher's observations of Teacher 2

	Teacher 2	Obs 1	Obs 2	Obs 3	Obs 4	Obs 5
1) Which approach best resembles the approach used by the teacher?	Grammar translation					
	Communicative	X	X	X		
	Audiolingual					
	Model-based		X		X	X
2) How high was the students' level of interest?	High	X	X	X	X	X
	Medium high					
	Medium					
	Medium low					
	Low					
3) How high was the students' level of engagement?	High	X	X	X	X	X
	Medium high					
	Medium					
	Medium low					
	Low					
4) How was the content presented?	Teacher tells					
	Teacher explains	X	X	X		
	Teacher asks					
	Group investigates		X	X	X	X
5) Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily?	Yes		X		X	X
	No	X		X		
6) Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her?	Yes	X	X	X	X	X
	No					
7) Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement?	Yes	X	X	X	X	X
	No					
8) Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson?	Yes				X	X
	No	X	X	X		
9) Did the teacher encourage Ss' interaction with each other?	Yes	X	X	X	X	X
	No					
10) Was there any group work/pair work?	Yes	X	X	X	X	X
	No					
11) Did students contribute to the lesson?	Yes	X	X	X	X	X
	No					
12) Was learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher?	Yes		X		X	X
	No	X		X		
13) Did students display learning autonomy?	Yes		X		X	X
	No	X		X		
14) Did students collaborate with each other?	Yes			X	X	X
	No	X	X			
15) What language was used by the teacher?	Target				X	X
	Local					
	Both	X	X	X		
16) Did students produce the target language?	Yes	X	X	X	X	X
	No					
17) Were students encouraged to produce the target language?	Yes	X	X	X	X	X
	No					

Table 35

4.2.1 Teacher 2 – stage 1 – Observation 1

When the project commenced, Teacher 2 was not concerned with any particular aspect of her teaching. Her stated reasons for taking part in the LTE course were self-development, and the search for new approaches and teaching techniques to try out and to improve her teaching skills. She reported that in all her years working for the State government she had never been given the opportunity to participate in a project such as this, or any in-service courses or opportunities of any kind for continuing her education. She saw the self-adaptive LTE course as a unique and important experience for her in her teaching career.

During interviews conducted before the first observation, Teacher 2 said that her students were willing to learn and that she had no problems getting them to work in class. She considered their level of interest to be high and the level of engagement to be medium high. The preliminary observations of her classroom, conducted in February 2010, confirmed what she had reported about her students. As can be seen in the transcript below, she taught mostly in English and her students were able to follow with no apparent problems; the group responded well to her requests and seemed to be willing to participate, despite occasional protests in relation to some of the activities.

4.2.1.1 Transcript – Teacher 2 – Observation 1

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

1 Teacher: Is it possible Tamires? What did you see? Or what did you read about
2 this?

3 Student: Of course.

4 Teacher: Talks to another student

The student who was about to talk (Tamires) hesitates and waits for the teacher's attention, then continues.

Student: It is like a cycle. I don't know exactly…

The student again hesitates

Teacher: OK, we are going to watch about this here.

Teacher shows students the DVD disk

Student: It's about… about Cancer's Tropic. Some countries there has a summer of 23 days of sun. You can see the sun every day and in the night, including midnight. They don't change the position.

Teacher: Depending on the position?

Student: No, it doesn't change the position. The sun is there during the whole day and the whole night for across 72 days of the summer.

Teacher: For the whole 70 days?

Student: Yes

Teacher: Ok then, we are going to watch this and explain. Pay attention.

The teacher plays the DVD for the students. After watching the short DVD, the teacher plays an audio recording about Sweden, part of the course materials. Students are told to listen and answer to questions in their books. After she plays the recording for the first time, she makes the following comment.

Teacher: Have you watched something about this, on the television? I watched once. Swedish people went to the lake, in winter. And they said we are

healthy, and she said on the recording: healthy or crazy? I think they are crazy. Because you take a bath in the lake in winter, oh my God.

The teacher does not wait or encourage students to comment

Teacher: I will play it again. You listen.

Student: Mas é tao chato esse negocio! [But this thing is so boring!]

Teacher: Cris! Fique quieta! Ouça e preste atenção ao CD. Cris! [Cris, be quiet. Listen and pay attention to the CD. Cris!]

After a while the teacher stops the audio

Teacher: Do you understand everything Cris?

Student: Eu só deixei 4 [I only missed 4]

Teacher: OK, but it is necessary for you to be quiet because the others need to listen, so concentrate. Ok Cris?! Try to listen again Cris.

Teacher: Do you understand the word darkness?

Students: Yes

Teacher: Do you remember? Look at this picture! Darkness: without light; without sun.

Student: Professora, tem menino que só ouve música de rock que é darkness, darkness, a letra todinha, do começo ao fim. [Teacher, there are some boys who listen to rock songs which says darkness, darkness in the whole lyrics, from start to finish.]

Teacher: E, rockeiros né? [Yes, rockers, isn’t it?]

The teacher resumes playing the CD.

4.2.1.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

In this lesson, conducted mainly in English, the teacher tells students they are going to see a video which explains the midnight sun phenomenon. She asks a student, who is known to have previous knowledge about the subject, to make a contribution. The teacher probably expects the student to be brief. The student, however, chooses to elaborate on her answer. After the student produces a brief response, the teacher talks to another student while the previous student is still talking. Teacher 2 seems eager to abandon the student's contribution shortly after the student begins to speak, and go back to her planned lesson, clearly concerned with time, as she checks her wristwatch and says "OK now we"... The student insists, ignoring the teacher's intention to disregard what she is trying to say and goes on talking (lines 1–15).

The teacher's interest is, however, on completing her lesson rather than using the student's contribution. The teacher asks a few questions to the student, more directed to guide the speaker than to clarify a point (lines 7–13). When the student finishes speaking, the teacher says: "OK, now we are going to watch this," ignoring completely that the student had made a contribution and what she had said.

In the lesson, the teacher talks most of the time and students have few opportunities to speak, and when they do it is to answer a question which controls the answer. After playing a recording about Swedish people's habits in winter, to prepare students to answer questions in their books, the teacher makes a comment on Swedish behaviour (lines 16–19).

When the teacher is about to play the audio recording for the second time, one of the students complains and tells the teacher that the exercise is boring (line 21). The teacher deals with the student's complaint quickly and without involving the group, not giving students the chance to express their opinions or asking them if they needed or would like to listen to the recording once more. When, a little later, the student who said the recording was boring displays lack of interest in the exercise, the teacher stops the audio and reprimands the student for not being attentive, and urges her to pay attention to the audio (lines 24–27).

The student had not been making any noise and had just been playing with one of her classmates' hair. Her behaviour did not seem to bother or distract her colleague or disturb the class in any way. She defies the teacher's authority and goes on playing with her colleague's hair for a little while longer, before she finally decides to keep still.

Later, the teacher stops the audio to call students' attention to a word, "darkness". She asks if the students know the meaning. The students tell the teacher that they do know, but the teacher explains it anyway, ignoring the students' response. Then the same student who had displayed lack of interest before tries to make a contribution relating to the word the teacher wanted to emphasize; the teacher again deals with the student quickly and without involving the group, clearly eager to go back to her lesson plan (lines 32–36). The teacher resumes playing the CD.

4.2.1.3 Comment

This first lesson observed progressed mechanically, following a strongly controlled model, typical of the use of the "Communicative Approach" in Brazil, and contrary to many of the principles of the model. The teacher displayed an attitude which showed her concern about keeping to her plan and keeping tight control over the students. This is evident throughout the extract (transcribed in the original with Portuguese interspersed), particularly from lines 1–15 and 20–27. Despite attempting to elicit contributions from

the students, the teacher showed no interest in what the students contributed and made no use of the students' participation.

The importance the teacher placed on demonstrating her authority and on keeping control of her students was most evident when she stopped the audio to which the students were listening. She disrupted the whole class, just to reprimand one of the students who was not paying attention to the recording (lines 24–27), thus focusing on controlling classroom behaviour and ensuring students' compliance, rather than on the dynamics of the learning processes.

This classroom behaviour conforms to traditional language educational practices seen in Brazil, which promote lockstep and rote learning. This, of course, is contrary to the principles of the model. It reflects a model which gives teachers authority and tight control over classroom dynamics, while failing to provide students with opportunities to express themselves. This places all responsibility for learning outcomes on the teacher. According to the principles of the model, on the other hand, classroom dynamics should reflect a partnership between teacher and students.

4.2.2 Teacher 2 – in the workshops

In the workshops, Teacher 2 chose for herself the task of developing ways to promote self-initiative and conscious learning strategy development among her students. She explained that she had chosen to concentrate on aspects of the model related to agency, metacognition and autonomous learning because she said that her students already had a good level of English proficiency, were motivated and interested, and she recognized that they could benefit from sharing responsibility for their own learning.

During the workshops, Teacher 2 worked on a plan to implement some of the principles of the model in her classroom and pursue her goal. She chose to tell her students about the self-adaptive LTE course in which she was taking part, about the research project and

what she was learning from it. She told them she would like to try a new approach with them and they agreed. According to her reports, the students received this idea favourably and were willing to try the new approach.

4.2.3 Teacher 2 – stage 2 – Observation 2

The subsequent observations of Teacher 2, nine weeks after the first observation, revealed a mixed picture. The teacher was struggling to combine her new approach with the "Communicative Approach" adopted by the school. She was required to cover a certain amount of content each week, prescribed by the course book, and found it difficult to share class control with students, because of the way in which the course book material was structured. As a consequence, she then decided autonomously to open a space during her lessons for the students to bring their own contributions. This process is shown below in the transcript of the lesson observed.

4.2.3.1 Transcript – Teacher 2 – Observation 2

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

Teacher: Now we are going to have a presentation. Do you remember that two weeks ago, and last week I asked you again: How do you learn English? Do you remember?

Teacher: Serio gente, vocês lembram do que eu falei, que eu propus que nós discutíssemos de que forma, de que maneira nos aprendemos Inglês, não só aqui na sala. Eu acredito que eu deixei esse espaço bem aberto; fale ou não fale eu não faço questão. Tema livre; eu disse fale do que quiser e se quiser, mas participe. [Seriously guys, do you remember what I told you? That I suggested we discussed in which ways, how we learned English, not only in the classroom? I believe I have left this space wide open; talk

or don't talk I have no problem with it. You are free to choose the topic; I said talk about whatever you would like, if you would like, but participate.]

Teacher: Então, Cris hoje disse, e ela não me preveniu antes, apenas disse hoje: eu vou cantar na sala. Eu falei beleza, maravilhoso. [So, today, Cris told me, and she didn't warn me before, just told me today: I am going to sing in class. I said excellent, wonderful.] [17] So tell me, Cris, what do you do with music at home? Do you listen? Do you…? Explain to us how you use music to learn English.

Student: I listen… I don't know

Teacher: Entao, você pega só o violão, você chama teu irmão pra tocar, o que que você faze em casa? [So you get the guitar and play yourself, or you call your brother to play? What do you do at home?]

Student: I sing

Teacher: Ok, You sing. How do you get the lines?

Student: Well, I play piano, right? So first I learn how to play the song and I sing together

Teacher: Ah, OK! But how do you get the chords and the lines? Do you get in the Internet? You tube or something like this?

Student: Terra.com

Teacher: OK, very good.

After the student's presentation

Teacher: Now, how many new words did you find in the lyrics?

Student: É, tem algumas palavras que eu nunca tinha visto. [Yes, there are some words which I had never seen before]

Teacher: Can you put them on the board?

After the new vocabulary is explored

Teacher: Who else wants to talk about the way you like to learn English at home?

Yes, Tamires! What do you do?

Student: I also like to listen to music in English, but I think I learn a lot through chatting.

Teacher: Chatting?

Student: Yes, in the Internet. I can chat to people in other countries and we always use English.

Some more students comment on their learning strategies. At one stage, when the teacher is arranging the room for another presentation, she tells the students that the researcher teaches English in Australia, and asks the researcher to talk to the students about learning English in Australia.

Teacher: (To students) He teaches English in Australia. (To the researcher) Can you talk something about you? About Australia? How do people learn English in Australia? (To students) How about we interview him?

The researcher answers questions from the teacher and some of the students, while another presentation is prepared: a role-play involving a customer and a waiter in a restaurant.

Waiter: Hey, welcome here! Are you ready to order?

47 Customer: Yes, I want a cup of juice.

48 Waiter: Alright. What kind of juice?

49 Customer: Orange juice.

50 Waiter: Ok. Anything else?

51 Customer: No, just this.

52 Waiter: Ok. Just wait.

53 Waiter: Here is your juice. Anything else?

54 Customer: No.

55 Waiter: Ok. If you need something just call me.

A moment later, the customer signals to the waiter and says:

56 Customer: Come here and bring me the bill.

57 Waiter: Alright, just a minute. Well, just a juice, two dollars.

4.2.3.2 Narrative Description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

In the second lesson of Teacher 2 that was observed, part of the lesson follows a typical "Communicative Approach" format: the teacher introduces the topic in the course book; students usually read or listen to course book material, then complete exercises or other activities, as shown in the first lesson observed. The activities they perform might typically include role-play, reporting on their understanding of the presented materials, practising a dialogue or performing other forms of practice. Apart from the usual practices, in this case, another part of the lesson includes students' contributions, which

are a song sung by a student, students' comments on their self-developed strategies to learn English, and a role-play is performed by a pair of students, based on a class exercise from a previous lesson. This change has been triggered by the teacher asking students to bring activities based on their preferred learning styles to the classroom.

The teacher reminds students of what she has told them about learning autonomy and preferred learning styles, and the presentations they were invited to give in class about how they learned English outside the classroom (lines 1–13). In the lesson, Teacher 2 emphasizes that the students are free to do whatever they feel comfortable with, and speak about any subject of their choice. As the lesson continues, the teacher announces that one of the students is going to sing a song, because the student had said that she used songs to learn English. At this point in the lesson, the teacher briefly interviews the student about her preferred learning styles and asks her to explain how she uses music to help her to learn English (lines 14–31). She brings the student to the front of the class, including the friend the student had brought to class to play the guitar to accompany her singing.

The teacher sits on a student's chair, while the activity goes on. Afterwards, while the teacher continues to sit on a student's chair, the group engages in conversation about self-developed learning strategies. The discussion begins with the teacher asking the student who had sung what words she had learned though working with that particular song. The student writes the new vocabulary on the board and the class discusses the meaning of the words in general, and in context (lines 32–35). Other students comment on their preferred learning strategies for improving their English (lines 36–42).

The teacher also takes advantage of the researcher's presence, and suggests the students interview him about the conditions for studying English in Australia (lines 43–45).

The last activity, the restaurant role-play (lines 46–57) however, appeared to be totally ignored by the whole group, including the teacher. The students taking part in the role-play used inappropriate language (*welcome here; I want a cup of juice; just wait; come here and bring me the bill*) and it was not noticed, or at least it was not pointed out, by anyone, including the teacher.

4.2.3.3 Comments

In Observation 2, Teacher 2 displayed a different attitude towards the students; she seemed more tolerant and less eager to control the students than she appeared to be in the previous lesson observed; her behaviour was consistent with the principles of the model. This is clearly apparent when, in the middle of class, a student, the same one who had disrupted the lesson on the previous observation, starts to talk to another student, who had just arrived, in Portuguese and about a subject unrelated to the lesson. The teacher does not reprimand the student. Instead, she gives the student a few seconds to finish the comment, interrupts the pair as she makes a joke about it, diverting the students from continuing the conversation further, and goes back to the activity.

Also, the teacher's remarks about learning autonomy at the beginning of the lesson (lines 1–13), provide us with evidence that the students had in fact been introduced to the concept of autonomous learning, embedded in the model; that students' and teacher's roles had changed, in respect to the power balance: the students were invited, not obliged to present; and it seemed that the knowledge-transfer model had been shifted to a bilateral model: students now seemed to feel that they too had knowledge themselves. This confirmed the researcher's impression that the teacher was embracing the principles of the model. At one point the classroom reached a chaotic stage, in the sense that the teacher had no direct control over what was going to happen and that the results were unpredictable, e.g. the student's presentation and the discussion of learning strategies.

The model would predict that self-regulation would be the outcome of such practices, leading into the next stage: optimal organization.

When the teacher suggested that the students interview the researcher (lines 43–45), the suggestion was made as she was trying to organize her desk for the students' presentations, and seemed spontaneous. Evidently, here, classroom practices were strongly influenced by classroom dynamics, as opposed to being closely dependent on a structured predetermined plan. This shift, too, is in accord with one of the principles of the model: self-adaptability—classroom practices emerge from classroom dynamics.

Although Observation 2 indicates that a shift in Teacher 2's classroom had taken place, some problematic aspects of organization and planning could be identified. While the attempt in this lesson to promote students' exchange of experiences was positive, there was a lack of organization and planning in the activities, which is to be expected at these initial stages of change. All planning and organization of classroom activities traditionally are the responsibility of the teacher, who is familiar with such aspects of the teaching/learning process. Creating opportunities for students to actively participate in the planning of classroom activities presupposes sharing the responsibility for the organization of such activities with the students.

Shared responsibilities can be problematic at the beginning, because the students might not be fully prepared, as can be seen in this lesson. When the student sang, the class did not have the lyrics of the song and it was difficult to understand the words she was singing, due to rhythm, speed of delivery, volume and possibly her accent. It would have been better if the students could follow her singing through reading, and the teacher would surely have prepared the material if she was organizing the activity herself.

In the case of the role-play, a pair of students performed a scene at a restaurant, with one of them pretending to be a customer and the other a waiter (lines 46–57). The language

the students used was often inappropriate, and there were several mistakes in their dialogue. This can be clearly seen from the beginning of the exercise: "*Welcome here"* (line 46); "*I want a cup of juice*" (line 47).

Despite being obvious, the irregularities were not noticed, or at least not pointed out by anyone. Nobody else seemed involved in the activity besides the presenting students, not even the teacher paid much attention to the presentation, which rendered it an empty and mechanical exercise. Had the group being engaged in the exercise, it could have been used as listening and speaking practice for the whole class; as an opportunity for students to try to identify problems and consider possible solutions; to promote collaboration between classroom participants. As it was, in the event, a mere isolated performance, without the engagement of the class, without feedback, without a meaningful purpose, it characterizes the exclusive focus on goals; emulation, often promoted by traditional approaches to language teaching. Without awareness of the means, imitation (Feryok, 2009; Tomasello, 1999), and the participation of the group, the effectiveness of classroom practices is minimized.

Also, role-play is a common exercise in the "Communicative Approach" syllabus, therefore it was not an authentic contribution to the group's learning strategies repertoire, or a metacognitive exercise. That the students were allowed to present it, despite the fact that it was entirely inauthentic, however, was positive. It shows that the teacher was accepting any form of student participation. This could contribute to creating a safe environment in the classroom.

This lesson was reported on by the teacher in the following workshop and discussed by the group. Participants agreed that it would have been better if the whole class had had the lyrics of the song, and were encouraged to participate more actively. The new vocabulary could have been worked out by the entire class, with resort to dictionaries if nobody knew the meaning of a word. The new vocabulary could also have been explored

by the group, who could have been asked to think of other examples of use, or investigating patterns in the grammatical structure which might be useful.

Ways to integrate all students in such activities were discussed. The group concluded that encouraging students to listen carefully to class presentations and try to understand what was being said by their colleagues would help their listening skills, and give them the opportunity to interact with the speaker, helping him/her to improve their pronunciation, adjust their vocabulary or ways of expressing themselves, by letting them know when something was not understood or sounded strange.

It was noted that, generally, in role-play exercises and other activities, it was common for students not to listen to their colleagues' presentations, working on preparing their own presentations instead. The participants agreed that making students aware of these practices and the benefits of participating in each other's work, and developing creative ways to encourage this type of participation, such as asking questions about each presentation to the whole class, to help students' recollection and reflection processes, should be explored by the group. They also concluded that encouraging students to self-evaluate, engage with and evaluate the others, check doubts with one another and the teacher, should also be explored.

As a result of this discussion in the workshops, the facilitator/researcher was able to highlight certain principles: the model is built upon social interaction; the classroom organization and management should permit and facilitate such interaction; students need to feel safe, comfortable, and free to express their opinions and doubts; the practice of constructive criticism from all participants should be encouraged and valued; the concepts of correct and incorrect should be re-evaluated, leading to unobtrusive ways to detect and correct language errors, and embracing the idea that errors should always be welcomed and seen as keys to learning.

[Observation 3 was not recorded on DVD and is not included here. Due to the obvious similarity between the fourth and fifth lessons observed, observations 4 and 5 are combined in the following section]

4.2.4 Teacher 2 – stage 2 – Observations 4 and 5

The fourth and the fifth lessons observed, two and three weeks, respectively, after the second lesson observed, followed the same dynamics as the second and third: part of the lesson was structured according to the course prescribed material, and another part according to the principles of the model. In the model-based part of the lesson, the students took turns giving presentations on their chosen topics. This was the result of autonomous research and preparation, carried out by the students voluntarily, and outside class time. The teacher's role was that of a more experienced participant, assisting the presenter when help was requested or difficulties were noticed. Students' level of collaboration, engagement and interest appeared high.

4.2.4.1 Transcript – Teacher 2 – Observations 4 and 5

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

1 Presenter 1: About a week ago I was reading some articles about India, which
2 pictured India as the Holy country. I read it in a magazine, ah, super
3 inters... How do you pronounce this: super interessante?

4 Teacher: The magazine?

5 Presenter: Yes

6 Teacher: Super interesting, but you can say it in Portuguese, because it is a proper
7 noun.

Presenter 1: Ok. Super Interessante. So I found out that 70% of India is rural area and only 30% is urban area.

A student: So most of it is farm?

Presenter 1: Yes, Most of it, 70%. So in this part, 70 %, you can see a very traditional life. How is a very traditional life? For example, ‘couples’ (she struggles to pronounce)

The presenter writes the word on the board

Teacher: Couples (other students also help saying the word out loud)

Presenter 1: Couples can’t, in Valentines Day, go out together, walk together or kissing and hugging each other, because...

The presenter can’t find words to express her thoughts

Teacher: Because it is not allowed?

Presenter 1: No, it is not allowed, in this 70 %, because the Police look at him... look at them and say: no, you are going to jail. Because it is denied.

A student: It is what?

The presenter doesn’t immediately understand what the student is asking, and he repeats the question, trying to explain what he means.

Same student: What did you say before? It is?

Presenter 1: Ah; is denied.

She wanted to say it was forbidden, but the student understood that the couple was denied the right to show affection in public, and said OK.

24 Presenter 1: The other 30% is urban...

When the student finishes presenting, another presentation by a different student follows.

25 Presenter 2: I am going to tell… to talk about Melbourne, in Australia. Do you know
26 Melbourne? Melbourne is a modern city. It is more modern of… than
27 Joao Pessoa. Yes, it is not hard to be more modern than Joao Pessoa. But
28 Joao Pessoa is more beautiful than Melbourne because Melbourne
29 doesn't have so many naturals beauties and Joao Pessoa is rich in this
30 things. In Melbourne the temperature is so inconstant, when is hot is so
31 hot and when is cold is so cold… The population in Melbourne is 4.5
32 million, Melbourne is bigger than Joao Pessoa.

33 Student (1)[18]: How many people in Joao Pessoa?

34 Presenter: Around 700 thousand.

35 Student (2): I think it is one million.

36 Student (3): They say it is a million if you count Bayeux and Santa Rita.

Other presentations followed, in both lessons observed, about varied topics, including different States in Brazil, North Korea, famous personalities, and the presenters' personal experiences.

4.2.4.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

In the fourth and fifth lessons given by Teacher 2 which were observed, the students take turns giving presentations on their chosen topics. The teacher's role is that of a more experienced participant. She sits with the students and asks questions and helps the

presenting student if requested to do so, or if she perceives that the presenter is unable to overcome any difficulties. Most of the interaction happens among the students; the teacher merely monitors the activity.

The first student to present has put posters up on the board, with pictures, maps and written information. Her level of English proficiency is good and her presentation is quite fluent and reasonably accurate.

In this lesson, the first student presents for about 15 minutes: some students ask questions, the presenter asks the teacher for confirmation of pronunciation, and the group collaborates with the presenter.

The presenter struggles to pronounce the word *couples* (lines 12–14) and writes the word on the board, a useful technique to address her pronunciation difficulties. The exercise creates the opportunity for the student doing the presentation to demonstrate her strategy to overcome her pronunciation difficulties when speaking to the class. The teacher and other students help the presenter by saying the word back to her (line 15). This highlights the engagement of the group: other students are following the presentation attentively enough to notice the presenter's struggle to pronounce the word, and shows collaboration: more than one student demonstrates the correct pronunciation of the word spontaneously.

Further in the presentation, again the presenter struggles. This time she doesn't seem to be able to find words to explain her thoughts, and the teacher intervenes (lines 16–20). It is evident that the teacher not only is closely following the presentation, but also that she is giving the presenter time to address her difficulties on her own, before offering assistance, which, in this case, is in the form of a question, suggesting a word rather than selecting it. This shows the teacher in the role of a more experienced participant, a collaborator.

Not all the students' presentations were as well organized as the first. Not all used visual aids or were as long as the first, but all followed a similar model and had the same classroom dynamics. This is evident in the second presentation in the transcript. In lines 25 and 26, the presenter demonstrates a learning strategy: self-correction, when she confuses the words *tell* and *talk* (line 25), *of* and *than* (line 26–27), and immediately after the inappropriate utterance she pauses and corrects herself. This practice shows that she is aware of her own language production, and demonstrates that she is able to apply metacognitive strategies in the development of her language learning.

One of the strong features of this lesson was the students' level of engagement and participation. This can be clearly seen in both presentations in the transcript. In the first presentation, markedly in lines 8–10 and 19–23, the participation of the students in the audience is seen. In the second presentation, in lines 33–36, again the participation of the members of the audience is evident, and shows that the students were attentive and engaged in the activity.

4.2.4.3 Comment

The fourth and fifth lessons observed appear to be well-rounded examples of the model in practice, which indicated that the teacher had probably succeeded in implementing the principles of the model in her classroom. The presentations given by the students were independently planned and organized, which suggests high levels of agency and student autonomy. The students seemed to be genuinely engaged and participating as a whole in the activity, asking questions and trying to help one another in their presentations. This incorporates the principles of social interaction and collaboration, as in an authentic community of practice.

The teacher's role shifted from controlling the classroom to assisting students' performance, indicating that she had embraced the idea of being a more experienced classroom participant and that the students had shifted their perception of the teacher's

role accordingly. Students' high level of comfort and participation suggest that the creation of a safe environment was also successful. The implementation (by the first student to present) of a self-developed strategy to help with her pronunciation problems, writing on the board the words which the audience had difficulty understanding, was an example of metacognition in action, and had the potential for becoming an available tool for the whole group of students. All the core principles of effective learning seemed to have been recognizable in these two lessons.

Also, the whole group appeared to be engaged in the activity, independently of their role as presenter or audience, unlike what is shown in the second lesson observed, section 4.2.3, transcript in section 4.2.3.1 (lines 46–57). This is evident in the way the students who were watching the presentations participated in the activity, asking questions to the presenter, and even volunteering information to assist the presenter or complement information volunteered by another student (lines 8–13, 17–23 and 33–36).

4.2.5 Summary of Teacher 2

The main differences between the primary observation in stage one, conducted before the teacher was introduced to the principles of the model, and the second observation, in stage two, conducted three months after the teacher had commenced the self-adaptive LTE course, were that classroom dynamics became less controlled and there was no pressure on students; the students were given a space in the lesson to express themselves freely; the teacher became able to shift roles and be a classroom participant rather than a teacher for a while; students were able to bring real contributions to the lesson; students had the opportunity to participate more in social activities and share information; and there was a more balanced relationship between students and the teacher in stage 2.

These main changes in classroom dynamics perceived after the teacher was introduced to the principles of the model are recognized in the way that the presentation of content

shifted from the usual ‘teacher explains model’ to a mixed model which included ‘group investigates’.

In this lesson, the students started interacting with each other voluntarily and genuinely; the teacher started encouraging students’ learning autonomy; students started displaying learning autonomy.

These changes observed are in accord with the model, as they reflect the development of a safe environment for students; the recognition of the students as active members of the classroom; the establishment of a partnership between teacher and students; and the restructure of the teaching learning processes to include collectively developed practices, leading the classroom in the direction of becoming a “community of inquiry”.

The data collected during these observations strongly suggest that participation in the workshops, in the case of Teacher 2, had an impact on both the teacher and classroom behaviour, which led to substantial changes in classroom dynamics.

The influence of the model is observable in these changes, which in turn suggests that some of the principles proposed to participants during the workshops were in fact embraced by the teacher and found fertile ground in the classroom, being also accepted by the students, and incorporated to classroom dynamics.

4.3 Teacher 3

Teacher 3 was female, aged 57, and had 22 years teaching experience. At the time the research was conducted, she was teaching at two public schools and had approximately 450 students. Teacher 3 implemented her new approach at one of these schools, where she taught high school students in the evenings. Teacher 3's teaching scenario was similar to the one in which Teacher 1 implemented the principles of the model, and presented the same problematic discussed in the case of Teacher 1: students are frequently tired from daily activities; attendance is irregular, with high levels of absence; class time is shorter than in the day course; students' ages range from teenagers to 50s or older; students' level of literacy is frequently low and some would be considered semi-literate according to traditional standards in Brazil.

Table 36, below, presents a summary of the information about Teacher 3

Experience	22 years	
Qualifications	Undergraduate	Post-graduate
	Letras degree (English Language and Literature)	No
Completion	1997	-
Schools taught at	Public High-schools	
Level of proficiency	Medium	
Goals	Develop ways to improve students' participation and to render her lessons more interactive	

Table 36

4.3.1 Teacher 3 – stage 1 – Observation 1

At the beginning of the project, Teacher 3 was concerned about her students' level of interest, which she considered "medium". She explained that many students found it difficult to pay attention and it was not uncommon for some of them to fall asleep during her lessons. Her way of dealing with the situation was to concentrate on following her lesson plan and not let the students' behaviour interfere with her work.

Table 37, below, shows the Researcher's observation questionnaire for Teacher 3

Researcher's observation of Teacher 3

	Teacher 3	Obs 1	Obs 2	Obs 3	Obs 4	Obs 5
1) Can you identify the approach used by the teacher?	Grammar translation	X				
	Communicative					
	Audiolingual					
	model-based		X	X	X	
2) How high was the students' level of interest?	High			X	X	
	Medium high		X			
	Medium					
	Medium low					
	Low	X				
3) How high was the students' level of engagement?	High			X	X	
	Medium high		X			
	Medium					
	Medium low					
	Low	X				
4) How was the content presented?	Teacher tells	X				
	Teacher explains					
	Teacher Asks					
	Group investigates		X	X	X	
5) Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily?	Yes		X	X	X	
	No	X				
6) Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her?	Yes	X	X	X	X	
	No					
7) Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement?	Yes		X	X	X	
	No	X				
8) Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson?	Yes			X	X	
	No	X	X			
9) Did the teacher encourage Ss' interaction with each other?	Yes			X	X	
	No	X	X			
10) Was there any group work/pair work?	Yes			X	X	
	No	X	X			
11) Did students contribute to the lesson?	Yes		X	X	X	
	No	X				
12) Was learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher?	Yes			X	X	
	No	X	X			
13) Did students display learning autonomy?	Yes			X	X	
	No	X	X			
14) Did students collaborate with each other?	Yes		X	X	X	
	No	X				
15) What language was used by the teacher?	Target					
	Local	X	X	X	X	
	Both					
16) Did students produce the target language?	Yes					
	No	X	X	X	X	
17) Were students encouraged to produce the target language?	Yes					
	No	X	X	X	X	

Table 37

As can be seen below, preliminary observations conducted in February 2010 confirmed Teacher 3's impressions of her class, but, in the researcher's view, the students' level of interest and engagement was low rather than medium; students seemed demotivated and apathetic.

4.3.1.1 Transcript – Teacher 3 – Observation 1

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

Teacher: Na aula passada eu entreguei uma folha para que vocês respondessem as questões. Porém, algumas pessoas não entenderam o exercício. Eu vou então fazer um comentário e ver se vocês conseguem acompanhar. É claro que eu não vou resolver todas as questões, mas, dependendo do meu comentário, vocês podem perceber se as respostas que vocês deram para as outras questões estão certas ou erradas. Eu vou comentar as cinco primeiras questões de cada bloco. No primeiro bloco, existem frases, e abaixo está indicado o que você precisa fazer com essa frase, OK? Então a primeira frase está na forma afirmativa, e entre parênteses pede que você transforme a frase em pergunta. Bem, como vocês já sabem, aonde tem verbo *to be* a gente trabalha com o verbo *to be*. Então a gente não vai ter nenhuma preocupação, porque o verbo *to be* vai ser usado para afirmar, vai ser usado para negar e vai ser usado para interrogar. Então essa frase aqui está na forma afirmativa, e eu quero transformá-la para a forma negativa, como e que eu faço? [Last week I gave you this print out for you to answer the questions. However, some people did not understand the exercise. So I am going to comment on the questions to see if you can follow. Of course I am not going to answer every single question, but according to my comments, you will be able to figure if the

answers you gave to other questions are correct or incorrect. I am going to comment on the first five questions of each block. In the first block, there are some phrases, and below each phrase you have instructions about what you need to do with the phrase, OK? So the first phrase is in affirmative form, and between brackets it is indicated that you should transform the phrase into a negative. Well, as you already know, where there is the verb *to be* we work with the verb *to be*. Then there is no reason to worry, because the verb *to be* will be used to state, will be used to negate and will be used interrogate. So this phrase here is in affirmative form, and I want to transform it into a negative form. How do I do this?

Students: silent

The teacher starts writing on the board.

Teacher: Eu pensei que todo mundo ia acertar esse exercício. [I thought everyone would get this exercise right]

The teacher writes on the board: There are cakes in the kitchen, which is the first phrase of the first block of exercises on the students' print out.

Teacher: Essa frase aqui, ela está na forma afirmativa, interrogativa ou negativa? [This phrase here (The teacher points at the phrase written on the board); is it in affirmative, interrogative, or negative form?]

Students: hesitate

Teacher: Ah? Está na forma A… A… [Ah? It is in form A… A…]

Students: Afirmativa [Affirmative]

Teacher: Afirmativa! E o exercício pede pra que você transforme essa frase em negação, não e isso? [Affirmative! And the exercise requires you to transform this phrase into a negation, isn't it so?]

Students: Silent

Teacher: Essa frase aqui, ela tem verbo *to be*; e nos já aprendemos que o *there* + *to be* significa haver, ter, não e isso? [This phrase here, it has the verb *to be*; and we already learned that *there* + *to be* means 'there exists', isn't it so?]

Students: Silent

Teacher: Então, se eu tenho verbo *to be* aqui, como e que eu transformo isso aqui em negação? [So, if I have the verb *to be* here, how do I transform this phrase into a negation?]

Students: Silent

Teacher: Heim gente, como é que eu transformo isso aqui em negação? [Come on guys, how do I transform this into a negation?]

Students: Silent

The teacher then writes *not* on the board, directly above *are* in the phrase: There are cakes in the kitchen

Teacher: É só eu colocar o *not*. Uma vez feito isso, a frase deixa de afirmar e passa a negar, não e isso? [I just need to write *not*. Once this is done, the phrase ceases to state and starts to negate, isn't it so?]

Students: Silent

Teacher: Aqui, apesar de dizer, forma negativa, o que que o aluno fez? Colocou o verbo *to be* no começo da frase. Se aqui diz que é para por na forma negativa, e o aluno transforma em pergunta, é so falta de atenção! A pergunta foi difícil? Não foi difícil! Agora, a falta de atenção foi que causou problema aqui. [Here, despite the fact that it says: negative form, what did some students do? They placed the verb *to be* at the beginning of the phrase. If it says here that you should change the phrase into a negative, and the students changes it into a question, it can only be for lack of attention! Was the question difficult? No, it was not difficult! It was the lack of attention which caused the problem here].[19]

Teacher: Nessa frase aqui. [In this phrase here]

The teacher writes the phrase on the board in English as she speaks

Teacher: *She washes her clothes every day*. Pede também para transformar isso aqui em uma negação. Olhe, a maioria acertou isso aqui, mas teve gente que colocou verbo "*to be*" nessa frase. Gente, nós já estudamos, vocês já sabem, vocês são terceiro ano e sabem que se na frase não tem verbo *to be*, eu não vou trabalhar com o verbo *to be*. Eu só vou trabalhar com o verbo *to be* quando ele aparece na frase. Ele não apareceu, eu vou ter que recorrer a outro elemento. Nós aprendemos também que se eu tenho um verbo com 'es' eu vou usar *does*. [*She washes her clothes every day*. It is also asked that this be transformed into a negation. Look, the majority got this one right, but there were people who put the verb *to be* in this phrase. Guys, we have already studied this, you already know this, you are third year and you know that if the verb *to be* does not appear in the phrase, I will not work with the verb *to be*. I will only work with the verb *to be* when it appears in the phrase. It did not appear; I will have to resort

85 to another element. We have also learned that if I have a verb with '*es'* I
86 will use *does*.

The teacher writes the auxiliary *does* on the board.

87 Teacher: Bom, se eu tenho '*es*' no verbo, se eu tenho aqui terceira pessoa do
88 singular, o verbo está em que tempo verbal? Quem lembra? [Well, if I
89 have '*es*' in the verb; if I have here third person singular, in which tense
90 is the verb?]

91 A student: Hesitates then says: presente [Present]

The teacher complements the student's answer at line 86, emphasizing that it was incomplete and that the correct answer is 'simple present', as she stresses the word simple [simples]

92 Teacher: Está no presente **simples**! [It is in **simple** present]

The teacher points at the verb *wash* in the phrase *she washes her clothes every day* written on the board.

93 Teacher: O verbo *wash*; ele é um verbo que não e auxiliar, ele não tem a mesma
94 forca que o verbo *to be*. Eu não posso fazer pergunta e negação usando
95 esse verbo ai. Ele não é auxiliar. Então eu vou ter que buscar auxílio em
96 um verbo auxiliar. Qual seria ele? Seria? [The verb *wash*; it is a verb
97 which is not an auxiliary verb, it does not have the same strength as the
98 verb *to be*. I cannot make a question or a negation with this verb. It is not
99 an auxiliary. Then I will have to get assistance from an auxiliary verb.
100 Which one might it be? Might be…?]

101 Students: Hesitate and then say: *does* [20]

Teacher: *Does*! Esse *does*, para transformar essa frase em negação, eu vou colocar ele em que posição da frase? [*Does*! This *does*, to transform this phrase into a negation, in which position in the stage will I place it?]

Students: Silent

Teacher: Então gente. Se eu quero transformar essa frase em negação, eu vou recorrer ao auxilio de *does*, então em que posição da frase eu vou encaixar essa negação? [So guys. If I want to transform this phrase into a negation, I will resort to the assistance of *does*, in which position in the phrase will I place this negation then?]

The teacher points at the phrase written on the board, *she washes her clothes every day*, showing students where the auxiliary *does* should be placed.

Students: Silent

Teacher: Eu vou colocar antes? Antes? [I will place it before…? Before…?]

Students: Hesitate while the teacher encourages them to answer, and then say*:* antes do verbo. [Before the verb]

Teacher: Antes do verbo! E o verbo aqui é? *wash*. Então eu vou dividir o sujeito; vou colocar meu auxiliar; esse meu auxiliary vai ser seguido da negação. [Before the verb! And the verb here is…? *wash*. Then I will divide the subject; I will place my auxiliary; and this auxiliary will be followed by a negative adverb.]

The teacher writes *does not* on the board, indicating the position where it should be placed in the phrase: *she washes her clothes every day* to change the phrase into a negative.

120	Teacher:	E o que que vai acontecer com o verbo principal; o verbo *wash*? Ele vai
121		perder...? [And what will happen to the main verb; the verb *wash*? It will
122		lose…?
123	Students:	Complete the teacher's sentence - Perder o '*s*' [lose the '*s*']
124	Teacher:	Vai perder o '*s*'! Por qual motivo? [It will lose the '*s*'! For what reason?]
125	Students:	Silent
126	Teacher:	Por qual motivo? Por que que vai perder esse '*s*'? [For what reason?
127		Why will it lose the '*s*'?]
128	Students:	Silent
129	Teacher:	Heim minha gente? Vocês são terceiro ano. Vocês estão velhos e carecas
130		de saber isso. É só prestar tenção! Isso aqui vocês já viram e reviram
131		várias vezes. Que silêncio! Por que que vai perder esse '*s*'? [So, guys?
132		You are year 12. You know this content very well. You just need to pay
133		attention! You have seen this content over and over again. What a silent
134		class! Why will it lose the '*s*'?]
135	One student:	E assim, vamos supor que na frase permaneça o '*es*'. Assim, porque na
136		frase teria que permanecer o '*es*', ai ficaria com o *do*. Um exemplo, ai o
137		*does* não já tem o '*es*'? por isso o *wash* perde o '*es*', do verbo? [It is like
138		this, suppose the 'es' remains in the phrase. Like this, because the 'es'
139		would have to remain in the phrase, it would stay with the "*do*". An
140		example, then doesn't the *does* already have the '*es*'? That's why the
141		*wash* loses the '*es*, of the verb?]
142	Teacher:	Eu só vou usar o '*es*' no verbo quando estiver na forma positiva, não e
143		isso? Se eu fosse fazer uma pergunta com isso aqui. Eu usei meu

144 auxiliary com ‘es’, então não vai ser necessário eu colocar ‘es’ no verbo.
145 Como eu vou ficar com o *does*, ele vai me ajudar a fazer a pergunta,
146 porém ele vai querer meu ‘es’, OK? Eu não vou ficar com repetição.
147 Quem vai ficar concordando com o sujeito e o verbo auxiliary. Deu para
148 entender? [I will only use the ‘es’ in the verb when it is in positive form,
149 isn’t it? If I was going to ask a question with this; I used my auxiliary
150 with ‘*es*’, then it will not be necessary that I put ‘es’ in the verb. Since I
151 will have *does*, it will help me forming a question, however it will
152 require my ‘*es*’, OK? I will not have repetition. The element agreeing
153 with the subject will be the auxiliary verb. Did you understand?]

154 Students: Silent

4.3.1.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

The teacher begins the lesson with only two students in the classroom. Other students gradually arrive until well past the middle of the lesson. As time progresses, more students start to arrive. At the end of the lesson the classroom is full.

The teacher asks questions to which the answers are written on the exercise printout, which was previously given to students, and calls the students’ attention to the answer, before she asks each question. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher tells students she is going to answer the initial five questions of each exercise block (lines 6–7, translation[21] lines 20–21). The first block is a series of affirmative sentences and the students are required to transform these sentences into interrogative or negative sentences, according to instructions between brackets, beside each sentence.

The teacher mentions that the first sentence is affirmative and the exercise requires it to be transformed into negative (lines 23–25). She reminds the students that the sentence contains the verb *to be*, and that this verb is used to make the positive, negative, and interrogative forms of the sentences, “so there is no reason to worry”, the teacher says in Portuguese (lines 25–28). She repeats that the phrase is in affirmative form and that she wants to change it into a negative, and asks the students how to change the affirmative phrase into a negative (lines 28–30). None of the students tries to answer (line 31).

Immediately after these comments, Teacher 3 writes the first sentence of the list on the whiteboard, and tells students that she thought everyone was going to do well in the exercise (lines 32–33). The students talk to one another about matters unrelated to the lesson. The teacher then asks the class if the sentence on the board is positive, negative or interrogative, even though she had already told the students in which form the sentence was written (lines 34–36); the answer does not come easily (lines 37–39).

The teacher then asks the students how to transform the sentence into a negative, reminding them of the use of *to be* (lines 44–51). The students do not try to answer (lines 49–55) and the teacher quickly writes the solution on the board and explains to students once more how to do it, commenting on most frequent mistakes which the students had made in the exercise (lines 56–69). She goes on working with phrases from the exercise sheet, asking questions about grammar, most of which the students do not answer, and the teacher has to answer herself (lines 71–154).

When a student tries to answer a question, the teacher does not acknowledge that the student is actually correct, or uses any elements of the student’s answer. She either completes the student’s answer, emphasizing that it was incomplete, as in lines 87–92, or simply ignores the student’s contribution, and recites some formulaic and confusing explanations as the correct answer to her question, shown in lines 148–153.

4.3.1.3 Comments

The first lesson observed followed a knowledge-transfer approach, and was based on giving grammatical instruction, consistent with the Grammar Translation method. In the transcribed extracts above, it can be seen that the teacher talks for most of the lesson; and her talk mostly involves meta-language in Portuguese about English grammar. The students' lack of interest is evident in their lateness and lack of participation and their complete lack of understanding.

The teacher discouraged students' participation, refuting any attempts the students made to contribute to the lesson. This can be seen in lines 135–141: the student's answer to the teacher's question, despite not being very clear, was correct. The third person singular marker moved from the main verb to the auxiliary verb. The teacher, however, ignored the student's contribution completely. Her own explanation was also not very clear (lines 142–153), if one takes into account that she chose to use question formation to exemplify the third person singular marker movement in negation, and finished with a reference to the subject, using a syntactic classification which she had not mentioned before in this lesson.

This kind of classroom behaviour is not uncommon in these contexts, and demonstrates the existence of a gap, which separates students from teacher, usually recognizable as an effect of knowledge-transfer approaches. The teacher's discourse was, for the most part, unintelligible to students. This frequently causes students to appear alienated. The fact that the teacher had pre-determined formulaic closed answers to all questions seemed to inhibit students' participation for fear of being wrong. Lack of students' participation can produce automatic responses from teachers, who grow accustomed to answering their own questions or leading students to predetermined answers. This is all quite different from approaches informed by the model, which is based on social interaction and partnership between classroom participants.

The teacher repeated constantly that the students already knew the content; that they had studied it exhaustively in the past; that they were year 12 students; and that they just needed to concentrate and pay attention to the exercise to be able to answer it correctly. If they made mistakes, she said, it could only be for lack of attention (lines 78–86 and 129–134).

Teacher 3 continued giving the students grammatical explanations, which the vast majority did not seem to understand. The students were not able to demonstrate any knowledge about the simplest syntactic structures in English. Only very few students were able to participate, and even the ones who could participate did so in a minimal way. Considering that the content of the lesson had been studied by these students repeatedly over a 3 year period, their performance suggests that the approach was not effective. Not only did the students fail to acquire the language at any level, but they also failed to develop declarative knowledge of its grammar.

4.3.2 Teacher 3 – stage 2 – Observation 2

In the workshops, Teacher 3 said she wanted to develop ways to improve students' participation and to render her lessons more interactive. She chose to concentrate on aspects of the course relating to the contextualization of content and the socialization of classroom relations of power and responsibility. She decided to start the shift herself, working with altering the way she approached teaching her classes in order to evaluate how the students would respond.

The second lesson by Teacher 3, which was observed nine weeks after the first lesson observed, showed that classroom dynamics had changed remarkably. The teacher no longer answered her own questions. Instead, she helped students in the construction of answers, guiding them with other questions and trying to make use of whatever answers

the students produced. Students' participation, engagement and interest appeared much higher than during the first observation, in stage 1.

4.3.2.1 Transcript – Teacher 3 – Observation 2

The following extracts from transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

Teacher: Hoje nós vamos falar sobre pronomes. Quem sabe o que é um pronome? [Today we are going to talk about pronouns. Who knows what a pronoun is?]

Students: Silent

Teacher: Então minha gente. Me digam uma frase falando de você! Qualquer coisa que você gosta. De que você gosta? [So guys, give me a phrase about you! Anything you like doing. What do you like doing?]

One student: Eu gosto de comer! [I like eating!]

Teacher: Muito bem! Eu gosto de comer. [Very well! I like eating]

The teacher writes the phrase on the board in Portuguese.

Teacher: Então, o Emerson falou que gosta de comer. Se eu quiser dizer: o Emerson gosta de comer, mas não quiser usar o nome dele, como é que eu digo? [So, Emerson said that he likes eating. If I wanted to say that Emerson likes eating, but I didn't want to use his name, how would I say it?

Students: silent

Teacher: Ta bom então. Como é que eu falo qualquer coisa sobre o Emerson se eu não sei o nome dele? Vamos supor que eu queira dizer alguma coisa

sobre uma pessoa e eu não sei o nome; um rapaz, que esta na minha frente, que palavra eu uso no lugar do nome do rapaz, ou do Emerson? [Ok then. How could I say something about Emerson if I didn't know his name? Suppose I wanted to say something about somebody who´s name I didn't know; a guy, who was in front of me, what word could I use instead of this guy's name? Or Emerson's name?

Students: Ele? [He?]

Teacher: Sim, ele. Isso é um pronome! Qual é então a definição de pronome? [Yes, he. This is a pronoun. What is the definition of pronoun then?]

Students: Usa no lugar do nome? [Use instead of the name?]

Teacher: Exato! Pronome é uma palavra que se usa no lugar de um nome; uma palavra que substitui um nome, ou qualquer substantivo, não precisa ser próprio. Me diga então uma frase com pronome. [Exactly! Pronoun is a word which is used instead of a name, or any noun, doesn't have to be a name. Give me then a phrase with a pronoun.]

A student: Voce é linda. [You are gorgeous]

Teacher: Muito bem. Agora vamos formar frases mais longas. Na semana passada foi dia das mães. O que vocês fizeram para suas mães? [Very well. Now we will form longer phrases. It was Mother's Day last week. What did you do for your mother?]

Students: Eu fiz um bolo pra minha mãe. Eu dei um presente pra minha mãe….[I made a cake for my mother. I gave a present to my mother...]

The teacher then elicits from the students an English version of the phrases contributed by them, and writes the phrases in English on the board.

Teacher: Estão vendo como o Inglês é parecido com o Português? Estão vendo como é fácil? Vocês sabem muito mais do que vocês pensam; só precisam praticar. [Do you see how similar English is to Portuguese? Do you see how easy it is? You know much more than you think you do; you just need to practise!]

Teacher: Muito bem! Eu dei um presente para minha mãe. Nessa frase tem pronome? [Very well! Is there a pronoun in this phrase?]

Students: Tem: eu. [Yes: I.]

Teacher: E se eu quizesse usar mais um pronome? Como ficaria a frase? [And if I wanted to add one more pronoun? How would I phrase this?]

Students: Eu dei um present para ela. [I gave her a present]

Teacher: Muito bem! Agora eu tenho dois pronomes. O primeiro pronome é o sujeito da frase, e nós chamamos de pronome sujeito. O Segundo pronome é o objeto, e nós chamamos de pronome objeto. [Well done. Now I have two pronouns. The first one is the subject of the sentence, which we will call subject pronoun. The second one is an object, and we call it object pronoun].

The teacher tells students that in English, similarly to Portuguese, pronouns can be subjects and objects, but in English, unlike in Portuguese, the pronouns are different. The teacher writes the pronouns on the board in two corresponding columns, dividing subject and object case pronouns and asks the students to translate their own sentences into English, with her help.

Teacher: E como ficaria essa frase em Inglês? [And how would I say this in English?]

The students work together to produce the English form.

Students: I gave a present for she.

Teacher: Muito bom. Mas em Inglês eu não posso dizer assim. Porque em Inglês, pronomes sujeito e pronome objeto são diferentes. [Very good. But in English, we can't say it like this. Because in English, subject pronouns and object pronouns are different]

One student: Então como é que eu digo? [How do I say it then?]

Teacher: Em Inglês, nós usamos pronomes diferentes para sujeito e objeto. *I, you, he, she, it, we, they,* são pronomes sujeito. *Me, you, him, her, it, us, them,* são pronomes objeto. Estão vendo que só o *it* e o *you* estão nas duas listas? [In English, we use different pronouns for subject and object. *I, you, he, she, it, we, they,* are subject pronouns. *Me, you, him, her, it, us, them,* are object pronouns. Do you see that only *it* and *you* are in both lists?]

Teacher: Procurem o pronome correto nessa tabela que eu escrevi no quadro e me digam como é que fica a frase então. [Look for the correct pronoun in this table I wrote on the board and tell me what is the correct phrase]

Students: Her! I gave a present for her.

Teacher: Muito bem! (The teacher doesn't correct the wrong preposition) Esqueçam esse negócio que Inglês é difícil, porque não é. É só a gente raciocinar usando o nosso Português, para que a gente possa chegar ao nosso Inglês. E essa outra aqui, como fica em Inglês? [Very well. Forget this belief that English is difficult, because it is not. It is just a matter of

81 reasoning using our knowledge of Portuguese to unveil our knowledge of

82 English. How about this other one, how would it be in English?]

4.3.2.2 Narrative description – Observation 2 – Teacher 3

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

In the second observation, Teacher 3 announces the content in Portuguese—pronouns—and asks students if they know what pronouns are. The students are not able to produce a definition. She elicits an explanation by given students hypothetical problems. She then elicits phrases from students (in Portuguese), asking them to contribute any phrases containing pronouns. The students produce: "*I like eating*"; "*you are gorgeous*"; and others (in Portuguese). The teacher explores these phrases with the students, always eliciting language from them through the use of questions, to construct an explanation of subject pronoun. The teacher continues eliciting phrases directed to explain object pronouns: "*I gave a present to my mother*"; "*I gave a present to her*". She compares both phrasal structures, investigates differences with the students, to produce an explanation for object pronoun.

The teacher uses the students' sentences to explain the differences between nominative and accusative case pronouns speaking in Portuguese, and only then tells students that in English these pronouns, not unlike in Portuguese, are marked by different forms such as *she* and *her*. She asks the students to translate their own sentences into English, with her help, and they do it as a group, each one volunteering their ideas (lines 59–84).

Rather than trying to unveil a formulaic pre-established concept, the group builds on common knowledge to construct descriptions which fit the concept. In lines 47–52 the teacher guides students through the construction of a sample phrase which includes the elements she wants the students to learn (subject and object pronouns); in lines 50–58, the

teacher explains the two pronominal cases grammatically; in lines 52–77 the teacher helps students constructing equivalents in English for the sample phrases they built in Portuguese, and explains the similarities and differences between the use of the pronouns in English and in Portuguese.

When the students are unable to answer the teacher's questions, she elicits phrases in Portuguese from the students and uses these contributions to construct explanations which answer her questions. She uses Portuguese to work out the answers in the students' mother tongue before going into English (lines 1–41). She elicits translations of all Portuguese phrases from the students and writes them in English on the board. She then compares the structure of the phrases in Portuguese to the English translations, and emphasizes how similar they are (lines 42–58). She uses the similarity between the two languages to encourage students, saying that English is really easy, and uses students' contributions to encourage participation and boost their self-confidence. She shows them that they already know a lot of English; they just need to remember and practise (lines 42–48 and 78–84).

The teacher also emphasizes that the students have no obligation to pronounce words perfectly in English or to be right at all times. She tries to free students from the pressure of being right, telling them that making mistakes is good because it leads to everyone's learning. She reinforces the idea that the aim of their course is to enable them to understand the gist of written texts in English, not to attain full proficiency, and that achieving their goal is not as difficult as it may seem.

4.3.2.3 Comment

In this lesson, the teacher's behaviour exhibited a shift from her previously observed practices to practices that are closer to the principles of the model. Her questions did not seem to be intended to check if students could or could not produce a definition, as they were before. She did not produce formulaic answers, or answer her own questions. In

lines 1–7, we see that when the students were unable to answer the teacher's question, she did not give them the answer. The teacher displayed a more interactive attitude, and guided students toward concept building (lines 8–29).

She used student-provided elements to arrive at explanations, valuing students' contributions, instead of disregarding anything which was not a recitation of her predetermined answer. The new approach is evident throughout the transcript excerpts, and it can be easily recognized in lines 1–58. The practice observed is in line with the principle of complementarity, because the group seemed to be conducting a collective investigation of the concepts, which allows for participation and alleviates pressure. This approach is helpful as it contributes to building a safe environment for students, and recognizes students' value as members of the group, which in turn aids social interaction and the formation of group identity. These are also in accord with the principles of the model.

The lesson in Observation 2 appears to represent a genuine attempt to implement the principles of the model. It clearly shows that the teacher departed from a knowledge-transfer approach to teaching, and embraced a knowledge construction view of learning (see specifically lines 12–39). Core aspects of the model could be recognized in the lesson: strong teacher/student rapport; comfortable and safe classroom atmosphere; emphatic valuing of students and their contributions; encouragement of student participation; dissipation of previously observed classroom tension.

Teacher 3 began this lesson using Portuguese not only as the language of instruction but to exemplify the subject matter. She was not talking to the class in Portuguese in an attempt to explain English concepts and grammar rules; she was instead trying to use students' knowledge of Portuguese to lead them to comprehend the grammatical relations she wanted them to learn in English, through contrasting the use of pronouns in both languages. Although this resembles traditional Contrastive Analysis there are two

observations that need to be made. First, Contrastive Analysis is not part of the syllabus of LTE in Brazil, and she seemed to be doing it in an intuitive rather than a principled way; second, this was only a small part of the lesson, and was just a way of allowing an investigation into this aspect of grammar to start.

In this lesson, the teacher talked less than she did in the first lesson observed. She was no longer answering her own questions, without giving students enough time to reflect on the answers. Moreover, she was not reciting formulas and rules to correct students, when they were trying to make a contribution but were unable to make themselves clear, as she had done previously in Observation 1.

The teacher, in fact, seemed to be trying to incorporate anything the students said to use as part of the construction of the answers, even when she had to twist the students' utterances a little. This was apparent when the teacher asked the students to explain "subject pronoun" and they were not able to do it. Instead of simply giving them the definition, the teacher asked students to volunteer any sentences containing a pronoun. Students produced "*I like eating*" (line 8) and "*you are gorgeous*" (line 35) in Portuguese. The teacher explored these two phrases and elicited more, asking students to build longer sentences, guiding them a little until someone produced a phrase which could be used to explain object pronoun in "*I gave a present to my mother*" in Portuguese. The teacher asked the students how they would build the phrase if they wanted to use two pronouns instead of one, leading them to substitute "*my mother*" by a pronoun and thus elicited the equivalent to "*her*", in Portuguese (lines 50–52).

In this lesson, the teacher displayed a different attitude towards her students from that which she had previously demonstrated. She did not behave in a way which gave the impression that she knew all the correct answers and that the students had to figure them out, exactly as they were in her key, or their answers would be dismissed. The impression is rather that she was working with them and trying to construct the answers. In fact, this

was exactly what she was doing; abandoning formulaic definitions and searching for ways to build communally constructed descriptions which could facilitate her students' learning experience. This is in accord with the crucial features of the model.

4.3.3 Teacher 3 – stage 2 – Observation 3

In the third lesson by Teacher 3, which was observed a week after the second lesson, the classroom exhibited the same dynamics shown in the second lesson: the teacher guided the students in the construction of answers to her questions, rather than expecting students to recite a formulaic answer. Additionally, the students' level of engagement and interest seemed higher than in the previous lesson.

4.3.3.1 Transcript – Teacher 3 – Observation 3

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

1	Teacher:	Nas aulas passadas, nas duas ou três aulas anteriores, nós vimos
2		exatamente o que? Quem lembra? [In previous lessons, in the two or
3		three previous lessons, what did we see exactly? Who remembers?]
4	A student:	Pronomes [Pronouns]
5	Teacher:	Pronomes? Que pronomes? [Pronouns? What pronouns?]
6	Students:	Sujeito [Subject]
7	Teacher:	Pronome sujeito e Pronome…? [Subject pronoun and what other type of
8		pronouns?]
9	Students:	Objeto [Object]

Teacher: Quem lembra de pronome sujeito e pronome objeto, do uso de um e do uso de outro? [Who remembers the subject pronoun and object pronoun? How do we use one and how do we use the other one?]

Students: Silent

Teacher: Em que situação na frase, em que função na frase eu vou usar o pronome sujeito? [In what situation in a phrase, in what function in a phrase do I use subject pronoun?]

A student: Na função de sujeito [in subject function]

Teacher: Sim, mas na frase ele vai ficar em que posição? [Yes, but in what position will it be in a phrase?]

Students speak simultaneously, producing two main answers

Students: No começo da frase. [At the beginning of a phrase]

Students: Antes do verbo. [Before the verb]

Teacher: E o pronome objeto? [What about the object pronoun?]

Students speak simultaneously, producing three answers

Students: É o complemento. [It is the complement]

Students: Objeto direto. [Direct object]

Students: Objeto indireto. [Indirect object]

Teacher: Ele é um complemento ou objeto que pode ser direto ou indireto. Complemento de que? [It is a complement which can be a direct object or indirect object. Complement of what?]

Students: Do verbo [Of the verb]

Teacher: Isso mesmo, complemento do verbo. Eu pedi na aula passada para que vocês pesquizassem, nos outros livros anteriores de vocês, os promomes sujeito e pronomes objeto. Alguém teve essa curiosidade? Alguém lembrou de olhar? Não? Ninguém? Olha gente, lembrem-se de que eu sozinha não faço nada, é preciso a participação de vocês. Não fiquem só esperando que eu traga tudo, porque se vocês chegam aqui com o assunto mais ou menos entendido, fica muito mais fácil a nossa aula. Mas vamos lá, quem lembra quais são os pronomes sujeito? [That is it; complement of the verb. In the last class I asked you to research, in your other previous course books, the subject pronouns and object pronouns. Were any of you curious? Did anyone remember to look? No? Nobody? Look guys, remember that I cannot do anything on my own; you need to participate. Don't wait for me to bring everything to class, because if you come here with the content roughly understood, our lesson becomes much easier. But let's go on. Who remembers which are the subject pronouns?]

Students: *Eu* [I]

Teacher: Em Inglês! [In English]

Students: *I, you, he…*

Teacher: Bem devagarinho. [slowly]

The teacher elicits from students all subject and object personal pronouns in English, and writes them on the board.

She revises the use of the pronouns written on the board and asks students to produce a classroom exercise they had completed in groups during the previous lesson. She then asks students to identify their own doubts and difficulties and call her for help. She, in turn, writes each item pointed out by the students on the board, and shares the explanation and the solution to the student's problem with the class.

Teacher: Olha! Olha o que que ele está me perguntando! [Listen! Listen to what he is asking me!]

Teacher: Como é seu nome? [What is your name?]

Student: Adriano

She writes on the board: 'What is wrong with them? They are so sad'.

Teacher: *What is wrong with them? They are so sad.* O Adriano perguntou: você me disse que o pronome sujeito vinha no começo da frase, e aí ele aparece lá no meio da frase. Porém, aqui são duas frases… [Adriano said to me: you told me that subject pronouns appeared at the beginning of the phrase, and there it is in the middle of the phrase. However, here we have two phrases. The first is "*What is wrong with them*?", beginning with "*what*", and the second, which Adriano thought was part of the preceding phrase, beginning with the subject pronoun "*they*".]

4.3.3.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

In the lesson observed here, the teacher refers to previous lessons and asks if students remember the content of these lessons. She tries to reconstruct the previous content based on students' contributions. At this stage, she is no longer answering her own questions.

In this lesson, Teacher 3 leaves her usual spot in front of the class, and goes to stand in the middle of the students, to talk to them and listen to their doubts. Students are more vocal, asking questions, checking understanding and volunteering opinions. The teacher encourages students' participation, acknowledges their contributions and invites the class as a whole to participate in every stage of the lesson. She shares the questions being asked with the whole group, letting all the students know what doubts are being raised and that she is going to help them work out the solution. Moreover, the teacher asks the students who raise the questions to say their names, contributing to group recognition of individual contributions (lines 50–61).

4.3.3.3 Comment

In this observation, we see the previously observed lockstep dynamics replaced with a less structured and controlled dynamic. Some students voluntarily and optionally paired up to work on an exercise, while others preferred to work by themselves. The teacher did not interfere with how students organized themselves—self-adaptation.

Despite still relying on the use of meta-language (lines 14–16), the teacher has changed her teaching approach to a more dynamic one. Instead of answering her own question when students failed to answer, as she had done in stage 1, the teacher rephrased her question and gave students further opportunities to answer (lines 10–17). Students seemed more comfortable and participative than they were before, as can be seen throughout the transcript excerpt, particularly in lines 18–25, when a number of students produce simultaneous and conflicting answers. In the first observation, before Teacher 3 started employing the principles of the model, the students rarely attempted to answer her questions, and when they did, it was always one single student who tried to make a contribution; there was never more than one answer being offered.

Lines 30–45 provide us with evidence that the teacher is encouraging autonomous learning and sharing with the students the responsibility for the results of the

teaching/learning process. She does not impose the responsibility on students; rather she reminds them that without their participation she is literally powerless.

4.3.4 Teacher 3 – stage 2 – Observation 4

In this lesson, observed one week after the third lesson, Teacher 3 asks her class to help in explaining previously studied content. She tells the class that some students have said to her that they were having problems understanding that content, and she suggests that the students themselves might be able to produce explanations which could be more helpful to those having difficulties than her own explanations had so far been. This lesson shows levels of engagement and interest even higher than those observed in the previous lesson. The teacher still maintains a position of control, but she clearly creates opportunities for students to participate meaningfully in the lesson. The high level of comfort of both the teacher and the students is evident.

4.3.4.1 Transcript – Teacher 3 – Observation 4

The following extracts from the transcription of the lesson are relevant for the purposes of analysis. (All translations are by the researcher)

Teacher: Algums colegas estão com dificuldade. Então vamos fazer o seguinte: em sala tem alguns alunos que são muito bons em termos de pronomes. Vamos pedir a ajuda desses colegas? Para que eles expliquem para (the teacher points at each of the following students, and each one says their name) Duarte, Luciclea, para Jarbas, givanilson e josenildo, porque eles estão com dificuldade, então vamos tentar explicar para eles o que vem a ser pronome sujeito e pronome objeto. Eles disseram, olha Ana, eu olhei o exercício e não consegui fazer. Mas se vocês explicarem para eles, o que são esses pronomes, talvez eles entendam melhor. Então vamos fazer assim, um explica, outro explica, outro complementa e eu fecho. Que tal? Não se encabule de falar, mesmo que você pense que não tenha

entendido direito, fale, porque se tiver algum problema a gente corrige e todos aprendem, então falem à vontade. Primeiro, quais são os pronomes? [Some colleagues are having difficulties, so why don't we do this? In class there are some students who are very good at pronouns. Let's ask these colleagues for their help? Let's ask them to explain to (the teacher points at each of the following students, and each one says their name) Duarte, Luciclea, Jarbas, Givanilson and Josenildo, because they are having difficulty, so let's try to explain to them what is a subject pronoun and an object pronoun. They said, "Look Ana, I had a go at the exercise and I could not do it." But if you explain to them what these pronouns are, maybe you can tell them in a way which they will understand better. So why don't we do this? Someone explains, another one explains and I close. What do you think? Don't be shy; speak! Even if you are not sure you understood completely, you can speak, because if there is any problem we can correct and everyone will learn with this, so please speak freely. First, what are the pronouns?]

Students: I, you, he, she, it, we, you they.

Students: Aparecem no início da frase. [Appear at the beginning of the phrase]

Students: Vem antes do verbo. [Come before the verb]

Students: Vem antes da ação. [Come before the action]

Students: Ocupam a função de sujeito. [Function as subject]

Students: Ele pratica a ação. [It does the action]

Teacher: Em Português, quem daria um exemplo para eles poderem entender melhor? [In Portuguese, who could give an example for them to understand better?]

A student: Eu vou à escola. [I go to school]

The teacher repeats the student's example and writes it on the board.

Teacher: Aqui tem sujeito? Tem Duarte? [Is there a subject here? Is there Duarte?]

The teacher asks the whole class and names one of the students who had difficulties.

Students: Sim; *eu*. [Yes; *I*]

Teacher: Então, vocês estão vendo que em Português também, ele vai vir no começo da frase, antes do verbo e vai praticar a ação? E esse eu, está representando uma pessoa? [So can you see that in Portuguese as well it will appear at the beginning of the phrase, before the verb and will do the action? And this '*I*', does it represent a person?]

Students: Está! [It does]

Teacher: E é por isso que ele é promone. No caso aí, pronome pessoal. E como é que ficaria em Inglês? [And that's why it is a pronoun. In this particular case, a personal pronoun. And how would this phrase be in English?]

Student 1: *I*

Student 2: *Go*

Student 3: *School*

The teacher writes the phrase on the board, leaving a space between 'go' and 'school'

Teacher: I, go, school, mas antes tem uma preposição não é? I go to school. Deu para entender? Que tal um outro exemplo, com um outro pronome pessoal? [*I*, *go*, *school*, but before we have a preposition, isn't it? *I go to school*. Did you understand? How about another example, with another personal pronoun?]

57 A Student: Eu gosto de você. [I like you]

58 Teacher: Sem ser eu, um outro pronome. [Not with *I*, a different pronoun]

59 Same student: Você gosta de dançar? [Do you like dancing?]

60 Teacher: Muito bem. Você gosta de dançar.

The teacher writes the phrase on the board in Portuguese[22].

61 Teacher: Tem pronome aqui nessa frase? [Is there a pronoun in this phrase?]

62 Student: Tem, *você*. [Yes; *you*]

63 Teacher: *Você* em Inglês é? [What is '*você*' in English?]

64 Students: *You*

65 Teacher: *Gosta*? [What is 'gosta' in English?]

66 Students: Silent

67 Teacher: *Gosta* todo mundo sabe! ['*Gosta*' everybody knows!]

68 Students: *Like*

69 Teacher: Como é *Dançar* em Inglês? [What is 'dançar' in English?]

70 Students: silent

71 Teacher: Muito parecido com o Português! [It is very similar to Portuguese!]

72 A student: *Dance*

73 Teacher: Isso mesmo, *dance*. I like to dance. [That's it; *dance*. I like to dance.]

Thereafter, the teacher continues the lesson along in the same lines until the end, exploring both object and subject pronouns.

4.3.4.2 Narrative description

What follows is a narrative account by the researcher of the lesson recorded in the transcript.

At the beginning of the lesson, Teacher 3 asks the whole class to help some students who are having difficulties, and concedes that perhaps the students can explain to each other in a more comprehensible way than her own explanations had so far been (lines 1–27).

The teacher asks the students who have difficulties to identify themselves, which they all do in a comfortable manner (lines 16–20). She frees students from the pressure of being right and invites any contribution, emphasizing that if someone makes a mistake it would create an opportunity for everyone to learn (lines 24–27). The group seems eager to contribute and many volunteer explanations. They produce subject pronouns in English, and explain their function and usual position in the phrase (lines 28–33).

Several students want to talk and the teacher has to organize turns for the ones who want to speak, guiding them with questions (lines 28–39). The teacher asks how the sample phrase would be said in English, and the students talk alternately constructing the English translation (lines 49–51). The teacher then writes on the board the words contributed by the students and points out the absence of a preposition which she supplies (lines 52–56). The same practices are repeated to elicit other examples.

The teacher encourages students' participation in a completely different manner from that which she displayed in Observation 1. She does not put pressure on the students, as she did before (Section 4.3.1.1; lines 60–69 and 129–134 and section 4.3.1.3), telling them that they should know the answer and reminding them that they had already studied the content, and thus suggesting that they had not paid attention. Instead, she humorously tells them that they know the answer (lines 67–68), or gives them clues to help them remember (lines 69–73).

4.3.4.3 Comment

In this lesson, the teacher opens up space for classroom members to contribute their knowledge about a given content in the stated hope that it will help solve some problems manifested by other classroom members—complementarity. She tries to elicit different explanations and examples from the class, and checks if these help those with doubts.

This lesson clearly shows that the teacher has reduced the gap between herself and the students, encouraging collaboration in her classroom. The approach has thus shifted from a teacher-centred approach to a more participative one. The students, in turn, responded to the changes in the teacher's behaviour, and shifted their behaviour accordingly, becoming more engaged and participative.

This is observable in the way the teacher shared her role with the students. She asked them to volunteer explanations about the topic under study, in an attempt to help other students who manifested difficulties. She still controlled and organized students' turns, but afforded students a meaningful epistemic role, telling them that they could help clarify someone else's doubts. The teacher did not forgo her authority, but granted students a different status in the classroom (lines 1–27). This lesson reveals a recognition that the students are active participants in the classroom practices and an attempt to promote social interaction.

Simultaneously, this approach appears to contribute to the development of a safe environment for students, increasing their level of comfort, engagement and participation. This is evident when the teacher asks the students who have difficulties to identify themselves, which they all do in a comfortable manner. This demonstrates that the group is united, that there is a sense of security amongst participants, and shows how much more relaxed the students are (lines 16–20).

4.3.5 Summary of Teacher 3

These observations indicate that the classroom dynamics, and the behaviour of both teacher and students changed after the teacher was introduced to the model. The main differences between the primary observation and the second observation, conducted three months after the teacher had commenced the self-adaptive LTE course were that the classroom atmosphere became light and comfortable; the lesson shifted from a lockstep approach to a more interactive and dynamic approach; the level of interaction between students and the teacher seemed much higher; the teacher's rapport with students seemed stronger; the teacher departed from her usual knowledge-transfer approach to arrive at a knowledge construction approach; the students were given voice and encouraged to participate; and the teacher started to use her own strategies to improve participation and learning.

According to the observation questionnaire used by the researcher during all observations, these changes were increasingly noticeable in Observations 3 and 4. The influence of the model was recognized in the way the teacher's approach shifted from Grammar Translation to a more collaborative approach; students' level of interest and engagement rose from low to medium high, and high; the presentation of content shifted from 'teacher tells' to 'group investigates'; students started to respond positively to the teacher's encouragement to interact with her and to interact voluntarily with the teacher; the students moved from a passive to active attitude and started contributing to the lesson; and the students started collaborating with one another.

Looking at the lessons presented here, it is possible to conclude that, in the case of Teacher 3, participation in the workshops led to change in the teacher's behaviour in the classroom. It is clear that the students responded to the teacher's behavioural changes, changing their own behaviour accordingly.

As a result of these changes in both teacher and student's behaviour, the classroom dynamics shifted from that which is often observed in a traditional Grammar Translation/Knowledge-transfer model; one way stream delivery of information from teacher to students, to considerably more complex and interactive dynamics; teacher and students working together as partners, which is in accord with the model, since it reflects complementarity, dynamism and self-adaptation.

5 Review of the classroom DVD footage

The assessors' review results confirmed some of the researcher's initial findings about classroom behaviour before and after the implementation of the model and, for the most part, agreed with the researcher's interpretation of the data collected in Brazil. The assessors identified change in classroom behaviour in all three teachers under investigation. The extent to which change was noticeable and identifiable varied considerably from one teacher to another. Although the assessors' perceptions did not always correspond, they did do so in the majority of cases.

The lists and tables below in sections 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 show the changes in each teacher's classroom behaviour as identified by the assessors.

5.1 Teacher 1

Changes in this teacher's classroom were more easily recognizable to the assessors than in the other two cases. The influence of the model was clearly apparent and the assessors had no difficulties identifying them. That might be explained by the fact that Teacher 1 was the youngest and least experienced teacher of the participating group. She was ready to embrace change and able to shift her approach in a more extensive manner than other participants could.

Table 38, below, shows a summary of assessors' results from the observation questionnaire in the case of Teacher 1. The assessors are indicated in the tables as A1 and A2, referring to Assessor 1 and Assessor 2, respectively.

Observation		1		2		3		4		5	
Assessor		A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2
1. Can you identify the approach used by the teacher?	Grammar translation	X	X								
	Communicative			X		X					
	Audiolingual										
	model-based				X		X	X	X	X	X
3. How was the students' level of interest?	High						X		X	X	X
	Medium high			X	X			X			
	Medium					X					
	Medium low										
	Low	X	X								
4. How was the students' level of engagement?	High						X		X	X	X
	Medium high			X	X	X		X			
	Medium										
	Medium low										
	Low	X	X								
5. How was the content presented?	Teacher tells		X								
	Teacher explains	X		X	X						
	Teacher Asks										
	Group investigates					X	X	X	X	X	X
6. Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily?	Yes			X	X		X	X	X		X
	No	X	X			X				X	
7. Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her?	Yes			X	X	X	X		X	X	X
	No	X	X					X			
8. Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement?	Yes			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X								
9. Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson?	Yes			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X								
10. Did the teacher encourage Ss' interaction with each other in the lesson?	Yes					X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X	X	X						
11. Was there any group work/pair work?	Yes					X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X	X	X						
12. Did students contribute to the lesson?	Yes	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X
	No		X		X						
13. Was students' learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher?	Yes			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X								
14. Did students display learning autonomy?	Yes			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X								
15. Did students collaborate with each other?	Yes				X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X	X							
16. What language was used by the teacher?	Target										
	Local							X		X	
	Both	X	X	X	X	X	X		X		X
17. Did students produce the target language?	Yes			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X								
18. Were students encouraged to produce the target language?	Yes			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	No	X	X								

Table 38

Table 39, below, shows a summary of assessors' results from the review questionnaire in the case of Teacher 1

		OBS 1		OBS 2		OBS 3		OBS 4		OBS 5	
		A	A2	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A2
Can you perceive any differences between the first observed lesson in Stage 1 and the lesson you have just reviewed?	No										
	Yes			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
If you answered yes, the differences you perceived are related to: (tick as many as apply)	Teacher's role			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Classroom atmosphere			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Lesson mode			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Class dynamics			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Ss'comfort level			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Teacher's rapport			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Ss' role			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Control level			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Lesson content			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
How would you describe changes to:											
Teacher's role	More participative			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
Classroom atmosphere	Improved			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Lesson mode	Shift to Knowledge construction			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Maintained Knowledge transfer										
Class dynamics	Improved			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Ss'comfort level	Improved			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Teacher's rapport with Ss	Improved			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Ss' role	More participative			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
Teacher's control level	Increased										
	Decreased			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Maintained										
Lesson content	More contextualized			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Less contextualized										
	Maintained										
Did you recognize any influence of principles of the Self-Adaptive Model in the reviewed lesson?	Yes			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	No										
If you answered yes, which of the following principles did you recognize? Please give an example for each recognized principle.	Context sensitivity			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Collaboration				X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Social interaction			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Ss' agency			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Meta-cognition										
	Other (please specify)				X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Table 39

A total of five observations were conducted by the researcher in this teacher's classroom; one in stage 1 and four in stage 2. All lessons observed were recorded on DVD. During the reviews, the complete footage was shown to the assessors, who completed the questionnaires while they watched the DVDs. The results from the observation questionnaire and the review questionnaire are tabulated above in Tables 38 and 39, respectively. The lessons observed are numbered 1–5, and indicated in the tables as Observations 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5.

5.1.1 Summary of findings – Teacher 1 – observation questionnaire

Below is a summary of the changes in Teacher 1 observed by assessors according to the observation questionnaire. These are the changes observed in the classroom between stage 1 and stage 2.

According to the assessors, the main approach used by the teacher shifted from Grammar Translation to a model-based approach; the students' level of interest and engagement increased in stage 2; the mode of presentation of content shifted from 'teacher tells/explains' to 'group investigates'. The assessors thought that, in stage 2, the students began interacting with the teacher and with one another voluntarily; the teacher started encouraging students' interaction with her and with one another.

The assessors also thought that the students began contributing to the lesson and working in pairs and groups, that the students' learning autonomy began to be encouraged, the students started collaborating with one another, that the teacher began to encourage students to produce the target language, and that the students actually started producing the target language.

5.1.2 Summary of findings – Teacher 1 – review questionnaire

Below is a summary of the changes between stage 1 and stage 2 as observed by assessors in the case of Teacher 1 according to the review questionnaire. The assessors observed

changes in: (a) teacher's role; (b) lesson mode; (c) classroom dynamics; (d) students' comfort level; (e) teacher's rapport with students; (f) students' role; (g) teacher's control level; (h) lesson content.

The assessors thought that Teacher 1 took a more participative role in stage 2 than she did in stage 1. This was exemplified in the way the teacher interacted with students—she was closer to having a dialogue than lecturing; the way the teacher positioned herself in the classroom, not always in front of the class but amongst students; in the teacher's overall attitude toward teaching and learning, putting herself in the position of a more experienced participant rather than that of an authoritative presence; and in the way the teacher assisted students when they needed help, encouraging them to consider possibilities rather than giving answers.

According to the assessors, the classroom atmosphere, class dynamics, students' level of comfort, and teacher's rapport with students improved. This was identified in the way students displayed a more relaxed and participative attitude; in the noise and laughter generated by students' enthusiasm; in the way the teacher allowed the students to perform freely and interact with each other; in the way the students interacted with the teacher, seeking help and confirmation of their opinions.

Assessors also thought that the lesson mode had shifted from Grammar Translation to a model-based approach, which was evidenced in the shift from knowledge transfer to knowledge construction; in the way that the teacher's control level decreased, that students' role was more participative, and that the lesson content became more contextualized. Assessors pointed out that the teacher was no longer asking questions to which she had a pre-established standard answer, but offering students problems and guiding them in the construction of solutions; gave students freedom to speak to her and to each other, to move about the classroom, and to express themselves; students' interaction with one another and with the teacher increased.

5.1.3 Summary of assessors' qualitative evaluation of the observations of Teacher 1 in stage 1

What follows is a summarized account of the assessors' qualitative evaluation of the lesson by Teacher 1 observed in the stage 1, based on their responses to the observation questionnaire and their comments about that particular lesson.

The assessors thought that in stage 1 the students were not given meaningful epistemic roles. This is evident in the following quotes from assessors' comments. "Students were given no opportunity to produce language in any meaningful way". [The teacher] did not allow students to speak or produce language"; [The teacher] "did not elicit anything from students".

According to the assessors, in stage 1, the teacher adopted a traditional role. She was "firmly controlling the direction of the lesson" and "ultimately dominated the pace of the lesson", and monopolized classroom discourse as she "explained the target language in the local language for the duration of most of the lesson". The students' participation was closely supervised and mostly commanded by the teacher, "what students were required to produce was tightly prescribed and controlled".

It is evident in the assessors' comments that in this stage the teacher asked inauthentic questions and controlled the students' answers. Even when "individuals were expected to display knowledge", "she (the teacher) led them (the students) to the answer as she pointed to it on the board". The assessors pointed out that the "student's morale and engagement was low" and that the teacher "did not allow students to share ideas or negotiate meaning".

5.1.4 Summary of assessors' qualitative evaluation of the observations of Teacher 1 in stage 2

What follows is a summarized account of the assessors' qualitative evaluation of the series of lessons by Teacher 1 observed in stage 2, based on their responses to both Questionnaires, and their comments about the lessons observed.

Unlike the case in their evaluation of the lesson in stage 1, the assessors thought that in stage 2 the lessons observed were more interactive, that the students were given more freedom, that the levels of engagement were higher, and that the students participated meaningfully in the lesson. This is evident in the following quotes from assessors' comments:

> The lesson was very relaxed and harmonious. Students walked around freely, spoke with each other about the task at hand. They were switched on and engaged. The teacher took on more of a facilitator's role—student autonomy was the most profound feature of the lesson.

One of the strongest changes identified by the assessors was regarding the teacher's role. The following quotes from the assessors' comments indicate that they thought that the teacher took on the role of a more experienced participant and started affording students a much more meaningful role in stage 2.

The assessors mentioned that:

> It was clear that the teacher was being less controlling; students drove the direction of their own learning; students were very much in the driver's seat while the teacher was aiding their own learning; the teacher was clearly allowing the students to explore the language themselves independently and together; the teacher spent a lot of time providing assistance; the teacher spent more time helping the students and less time telling them what language she wanted them to display.

The assessors also thought that the students' behaviour had changed. These are some of their comments. "Students seemed relaxed and walked around the room at will seeking

advice/assistance from classmates". "The students seemed to be engaged and interested on the whole". "They were much more engaged with the language"

5.1.5 Influences of the model identified by the assessors in the case of Teacher 1

Some of the classroom features identified by the assessors as examples of the influence of the model on classroom dynamics are intertwined and not easily separable. This is the case with collaboration and social interaction, which can both be demonstrated simultaneously by a single instance of classroom behaviour. Other influences of the model might be implicit rather than explicit, such as the changes in the roles taken by classroom participants, which might constitute overall conditions for the manifestation of explicitly recognized features.

According to the assessors, in the case of Teacher 1, the influence of the model on the approach used by the teacher was evident, and was most apparent in the following features in the lessons observed: context sensitivity; collaboration; social interaction; and students' agency.

5.1.5.1 Context sensitivity

The assessors thought that in stage 2 the lessons in general were clearly more contextualized, and that there was successively increasing contextualization in the series of lessons. When asked to provide examples of context sensitivity from the lessons observed, the assessors pointed out that:

> Students were given much more freedom as to how they said what they said. They were able to use/seek language they wanted to produce. Students were using words that they use in their daily lives. The activity was more clearly contextualised than in the first observation. There was also increased contextualisation from Lesson 2–3.

5.1.5.2 Social interaction

The assessors identified social interaction as one of the classroom features which most resembled the model. According to them, this was evident in the way entire lessons were

“based on students’ interaction in fulfilling the tasks; students clearly felt free to ask for whatever help they needed from whoever was available to them; students interacted with the teacher and each other”; and were “completing work together and negotiating meaning”. This is in sharp contrast with the classroom dynamics observed in the stage 1, which emerged from the established traditional approach to teaching.

5.1.5.3 Collaboration

The assessors also recognized the influence of the model in the way “students consulted with each other” and were “working together to complete a task”. Assessors thought that at times an “entire task was based on student collaboration”. They pointed out that “though students were working on their own projects, there was still a lot of student collaboration, though it appeared to be entirely spontaneous”.

Besides recognizing the principle of collaboration in the way students sought help from one another, and responded to each other’s requests for collaboration, assessors remarked that, “in addition, there were students who also felt confident enough to offer help as well. There is clear evidence of class solidarity”. These last comments relate to both collaboration and students’ agency, as some students were taking the initiative of offering assistance to others.

5.1.5.4 Students’ agency

The assessors thought that students’ agency was apparent in the way “some students were keenly involved, asking questions and writing. Again, they were also free to produce language that they needed and wanted, rather than following prescribed and arbitrary formulae”. The assessors noted that “the teacher did not attempt to force attention or participation”, and that the students were rather “taking control of their own learning; completing the task independently and seeking assistance when required”.

The assessors also mentioned instances in the lessons observed which suggested self-regulation as well as students’ agency, such as “In Lesson 4, the students’ response to the

task drove the lesson". The following quotes from assessors' comments suggest a chain reaction which starts with the teacher allowing students to interact and leads to classroom dynamics emerging from the participants' interaction:

> The teacher has stopped controlling the content and structure and allowed students to freely explore language; the teacher was giving autonomy to the students, allowing them to talk with each other, seeking help as they needed it. Students worked collaboratively and at their own pace.

5.1.5.5 Other general comments from the assessors in relation to Teacher 1

The following quotes from the assessors' comments synthesise their overall impressions of the lessons observed. These comments were gathered in response to the last option in item 5 in the review questionnaire: other (please specify), and do not address any particular classroom feature indicated by the researcher. Also, these comments are spontaneous and were voluntarily produced rather than prompted as a requisite of the completion of the questionnaire.

The assessors mentioned repeatedly that "this was a much more relaxed classroom". They also made reference to the teacher's increasingly high level of confidence. "The teacher appeared more confident"; "The teacher was even confident enough to consult the dictionary herself when presented with a word she didn't know". Other aspects frequently mentioned by the assessors referred to students' increasingly high level of engagement. "Unlike the previous lessons, all students seemed engaged more or less equally in achieving their task", "The students seemed highly engaged as they worked towards achieving their task".

The assessors pointed out that in stage 2 the classroom was remarkably different from what is usually observed in a traditionally organized classroom. "In fact, it barely seemed to be a classroom at all, as there seemed to be a group of people all working together on various projects, with various facilitators offering assistance as it was sought". Another aspect the assessors emphasized relates to the trajectory of classroom change through the

series of lessons observed, which they considered noteworthy, as the following quote exemplifies. “The progress from Lesson 1 to Lesson 5 is utterly remarkable. Teacher confidence, student agency and engagement are all enormously improved”.

In the assessors’ opinion, the style of teaching gradually adopted by Teacher 1 in the lessons observed resulted in positive change and what they considered to be an improved approach to teaching in comparison to the more traditional approach used by that teacher previously, as the following indicates: “It seemed a far more productive approach—giving positive attention to students who wanted it, rather than forcing everybody to progress in lockstep”.

5.1.6 Discussion of assessors’ results for Teacher 1

If the assessors’ results for the observation questionnaire are compared to those yielded by the researcher, using the same questionnaire, during fieldwork, the correlation is absolute. This constitutes some triangulation and validation of the results collected. When the second questionnaire is considered, a substantial impact of the LTE course in the classroom behaviour is revealed. It is evident that not only was the teacher’s behaviour altered, but also the whole classroom dynamics. The guiding principles of the model can be recognized in these alterations, and perhaps with the exception of meta-cognition, all principles characteristic of effective learning were present in the classroom observed.

5.2 Teacher 2

Changes in this teacher’s classroom were also easily recognizable. The influence of the model was evident and the assessors again had no difficulties identifying them. One significant difference which sets this classroom apart from the other two is the high level of preparedness of the students to embrace the new approach.

A total of four observations were conducted by the researcher in this teacher’s classroom; one in stage 1 and three in stage 2.

Table 40, below, shows a summary of assessors' observations from the observation questionnaire, in the case of Teacher 2.

Observation		1		2		3		4		5	
Assessor		A 1	A 2	A 1	A 2	A 1	A 2	A 1	A 2	A 1	A 2
1. Can you identify the approach used by the teacher?	Grammar translation										
	Communicative	X	X	X				X			
	Audiolingual										
	Model-based				X				X		
3. How was the students' level of interest?	High								X		
	Medium high			X	X			X			
	Medium	X									
	Medium low		X								
	Low										
4. How was the students' level of engagement?	High			X					X		
	Medium high				X			X			
	Medium										
	Medium low	X	X								
	Low										
5. How was the content presented?	Teacher tells										
	Teacher explains	X	X								
	Teacher Asks										
	Group investigates			X	X			X	X		
6. Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
7. Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
8. Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
9. Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
10. Did the teacher encourage Ss' interaction with each other in the lesson?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
11. Was there any group work/pair work?	Yes			X	X						
	No	X	X					X	X		
12. Did students contribute to the lesson?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
13. Was students' learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
14. Did students display learning autonomy?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
15. Did students collaborate with each other?	Yes										
	No	X	X	X	X			X	X		
16. What language was used by the teacher?	Target	X	X	X	N			X	X		
	Local										
	Both										
17. Did students produce the target language?	Yes	X	X	X	X			X	X		
	No										
18. Were students encouraged to produce the target language?	Yes	X	X	X	X			X	X		
	No										

Table 40

Table 41, below, shows a summary of assessors' observations from the review questionnaire comparing the classroom in stage 1 to stage 2 the case of Teacher 2.

		OBS 1		OBS 2		OBS 3		OBS 4		OBS 5	
		A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2
Can you perceive any differences between the first observed lesson in Stage 1 and the lesson you have just reviewed?	No										
	Yes			X	X			X	X		
If you answered yes, the differences you perceived are related to: (tick as many as apply)	Teacher's role			X	X			X	X		
	Classroom atmosphere			X	X			X	X		
	Lesson mode			X	X			X	X		
	Class dynamics			X	X			X	X		
	Ss' comfort level			X	X			X	X		
	Teacher's rapport			X	X			X	X		
	Ss' role			X	X			X	X		
	Control level			X	X			X	X		
	Lesson content			X	X			X	X		
How would you describe changes to:											
Teacher's role	More participative			X	X			X	X		
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
Classroom atmosphere	Improved			X	X			X	X		
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Lesson mode	Shift to Knowledge construction			X	X			X	X		
	Maintained Knowledge transfer										
Class dynamics	Improved			X	X			X	X		
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Ss' comfort level	Improved			X	X			X	X		
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Teacher's rapport with Ss	Improved			X	X			X	X		
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Ss' role	More participative			X	X			X	X		
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
Teacher's control level	Increased										
	Decreased			X	X			X	X		
	Maintained										
Lesson content	More contextualized				X				X		
	Less contextualized										
	Maintained			X				X			
Did you recognize any influence of principles the Self-Adaptive Model in the reviewed lesson?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No										
If you answered yes, which of the following principles did you recognize? Please give an example for each recognized principle.	Context sensitivity			X	X			X	X		
	Collaboration							X			
	Social interaction			X				X	X		
	Ss' agency			X	X			X	X		
	Meta-cognition				X						
	Other (please specify)										

Table 41

Three of the lessons observed were video recorded; one in stage 1 and two in stage 2. During the reviews, the footage of these recorded lessons was shown to the assessors, who completed the questionnaires while they watched the DVDs. The results from the observation questionnaire and the review questionnaire are tabulated above in Tables 40 and 41, respectively. The lessons observed are numbered 1, 2 and 4, and indicated in the tables as Observations 1, 2, and 4. The assessors are indicated in the tables as A1 and A2, referring to Assessor 1 and Assessor 2, respectively.

Below is a summary of the changes observed by assessors according to the observation questionnaire in the case of Teacher 2.

5.2.1 Summary of findings – Teacher 2 – observation questionnaire

According to the assessors, the main approach used by Teacher 2 shifted from the Communicative to a model-based approach; students' level of interest and engagement increased; and the presentation of content mode shifted from 'teacher explains' to 'group investigates'. The assessors also thought that the students started interacting with the teacher voluntarily and the teacher started encouraging students' interaction with her; that students started interacting with one another voluntarily and the teacher started encouraging students' interaction with one another. Additionally, it was pointed out by the assessors that the students started contributing to the lesson; that the students' learning autonomy began to be encouraged; and that the students started displaying learning autonomy.

5.2.1 Summary of findings – Teacher 2 – review questionnaire

Below is a summary of the changes observed by the assessors in the classroom in stage 2 in the case of Teacher 2 according to the review questionnaire. The assessors observed changes in: (a) teacher's role; (b) classroom atmosphere; (c) lesson mode; (d) classroom

dynamics; (e) students' comfort level; (f) teacher's rapport with students; (g) students' role; (h) teacher's control level; (i) lesson content.

Comparing the footage of the observations in stage 1 to the lessons observed in stage 2 the assessors thought that the teacher played a more participative role in stage 2. The assessors indicated that this was apparent in the way the teacher abandoned her initially controlling attitude toward the class. They thought that the teacher put herself in the position of a more experienced classroom participant, giving voice to students and valuing their contributions to the lesson.

Assessors identified improvement in the classroom's atmosphere, which they thought was more relaxed in the footage in stage 2 than in stage 1. According to the assessors, lesson mode shifted to 'group investigates', which is in accord with the principles of the model. This was evident in the way the teacher was letting emerging issues in the classroom direct the lesson.

Enhancement in class dynamics was evidenced by improvement in students' level of comfort, which led to students playing a more participative role; decrease in teacher level of control, shown by the teacher's position change in the classroom, sharing centre-stage with the students, which in turn led to better teacher rapport with students.

Assessors also though that students' increased participation and the teacher's relinquishing of classroom control contributed to lesson content becoming more contextualized to the students' own world.

5.2.2 Summary of assessors' qualitative evaluation of the observations of Teacher 2 in stage 1

What follows is a summarized account of the assessors' evaluation of the lesson by Teacher 2 observed in stage 1, based on their responses to the observation questionnaire and their comments about that particular lesson.

In the assessors' opinion, in the stage 1, Teacher 2 took a traditional teaching role in this lesson, and was fronting the classroom and attempting to deliver a rigidly structured lesson, as can be seen in the following extracts from the assessors' comments:

> The teacher was following a fairly rigid formula for her teaching; the teacher was more concerned with delivering a stock standard lesson—according to the methodology that she was trained in; she was very controlling of the lesson and spoke more than the students.

The assessors thought that the lesson observed was highly scripted and that the teacher placed the utmost importance on observing the script. She was concerned with controlling the progression of the lesson in every aspect, with especial attention to timing the lesson. This is evident in the following extracts:

> Her approach was highly controlled and the teacher was clearly watching the clock and everything that happened in her classroom was driven by her need to control the situation; she was concerned with getting through the lesson plan that she'd prepared rather than capitalizing on what arose during the lesson.

The assessors also thought that the students were not given meaningful roles and that their attempts to contribute to the lesson were not explored by the teacher, as shown in the following extracts:

> When the student with knowledge about the topic was trying to contribute, the teacher's body language showed her discomfort at the time being spent/wasted; subsequently she silenced students that wanted to make a contribution and create discussion in the target language.

The assessors' comments indicate that the lesson progressed mechanically and that the classroom dynamics did not emerge from authentic interactions between participants. The classroom behaviour was strictly controlled by the teacher, and this did not seem to contribute to a productive environment. "There was no interaction between students and not much production of the target language."

5.2.3 Summary of assessors' qualitative evaluation of the observations of Teacher 2 in stage 2

What follows is a summarized account of the assessors' qualitative evaluation of the series of lessons by Teacher 2 observed in stage 2, based on their responses to both Questionnaires, and their comments about the lessons observed.

The assessors' comments about the lessons observed in stage 2 suggest that these lessons were substantially different from those the assessors had observed in the previous stage. The assessors noted that the teacher was no longer strictly controlling the lesson or following a rigid script, and she now afforded students meaningful roles. "She was not following a lesson plan that was overly regimented and structured; students' production of the language on their own terms was the dominant feature of the lesson".

The assessors emphasized that Teacher 2 took on a new role, which is in accord with the new classroom dynamics shown in this stage. "The teacher's role was more of a facilitator." The most noticeable change was the teacher's loosening of control over the lesson. According to the assessors, the teacher changed her approach to time management in the lesson, and allowed students more time to talk. This is clear in the following remarks from assessors. "The teacher did not restrict students with time, or to move on the next exercise on the lesson plan; she allowed more time for students to talk and openly encouraged class discussion".

The assessors also thought that the teacher was giving students freedom to express themselves and as a result classroom dynamics were emerging from the interaction between participants. This is evident in the following remarks from the assessors.

> The content of the class was largely driven by the students' responses and ideas; the teacher was giving a lot of time to the students to work on tasks according to their interests in whatever way they chose.

Another aspect highlighted in the assessors' comments related to high levels of engagement and interest shown by the students. "All the students seemed engaged and genuinely interested in the class".

5.2.4 Influences of the model identified by the assessors in the case of Teacher 2

According to the assessors, in the case of Teacher 2, the influence of the model on the approach used by the teacher was evident, and was most apparent in the following features in the lessons observed: context sensitivity; collaboration; social interaction; students' agency; and metacognition.

5.2.4.1 Context sensitivity

The assessors thought that the lessons were more contextualized in stage 2 because of the impact of students' input. This is shown in the following quotes extracted from the assessors' comments about context sensitivity:

> Students were asked to share their ideas and preferences, with regards to learning and learning styles; the context was relevant to the students (personal learning styles); students were asked to prepare tasks according to their interests and present them in whatever way they chose.

5.2.4.2 Collaboration

According to the assessors, classroom participants collaborated with one another in the completion of tasks. They highlighted the participation of the students playing the role of the audience during class presentations as an example of such collaboration. "Students that were not presenting asked the presenter questions".

5.2.4.3 Social interaction

The assessors remarked that the classroom became genuinely highly interactive in stage 2, as opposed to the controlled mechanical dynamics identified in the previous stage. They mentioned in their comments about social interaction that, "there was open and untimed discussion in the classroom; students were actually producing the target language

together; students questioned each other about their work; through the form of class presentation—this opened up meaningful social interaction".

5.2.4.4 Students' agency

The assessors also thought that the students took initiative and responsibility for their own learning. This is evident in the following quotes from their comments about students' agency:

> Students responded well to being asked to share their ideas, to the extent that one student brought a friend to play guitar for her to sing; students chose their own topics and ways of presenting their work to their peers; students demonstrated how they like to learn by doing it in the classroom.

5.2.4.5 Metacognition

The assessors also recognized metacognition in the lessons observed in stage 2. They understood that the fact that the students were being motivated to share and discuss their personal learning strategies fostered students' reflections about learning. "Students were being encouraged to think about their own learning".

5.2.5 Discussion of assessors' results for Teacher 2

Teacher 2 had reported that she had to divide her classroom time between the implementation of her model-based approach and the traditional model adopted by the school. The teacher explained that consequently she was required to follow the school's programme, which was based on the American *Headway* series. She needed to cover a set amount of content each week, and found that it was better to allocate some time in her lessons to work with the model separately, to allow efficient time management. The observations reported here were concentrated in the parts of the lesson in which the model-based approach was implemented.

The assessors had no difficulty recognizing and identifying changes. The results yielded by both assessors correlated absolutely, except in the case of which particular principles of the model were recognized in the classroom. In this aspect, the results were very similar, but there were some disagreements. Overall, Assessor 2 identified metacognition, and Assessor 1 did not. Assessor 1 identified collaboration and Assessor 2 did not. In the case of a particular observation, Assessor 2 did not recognize social interaction while Assessor 1 did. Apart from this, the results correlate closely with those yielded by the researcher's questionnaire completed during the course of the fieldwork in Brazil.

5.3 Teacher 3

Changes in this teacher's classroom were not very easily recognizable. The influence of the model was evident but not as clearly apparent as it was in the case of the other two classrooms. The assessors once more had no difficulties identifying some changes in classroom dynamics, but their interpretation was that the teacher had maintained her previous approach.

A total of four observations were conducted by the researcher in this teacher's classroom; one in stage 1 and three in stage 2. Three of the lessons observed were video recorded; one in stage 1 and two in stage 2. During the reviews, the footage of these recorded lessons was shown to the assessors, who completed the observation questionnaires while they watched the DVDs. The results from the observation questionnaire and the review questionnaire are tabulated below in Tables 42 and 43, respectively. The lessons observed are numbered 1, 2 and 4, and indicated in the tables as Observations 1, 2, and 4. The assessors are indicated in the tables as A1 and A2, referring to Assessor 1 and Assessor 2, respectively.

Table 42, below, shows a summary of assessors' results from the observation questionnaire in the case of Teacher 3.

Observation		1		2		3		4		5	
Assessor		A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2	A1	A2
1. Can you identify the approach used by the teacher?	Grammar translation	X	X	X	X			X	X		
	Communicative										
	Audiolingual										
	model-based										
3. How was the students' level of interest?	High										
	Medium high								X		
	Medium			X	X			X			
	Medium low	X									
	Low		X								
4. How was the students' level of engagement?	High										
	Medium high								X		
	Medium			X	X			X			
	Medium low	X									
	Low		X								
5. How was the content presented?	Teacher tells	X	X								
	Teacher explains				X						
	Teacher Asks								X		
	Group investigates			X				X			
6. Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily?	Yes			X	X				X		
	No	X	X					X			
7. Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her?	Yes			X	X				X		
	No	X	X					X			
8. Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement?	Yes			X	X				X		
	No	X	X					X			
9. Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson?	Yes			X	X				X		
	No	X	X					X			
10. Did the teacher encourage Ss' interaction with each other in the lesson?	Yes			X	X				X		
	No	X	X					X			
11. Was there any group work/pair work?	Yes			X				X			
	No	X	X		X				X		
12. Did students contribute to the lesson?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No	X	X								
13. Was students' learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher?	Yes			X				X			
	No	X	X		X				X		
14. Did students display learning autonomy?	Yes										
	No	X	X	X	X			X	X		
15. Did students collaborate with each other?	Yes			X				X			
	No	X	X		X				X		
16. What language was used by the teacher?	Target										
	Local	X	X	X	X			X	X		
	Both										
17. Did students produce the target language?	Yes								X		
	No	X	X	X	X			X			
18. Were students encouraged to produce the target language?	Yes								X		
	No	X	X	X	X			X			

Table 42

Table 43, below, shows a summary of assessors' results from the review questionnaire in the case of Teacher 3.

		OBS 1		OBS 2		OBS 3		OBS 4		OBS 5	
		A	A2	A	A2	A	A2	A	A2	A1	A
Can you perceive any differences between the first observed lesson in Stage 1 and the lesson you have just reviewed?	No										
	Yes			X	X			X	X		
If you answered yes, the differences you perceived are related to: (tick as many as apply)	Teacher's role			X	X				X		
	Classroom atmosphere			X	X				X		
	Lesson mode										
	Class dynamics			X	X			X	X		
	Ss' comfort level				X			X	X		
	Teacher's rapport			X	X			X	X		
	Ss' role			X	X			X	X		
	Control level			X	X			X	X		
	Lesson content										
How would you describe changes to:											
Teacher's role	More participative			X	X				X		
	Less participative										
	Maintained							X			
Classroom atmosphere	Improved				X			X	X		
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained			X							
Lesson mode	Shift to Knowledge construction										
	Maintained Knowledge transfer			X	X			X	X		
Class dynamics	Improved			X	X			X	X		
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Ss'comfort level	Improved				X			X	X		
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained			X							
Teacher's rapport with Ss	Improved			X	X			X	X		
	Deteriorated										
	Maintained										
Ss' role	More participative			X	X			X	X		
	Less participative										
	Maintained										
Teacher's control level	Increased										
	Decreased			X	X				X		
	Maintained							X			
Lesson content	More contextualized			X	X			X	X		
	Less contextualized										
	Maintained										
Did you recognize any influence of principles the Self-Adaptive Model in the reviewed lesson?	Yes			X	X			X	X		
	No										
If you answered yes, which of the following principles did you recognize? Please give an example for each recognized principle.	Context sensitivity				X				X		
	Collaboration			X				X			
	Social interaction								X		
	Ss' agency										
	Meta-cognition										
	Other (please specify)										

Table 43

5.3.1 Summary of findings – Teacher 3 – observation questionnaire

Below is a summary of the changes observed by assessors according to the observation questionnaire in the case of Teacher 3.

The assessors thought that in stage 2 the students' level of interest and engagement increased; the presentation of content mode shifted from 'teacher tells' to 'group investigates'/'teacher explains' – 'group investigates'/'teacher asks'. According to the assessors, the students began interacting with the teacher voluntarily; the teacher started encouraging students' interaction with her; the students began interacting with one another voluntarily; and the teacher started encouraging students' interaction with one another.

Assessors also noted that the students started contributing to the lesson, and one of the assessors indicated that the students' learning autonomy was beginning to be encouraged by the teacher.

5.3.1 Summary of findings – Teacher 3 – review questionnaire

Below is a summary of the changes observed by the assessors in the case of Teacher 3 according to the review questionnaire. The assessors observed changes in: (a) teacher's role; (b) classroom atmosphere; (c) classroom dynamics; (d) students' comfort level; (e) teacher's rapport with students; (f) students' role; (g) teacher's control level.

The assessors thought that the teacher took a more participative role in stage 2. This was recognised, among other factors, in the way the teacher opened space in the lesson to interact with the students freely, without trying to control or direct them, indicating a decrease in the teacher's level of control.

The assessors also thought that the students responded to the teacher's new role and became more participative themselves, and their perceived level of comfort improved. The teacher's change of attitude toward the students had an impact in the atmosphere of the classroom, which was perceived as improved, and in the teacher's rapport with students, which also improved.

The assessors identified improvement in overall classroom dynamics, evident in the way classroom participants interacted with each other more spontaneously, which also provided evidence of lesson mode shifting to the one compatible with the model. Finally, assessors thought that students' contributions affected lesson content, which became more contextualized.

5.3.2 Summary of assessors' qualitative evaluation of the observations of Teacher 3 in stage 1

What follows is a summarized account of the assessors' qualitative evaluation of the lesson by Teacher 3 observed in the stage 1, based on their responses to the observation questionnaire and their comments about that particular lesson.

The assessors thought that the first observation of Teacher 3 depicted a traditional Grammar Translation style lesson, as is evident in the following quote from the assessors' comments. "This was a classic grammar translation class; the teacher used a traditional grammar translation/information transfer methodology".

The assessors pointed out that the teacher monopolized classroom discourse, "The teacher talk time was high"; "She did not elicit anything from students".

The assessors also noted that the teacher asked inauthentic questions. "She asked non-questions that she had already answered"; and expected students to recite pre-established answers. "She berated students for not knowing the answers, because (according to the teacher) they didn't pay attention". The traditional classroom architecture in this lesson is

clearly apparent to assessors, who commented, “She stood at the front of the class the whole time”.

Their overall impression was that the teacher was disengaged from her students, that she seemed to fail to take students into consideration, as if her role was somehow independent of the students, who were seen as spectators rather than participants. “She ignored latecomers and had very poor rapport; was quite indifferent to students in fact; she was indifferent to their lack of enthusiasm”.

5.3.3 Summary of assessors’ qualitative evaluation of the observations of Teacher 3 in stage 2

What follows is a summarized account of the assessors’ qualitative evaluation of the series of lessons by Teacher 3 observed in stage 2, based on their responses to both Questionnaires, and their comments about the lessons observed.

The assessors thought that in stage 2 the teacher was more engaged with the students, and that she began considering them as participants rather than mere spectators.

They mentioned that the teacher had a much improved rapport with her students; the teacher’s approach to her students was different; the teacher was attempting to contextualise more and was certainly trying to engage her students’ interest in the lesson more; meta-language was still used a great deal, but it was more contextualised.

One of the most significant changes identified by the assessors was that the teacher was affording students a more meaningful role. Inbuilt in this change is not only a shift in the teacher’s approach to teaching, but also a restructure of classroom architecture, complete with new roles for both the teacher and the students. This is evident in the following quotes:

> The teacher was amongst the students more, answering questions and taking examples of their ideas to the board to share with other students; she asked them to contribute their existing knowledge, avoided lengthy grammar explanation; the teacher elicited language and ideas from the students until she had enough to work with; the teacher was employing techniques to try and elicit information from students at strategic times in the lesson and to try and encourage them to discuss and collaborate.

Another equally significant change the assessors identified in the case of Teacher 3 was a change in her role. The teacher abandoned her permanent position in front of the class and mingled with the students, in a clear attempt to encourage participation, rearranging the power balance in the classroom. She also relaxed her control over the lesson and motivated students to contribute to the lesson and engage with one another. This is apparent in the following extracts from the assessors' comments. "She moved around more; shared students' questions/enquiries with the whole class allowing the beginning of a class discussion; allowed students to interact with each other; students now had permission to pair up and work together if they chose."

5.3.4 Influences of the model identified by the assessors in the case of Teacher 3

According to the assessors, in the case of Teacher 3, the influence of the model on the approach used by the teacher was evident, and was most apparent in the following features in the lessons observed: context sensitivity; collaboration; and social interaction.

5.3.4.1 Context sensitivity

One of the assessors thought that the lessons were more contextualized in stage 2. This is shown in the following extract from the assessor's comments about context sensitivity. "The teacher elicited contextualised ideas from the students, without having a pre-determined vocabulary list to refer to."[23]

5.3.4.2 Collaboration

According to one of the assessors, classroom participants collaborated with one another, with teacher mediation, as they volunteered explanations in an attempt to solve some of

their colleagues' doubts. The assessors also highlighted the fact that the students collaborated by volunteering enquiries which were then shared with the class by the teacher and used to encourage discussion. This is shown in the following quotes by the assessors: "The teacher shared student enquiries with the rest of the class – opening up a discussion; the teacher asked students to help one another with the explanation of a grammar point".

5.3.4.3 Social interaction

One of the assessors remarked that the classroom became interactive in stage 2, and mentioned in her comment about social interaction that "students were encouraged to explain to each other."

5.3.5 Discussion of results for Teacher 3

The results of the reviews of Teacher 3 classroom observations exhibit a lower level of agreement between the two assessors, and between both assessors and the researcher. Also, in this particular case, assessors thought that the project had the smallest impact in the teacher's classroom behaviour. This might be explained by the fact that the changes in this classroom were not as clearly apparent, or did not seem as remarkable as those observed in the case of Teacher 1. However, a careful analysis of the data shows that this teacher also shifted her approach and that the evidence suggesting otherwise is merely superficial.

Having reviewed the footage of Teacher 1 prior to reviewing Teacher 3 might have influenced the assessors' perception. The less obvious and apparently less remarkable changes observed might in turn be explained by the fact that Teacher 3 was the most mature participant and a very experienced teacher, deeply set in the Grammar Translation approach and the knowledge-transfer paradigm.

In some cases, the changes were in fact imperceptible for anyone outside the classroom community. Even the researcher, who attended to this teacher's observations and recorded the footage in the classroom, failed to perceive changes, which were subsequently pointed out by the teacher during interviews while viewing the footage after the lesson. One such case is exemplified by the teacher's gratification as she comments on a student's contribution during an interview, which can only be understood when she finally remarks, "That was the first time that student said anything in class since the beginning of the term; isn't it wonderful that she is now able to participate, to give her opinion?"

What might have escaped the assessors' notice is that, for someone with such a profile, evidenced in the assessors' evaluation of stage 1, even the smallest change represents a remarkable event. It is perhaps more significant and impressive that this teacher was able to promote the changes she did, than it is that Teacher 1 was able to embrace the principles of the model so rapidly and profoundly.

Both assessors thought that the knowledge-transfer mode was maintained in all lessons observed, and that the approach used by Teacher 3 in all lessons observed was Grammar Translation. However, they unanimously agreed that after the implementation of the model, the students started contributing to the lessons. This would not be possible, if the knowledge-transfer paradigm was still being applied. In the knowledge-transfer paradigm, there is no space for students' contributions; information flows unidirectionally from the teacher to students.

The assessors also agreed that students were more participative, and more engaged after the implementation of the principles of the model, which suggests a real shift in classroom dynamics. Other changes observed by the assessors indicate that the teacher's previous approach to teaching was not maintained. The assessors thought that the presentation of content moved away from 'teacher tells' and that the level of control by

the teacher decreased. These two features, unilateral flow of information from teacher to students and the high level of control held by the teacher are crucial in the knowledge-transfer paradigm; these changes identified by the assessors strongly suggest a shift towards knowledge construction.

Despite not recognizing the shift declaratively, the assessors identified changes in a number of key areas and indicated that both the teacher's and the students' classroom behaviour was positively affected by the implementation of the principles of the model in the observations in stage 2.

6 Summary

This chapter reports on the results of the implementation of the model trialled in Brazil through a professional development course with a group of local TESOL teachers.

The data collected show that the participants embraced the principles of the model and developed ways in which these principles could be implemented in their classrooms to address self-perceived weaknesses in their practices, and promoted changes to their classroom practices. As a result, their students' behaviour was impacted and their classroom dynamics changed in accord with the principles being promoted.

In the next chapter, these results are analysed, and the different perspectives on the participants in the project are considered to construct an increasingly dimensional picture of the results.

[14] The transcripts referred to here capture what was said in the classroom with the objective of offering another source of evidence, based on the video recordings of the lessons which were observed. Transcripts are not accurate in terms of recording the metalinguistic features of speech such as measures of time, pauses, hesitations, interruptions, false starts etc. Thus these transcripts are not accurate as would be standard transcription procedures for e.g., Conversational Analysis. They are used as a record of the events in the classroom, rather than as evidence for a detailed Discourse Analysis.

[15] The word "*shopping*" is commonly used in Brazil to refer to shopping centres.

[16] The word "*short"* is used in Brazil to refer to shorts as in short trousers

[17] The teacher switched to English

[18] In the transcript, the numbers 1, 2, 3, next to "student", indicate that the contributions were made by three different students who were watching the presentation.

[19] In the printout given to students, all the instructions for all the exercises are written in Portuguese.

[20] The word *does* is already written on the board and was mentioned by the teacher a little earlier.

[21] The subsequent references to line numbers in this section also refer to the translations.

[22] Questions in Portuguese are formed just by changing the intonation of the last word in a sentence. In this case it was not quite clear if the question intonation used by the student was intend to make her phrase an interrogative or expressing doubt as to whether the sentence was appropriate or not. The teacher opted for the second possibility, avoiding the auxiliary verb in English, which would add complexity to the sentence.)

[23] Other comments made by both assessors also show evidence of context sensitivity; see section 5.3.3

Chapter VI

Data review and analysis

1 Introduction

In an attempt to investigate to what extent, if any, the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impacted on participants' classroom behaviour, the data presented in Chapter V are reviewed and analysed.

In this chapter, the impact of the specific conditions present in the context of the implementation is discussed in section 2. The development of each teacher is then analysed in relation to the principles and crucial features of the model presented in chapter II, in sections 3, 4 and 5. In section 6, the project itself is evaluated, in relation to the criteria provided in Chapter III.

2 The impact of the target environment

As discussed earlier, unless the target context allows for the enabling environment (see Chapter II, section 2.4) to develop, the implementation of the principles of the model is not sustainable. The specificities of the target environment in this study at macro level were presented in Chapter IV, and are crucially relevant to the way the results of the implementation are analysed.

A distinction was made between language schools and the standard education system in Brazil, in Chapter IV, section 2. It was pointed out that while the tightly regulated

language schools environment did not constitute an optimum target context for the implementation of the principles promoted by the Self-Adaptive Model, the standard education system did.

This is because the language schools used prescribed practices and materials, with little flexibility or opportunities for change to occur. In the standard schools, on the other hand, the teachers enjoyed a higher degree of autonomy, or perhaps "benign neglect", as some would suggest. In fact, this reflects a higher status held by the teachers in standard schools, derived from the fact that they are all English Language and Literature graduates, as opposed to language school teachers, perceived as having only been trained to implement the practices prescribed by the school.

In this study, each of the classrooms observed constitutes a unique target environment, resulting from the combination of factors including those separately related to the schools, to the teachers and to the students. The results shown in Chapter V and analysed here emerge from the uniqueness of these target environments, and reveal the complexity of the ways in which variables pertaining to school, teacher, and students, interact. A review of some of the disparities between each particular context of implementation demonstrates their complexity.

One of the participating teachers (Teacher 2) worked at a language school which had dynamics close to the profile described in Chapter IV, except for the fact that it is a public school. This would suggest that the implementation of the principles of the model would not be sustainable in that school, given its macro level profile. At micro level, however, conditions existed which permitted the teacher to adapt the environment to suit the implementation of her new approach, along with the maintenance of the approach prescribed by the school.

One of these favourable conditions was the level of preparedness of this teacher's students to embrace the proposed principles, and might have contributed decisively to the

results observed. Another was the teacher's level of experience (32 years); an inexperienced teacher might have had difficulties working within both models concomitantly.

In the case of Teachers 1 and 3, the students were not as prepared to embrace the proposed principles as Teacher 2's students were, but there were also some favourable conditions, which were not found in Teacher 2's context. Teachers 1 and 3 did not have to follow any particular methodology, use prescribed materials, or cover a specific amount of the content each week, all of which had to be done in the case of Teacher 2.

While Teachers 2 and 3 had solid teaching experience, Teacher 1 did not. In the particular case of Teacher 1, specially if compared with that of Teacher 3, given that the school factors were similar in their contexts, it seems that her limited experience, and perhaps lower proficiency in English, contributed towards her fully embracing the principles of the model and implementing them in her classroom in a highly recognizable way. Had Teacher 3 been not so widely experienced, the results observed in her classroom might have been similar to those in the case of Teacher 1.

Although the inexperience of teachers would seem to be a favourable condition for the implementation of principles such as those promoted in the Self-Adaptive Model, this is not necessarily so. If Teacher 2 had been less experienced, perhaps she would not have been able to handle the implementation of her new approach as well as she did. Considering the idea that teaching experience is not the only kind of experience which can impact on the results of such implementations, and that students' experience also has an impact, might lead to a deeper understanding of the dimension of this particular variable.

The specific features of the target environments illustrate the complexity of these environments and how they impact on the results analysed in this chapter. The following all seem to be common to the target environments in the case study: the emergent nature

of language teaching and learning; the need for language teachers to be educated to respond to environmental conditions; the need for the teaching environment to support such responses from the teacher; the inadequacy of standardised models of language teaching; and the need for teachers to be seen as capable decision makers; in other words, the need for complementarity, dynamism and self-adaptation.

Finally, the fact that all target environments were responsive to the implementation of the principles proposed in this study, despite the differences between them, is some evidence to support the self-adaptability of the model. The fact that each participating teacher brought to their classroom a self-developed approach, which they tailored to their particular contexts, is considered to be a crucial contributor to their overall success.

3 Analysis of the data from Teacher 1

3.1 Teacher 1 overview

At the commencement of the LTE course Teacher 1 had only two years of teaching experience and was self-conscious of her qualifications and level of proficiency in English. Through the LTE course she was able to build a much stronger professional identity and to achieve her objective, stated at the beginning of the course: to develop ways that could help her encourage her students and create more interactive classroom dynamics, in the hope that this would lead to an increase in students' level of interest and participation in learning English.

3.2 Teacher 1 in stage 1

In the case of Teacher 1, it was observed in stage 1 that her classroom was set in an attractor state which prevented students' participation, similar to the case described by Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008a, p. 214–15). Teacher 1 did not expect her students to be able to answer her questions or contribute to the lesson, so she answered her own

questions, or guided the students by pointing at the answers written on the board. The students knew that their lack of participation was the easiest way to obtain the correct answers, setting non-participation as an attractor.

The teacher's level of English was less than proficient, and she was not confident in her teaching skills. These characteristics did not correspond with the image of the teacher according to traditional models: the knowledge transferrer. Her lack of experience and preparedness led her to keep the classroom strongly under control. The classroom dynamics which emerged from this context ensured that the teacher was talking for most of the time, thus characterizing the lessons as long, and often tedious monologues.

3.3 Teacher 1 in stage 2

During the LTE course, Teacher 1 constructed a new image of herself: as the more experienced classroom participant. This is in line with the Self-Adaptive Model, and reflects Mantero's (2004) view of LTE programmes as instruments for the formation of professional identity.

She seemed much more confident in her new role, which validated her existing knowledge and did not require her to have absolute knowledge. She moved away from the belief that taking a dictionary to class as a teaching aid would result in her authoritativeness being questioned by her students (see Chapter V, section 4.1.3.3) to openly embracing a collaborative search for knowledge with her students. This is in accord with Hedgcock's (2002) call for a move from the traditional "training" to an education orientation in LTE.

The teacher's discourse shifted from univocal to dialogical (Wertsch, 1998). This is most apparent in the third lesson observed, when she asks students to volunteer English words commonly used in Brazil. She brought the general idea to class, and introduced it to the students as an authentic question, as opposed to using a question to which she had a pre-

specified answer (see Chapter I, section 4.5.1), in this case, inviting the students to contribute.

The discourse which followed was then activated by the students' contributions—judging by the teacher's reactions evident on the DVD—possibly extending and amplifying the original set of words the teacher had in mind at the start of the exercise. This is a demonstration of students playing a meaningful epistemic role (Nystrand, 1997) and constitutes authentic interaction. Such practice fosters the transformative process of imitation (Tomasello, 1999; Feryok, 2009) instead of emulation (see Chapter II, section 2.4 and Chapter V, section 4.2.3.3), which is often observed in traditional language classrooms in that context.

In summary, this classroom became a lively and diverse community, as it is shown in the last lesson observed (see Chapter V, section 4.2.4). In this community, the teacher's role is that of an initiator, because she proposes the classroom activities; an observer, because she monitors the students as they carry on the activities; and of a helper, because she assists when the students encounter difficulties. Importantly, however, this observation shows that the teacher shares the observer and helper roles with the students. This is evident in the way many students turned to one another for help in this lesson, and the way that some, who had already completed the work, went around offering to help others.

Ultimately, as the evidence shows, the behaviour of the classroom as a whole emerged from the interaction among all participants, not only between teacher and students, but also amongst students themselves. Because every future stage in the development of this classroom is critically dependent on the preceding stage, it is not possible to predict, based on the short developmental trajectory of this classroom documented here, what the next stages will be, or the exact trajectory the classroom will follow in its future development. However, a developmental analysis based on the five lessons observed suggests an evolutionary path in which some tendencies are clearly recognizable.

Between the first and second lesson observed, a substantial change is recognizable. This change can be classified as a restructure, as several simultaneous changes are apparent at organizational level. Essentially, in the second lesson, the teacher has shifted from her approach to teaching and learning based on the traditional approach observed in lesson 1 to a new, self-developed approach, informed by the principles discussed in the LTE course. This is apparent in the way the lessons observed in stage 2 display several of the core characteristics of the model implemented in the LTE course, which are discussed below.

From the second to the fifth lesson observed, the teacher maintained her new approach. The differences observed between the first and the second lesson observed were maintained in all subsequent lessons. This finding is also verified by the independent assessors, according to whom, the same features were recognizable in lessons 2 through 5: context sensitivity; collaboration; social interaction; and students' agency[24].

These results do not necessarily mean that the classroom did not change any further after lesson 5. There was a recognizable increase in the students' level of autonomy, best perceived in the fifth and last lesson observed, in which the teacher merely assists students at their request, while some students play the same role as that of the teacher, and others work unassisted. This suggests that there is a tendency for the classroom to move toward autonomy. The changes promoted by the teacher have dislodged the classroom from its attractor state and new patterns of behaviour could now begin to emerge.

3.4 The guiding principles and crucial features of the model in action

Note that, because the crucial features and principles overlap, data collected during the observations can be evidence of multiple features or principles. The way collaboration and social interaction relate to each other can illustrate this, in that since collaboration can

be seen as a form of social interaction, if students are observed collaborating with one another, this indicates both the collaboration feature itself and social interaction.

(1) Self-adaptation

This is evident in the way the students started to engage in social interaction, collaborating with one another; in the way the classroom environment became more lively; in the way the students' and teacher's role were adapted to the new environment; in the way lesson content became increasingly contextualized and open to input from students. This is simultaneously a crucial feature of the model, and one of its guiding principles.

(2) Validation of participants' knowledge/complementarity

This can be seen through the students' new roles. The students started being consulted by the teacher on what they would like to learn: they wrote to their teacher suggesting content to be included in the lessons; and their contributions to the lessons were used in the construction of explanations: they supplied English words which they commonly used.

This feature is evident in the way students participated in the lessons: they no longer had to recite a pre-established answer to questions, and were free to explore possibilities. The questions the teacher asked the students such as, "What English words do you normally use in everyday life in Brazil?" required them to reflect on their personal knowledge and experiences. All this presupposes that the teacher values and has interest in the students' knowledge.

This feature (validation of students' knowledge and experience) relates to the principle of complementarity, since the teacher's knowledge and the students' knowledge are seen as complementary, both contributing to construct a more complex understanding of the topics under investigation. One clear instance is seen in Chapter V section 4.1.4.1, lines

15–18: a student claims not to use any English words because she does not speak English, but after engaging with the teacher, she volunteers the word *shopping*, commonly used in Brazil to refer to shopping centres. After the contributions of several other students, the teacher returns to the one who claimed not to use English words, asks the students again, and the student concedes that she does. It is also possible that some students contributed words which the teacher had not thought of previously, and in this way, too, the students' knowledge complemented the teacher's knowledge.

(3) Fostering of the principles characteristic of effective learning—agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community (Shulman, 1996)

Agency relates to students taking initiative, and can be seen in the way the students sought and offered help among themselves; decided on how to carry out tasks; compared their work to others' (see chapter V section 4.1.6.2 and 4.1.6.3 above).

Meta-cognition relates to learning how to learn and problem solving. This principle can be exemplified by the same instances above referring to agency. However, while agency can be manifest through behaviour, meta-cognition cannot be directly observed, as it refers to thought processes, rather than behavioural patterns. The working assumption here is that if students are actively searching within their language repertoires to identify English words which they commonly use, or are engaging in comparing their production to that of others, some kinds of meta-cognitive skills are being stimulated.

Collaboration is observed in the way students help each other in the completion of tasks. The relationship between teacher and students in stage 2 of the observations can also be seen as collaboration, considering the complementarity principle.

The formation of a supportive community is seen here in the way the classroom is organized in stage 2 of the observations. As the evidence clearly shows, in stage 2, the classroom became a lively and complex community in which the members engaged in multiple activities according to their own preferences or perceived needs. The students

are seen carrying out tasks collaboratively in a non-threatening environment, which can be understood as a supportive community.

(4) Promoting a shift from the knowledge-transfer approach to a knowledge-construction approach/dynamism

Instead of asking students to perform activities aimed at reproducing what the teacher tells students—the teacher's knowledge—she implements activities which are based on students generating contributions to be used in the construction of knowledge. She does not tell them, she asks, considers, invites students to consider their own and others' contributions, and assists the group in the amalgamation and systematization of the students' contributions.

This feature relates to the principle of dynamism, because the opportunity to consider multiple sources and diverse input can lead to a dynamic construction of knowledge, which simultaneously generates new knowledge and transforms existing knowledge. In such a process, existing knowledge is used to generate propositions (students contribute words and phrases in English), and evaluate new propositions (some of the contributions are accepted and others rejected by the group), leading to knowledge construction. Simultaneously, existing knowledge is being transformed in this process, as it incorporates and adapts to the new input (students become aware of some of the English words they use, and perhaps newly aware of the fact that they do use English words).

(5) Simultaneously informing and apprenticing participants

The teacher's new approach is based on allowing students to participate meaningfully, offering opportunities for students not only to receive information, but also to stimulate their cognitive apparatus, as they search for contributions and consider what is being proposed by the teacher and other students. In this process, comparable to reciprocal teaching (Palincsar et al., 1994), participants are apprenticed in knowledge construction, informed by rational and critical thinking.

(6) The model is suitably applicable to the context in which it is implemented

The fact that the teacher was able to implement her new approach, and the fact that the students reacted to the implementation in a positive way demonstrates the suitability of the approach to the context of implementation. Two components seem crucial to understanding this: the fact that the teacher herself tailored the approach to her context and her own preferences, and fact that the context allowed her to do so. Contextual conditions such as policy have the potential to impact greatly on the extent to which such an enterprise can be carried out and consequently constrain the implementation of new approaches.

3.5 How the necessary conditions are met

The implementation of the three guiding principles of the model: complementarity, dynamism and self-adaptation, and consequently the enabling environment resulting from the implementation of such principles, are dependent on a set of conditions, described in chapter II, section 2.4 as authenticity, meaningful role for learners, balance of power between teacher and learners and self-regulation. To a large extent, the implementation of these principles is dependent on the teacher allowing and creating favourable conditions for the students to interact and express themselves freely.

In order to verify the implementation of the principles, it is useful to analyse how these conditions are met in the classroom. The data show that the classroom dynamics became more authentic, in the sense that, in stage 2, the students' contributions are considered in their own right, as opposed to being checked against an answer key. This in turn contributes to affording learners a meaningful role, since they can share information and opinions and actively contribute to the development of the lesson and to the construction of knowledge.

To enable this, the power balance between teacher and students in this classroom was restructured: the teacher's approach to teaching and discourse changed to encourage students to take on meaningful roles. She started asking them questions which reflected their own experiences, opinions and preferences, so they would not feel threatened, as there were not right or wrong answers. She created opportunities for students to conduct their own learning according to their preferences, as she allowed students to interact and carry out tasks independently, and in so doing created the possibility of self-regulation, because the way the students interacted started to regulate classroom dynamics.

4 Analysis of the data from Teacher 2

4.1 Teacher 2 overview

Teacher 2 differs profoundly from Teacher 1. Teacher 2 had a strong professional identity already, built over 32 years of teaching experience and had a high level of proficiency in English, which was the language of instruction in her classroom. Her students were interested, motivated, participative, and had enough proficiency to be instructed in English. Her initial goal was to develop ways to promote self-initiative and conscious learning strategy development among her students, because she wanted the students to share responsibility for their learning, and by the end of the implementation she was able to achieve her goal.

4.2 Teacher 2 in stage 1

In the case of Teacher 2, it was observed in stage 1 that her classroom dynamics were constrained by the classroom architecture and practices, which precluded the students from having a meaningful epistemic role. Her classroom was a good example of emulation, i.e., inauthentic performance (see Chapter II, section 2.4 and Chapter V,

section 4.2.3.3). It was not the case that the students were not learning, but rather that the classroom potential was not being fully explored.

At the start, the dynamics of this classroom were set by the curriculum. The teacher monopolized control and enforced compliancy. The classroom as a system staged a movement through pre-determined steps in the direction of predictable (desired, but not always achieved) outcomes. During the workshops, Teacher 2 constructed a different understanding of the teaching/learning process based on authentic interaction and emergent dynamics, which was incompatible with the tightly controlled practices in her classroom.

4.3 Teacher 2 in stage 2

The teacher wanted to experiment with the principles being discussed in the LTE course, but could not abandon the traditional practices, which were prescribed by the curriculum and enforced by the school. Nor could she find a way to combine the two models. Her solution was to accelerate the pace of her class as she went through the prescribed practice, managing the time in order to be able to use the two models concomitantly in separate blocks of her lesson.

However, the implementation by the teacher of her model-based approach had an impact on her approach to teaching the traditional block of the lessons, as is shown in the second observation (see Chapter V, section 4.2.3.3). The principles of the model could be observed in the two different lesson blocks created by the teacher, to the extent that only the types of activity set them apart. This is good evidence that the impact of the teacher's participation in the LTE course promoted changes to her classroom behaviour beyond her conscious knowledge, and that her belief system subsequently included some principles of the model which inform the whole of her teaching, irrespective of the design of activities she might have been obliged to implement.

Unlike the students in the case of the other teachers, Teacher 2's students were ready to embrace the opportunity to guide their own learning and demonstrate their learning strategies. The teacher simply created the space, stepped back and watched the students interact, intervening occasionally when assistance was needed. According to both the teacher and the students themselves (see Chapter V, section 3.2 and 3.5), experiencing authentic interaction was a positive change.

The teacher did not seem to have major difficulties relinquishing control of the classroom, which shifted from a strictly regulated to a self-regulated environment after the implementation of the model-based approach. Thus Teacher 2's situation was different from that of the others in that her students were ready to embrace the new approach.

4.4 The guiding principles and crucial features of the model in action

(1) Self-adaptation

This classroom departed from tightly controlled practice regulated by the course-book, to arrive at self-regulated practice. In the lessons observed, the students started this movement simply by sharing their own learning strategies with the group, as suggested by the teacher, and this culminated in the performance of classroom presentations fully developed by the students themselves, including the choice of topics and means of presenting.

The transition from one stage to the other might not be readily apparent, due to these students' readiness to embrace this sort of practice. However, these changes in classroom practice presuppose a series of adaptations, which the classroom as a whole has to undergo. The students were used to having both the lesson content and classroom practice regulated by the teacher and the course-book, and to classroom dynamics which conform to such environment. Once this environment was replaced by one in which the students

themselves were responsible for providing the content and the practices, new classroom dynamics emerged, and the whole group needed to adapt to the new environment.

In the case of this particular classroom, these adaptations happened quickly and seemingly effortlessly. The teacher stepped back from her position as a controller, and took that of an observer and helper. The students in turn stepped up to their new role, and brought their existing knowledge and experiences into the classroom, to share with the group.

This created opportunities for students to go beyond discussing their learning strategies, and to demonstrate their strategies to overcome difficulties. One instance of this is evident when the student started writing on the board the words that her audience showed difficulty in understanding, overcoming her pronunciation problems or perhaps the audience's listening difficulties, or both (see chapter V, section 4.2.4.1, lines 12–14 above).

Not only the student presenting in class, but also the audience showed self-adaptation. The students in the audience role interacted with the presenters, asked questions, asked for clarifications, helped with the presenter's difficulties, in an authentic and natural manner. This is in sharp contrast with what was observed when the students performed a role-play in the second lesson observed (see chapter V, section 4.2.3.2, above); the whole class, including the teacher, seemed to be oblivious of the activity being carried out, and mistakes went unchecked. This comparison shows that classroom dynamics self-adapted to the new practices.

(2) Validation of participants' knowledge/complementarity

This feature is evident in the new role of the students as presenters of content. The teacher demonstrated that she recognised that the students were knowledgeable by allowing them to present and demonstrate their knowledge according to their own individual interests. As the possessors of knowledge, students were free to choose topics and how to present

them. As a knowledgeable audience, students could interact with presenters in a meaningful way. The teacher took on the role of assisting the students overcome difficulties, and this role was shared with the audience, demonstrating general recognition of students' knowledge and capabilities as classroom participants.

(3) Fostering of the principles characteristic of effective learning—agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community (Shulman, 1996)

Agency is evident in the way the students chose their own topics, decided on how to research and address the topic, developed and carried out their own presentations. The students in the role of audience also displayed agency in the way they interacted with presenters, asking questions or helping solve issues.

Meta-cognition, as mentioned above, might not be directly observable. Following the working assumption in this study, it is believed that to successfully carry out the task of developing and delivering a classroom presentation, the students were required to engage in mental activities such as deliberating, problematizing, and problem solving, which are believed to stimulate some level of meta-cognitive skills.

Collaboration might not be as apparent in the case of this classroom as it is in the case of the previous classroom. This might be explained by considering the fact that these students are highly independent, and might not require the same level of assistance as the previous group. However, the way the students as audience participated and contributed to the overall success of the presentations can be seen as a form of collaboration. As in the case of the Teacher 1's classroom, the partnership between the teacher and students can also be seen as collaboration, according to the principle of complementarity. Here too, the classroom environment can be seen as a supportive community, since the participants worked collaboratively around a common goal: promoting language learning.

(4) Promoting a shift from the knowledge-transfer approach to a knowledge-construction one/dynamism

In these lessons, as classroom practices moved away from prescribed content, students experienced the production of information in English. The information they produced to present in class was modified during presentation through the interaction between presenter, teacher, and audience, as mistakes were checked and corrected and obscure points were highlighted and explained. There was no knowledge transfer as such, but information was being transformed to generate individual knowledge through all experiencing the processes at play.

The participants' engagement in this interaction characterizes active knowledge construction, as their participation impacted on the knowledge being developed. They might have constructed knowledge about the topic, even though the aim was to construct knowledge of how to use the language. By considering one another's production and experiencing the production of discourse, participants learned by doing and actively seeking solutions to emerging problems.

(5) Simultaneously informing and apprenticing participants

Participation in the sort of activities that were part of this classroom in stage 2 is comparable to an apprenticeship, a mix of instruction and performance in which one informs the other. Participants simultaneously gained experience as they engaged in these activities as well as information in the form of feedback.

(6) The model is suitably applicable to the context in which it is implemented

In the case of Teacher 2's classroom particularly, as opposed to the other two cases in the study, this feature is fully instantiated by the teacher's ability and willingness to facilitate the implementation of her new approach. From the standpoint of the participants, teacher and students, the approach was suitably applicable. On the other hand, from the institution's standpoint, this may not necessarily have been so, as the approach could be understood as undermining the standard curriculum, as the excerpts from the students might suggest (see chapter V section 3.5).

4.5 How the necessary conditions are met

As mentioned previously, the implementation of the three guiding principles of the model is dependent on the teacher allowing and facilitating the creation of an appropriate environment for the students to interact and express themselves freely, and can be investigated based on how the set of necessary conditions (authenticity, meaningful role for learners, balance of power between teacher and learners and self-regulation) is met in the context of the classroom.

Authenticity is demonstrated in the way the students chose topics according to their own interests; the audience naturally asked questions, and for their doubts to be clarified, creating an atmosphere of authentic interaction which the students themselves recognized, as they pointed out during interviews (see Chapter V section 3.5). The students gradually took on the role of selectors, researchers, organizers, and presenters of content, or critical members of an audience, alternately. Both these roles were epistemically meaningful and required responsibility on the part of the students.

The balanced power between the teacher and the students is at its most prominent in this set of lessons. The students took on roles that traditionally are assigned to teachers: selecting and presenting content; answering students' questions; fronting the classroom. Alternatively, the students took on the role of members of an audience, which the teacher also assumed in these cases. Based on the participants' roles, it would be difficult to identify who the teacher was, in these instances. The dynamics emerging from this environment were regulated by the way participants interacted, in other words, self-regulation was achieved. Presenters were free to choose how to present their topics but had to respond to the audience's interaction, spontaneously self-adapting and self-regulating. The same was true of the audience's response to the presentations.

5 Analysis of the data from Teacher 3

5.1 Teacher 3 overview

Teacher 3, too, had a strong professional identity and high level of proficiency in English. Her case can be seen as a hybrid of the two preceding ones, this teacher's profile resembling Teacher 2's and her classroom resembling the one in the case of Teacher 1. She had had 22 years of teaching experience and enough proficiency in English to use it as the language of instruction, but her environment did not allow her to do so. Her objective at the beginning of the LTE course, which she was able to achieve by the end of the implementation, was to develop ways to improve students' participation and to render her lessons more interactive.

5.2 Teacher 3 in stage 1

Teacher 3's context was extremely similar to the one described in the case of Teacher 1 (public high school, evening courses, unmotivated low-proficiency students). Her classroom initially was also set in an attractor state which prevented students' participation; she did not expect the students to be able to contribute to the lesson or to answer her questions, to which she had specific pre-determined answers.

In the case of Teacher 3, the facts that the students knew that the teacher would provide the answers herself; their own low expectations of being able to provide answers which the teacher would accept (see Chapter V, section 4.3.1.3); and the teacher's alienating use of grammatical terms incomprehensible to them established for them that their lack of participation was the easiest way to obtain the correct answers, setting non-participation as an attractor, similarly to the case described in Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008a).

The classroom dynamics which emerged from this context ensured that the teacher monopolized the discourse, characterizing the lessons as long monologues, often unintelligible to the students.

5.3 Teacher 3 in stage 2

During the workshops, Teacher 3 chose to concentrate on aspects relating to the contextualization of content and the equalization of classroom relations of power and responsibility. This had a strong impact on her classroom behaviour, as is apparent in the observations. She shifted her previous conception of the classroom, in which she conducted her teaching independently of her students' needs and desires, to a collaborative conception, in which the students participated in the construction of the lesson. The teacher stopped seeing the students as the targets at which she directed her teaching, and rather, began to see them as integral components of her teaching.

The lessons were transformed from monologue as seen in Observation 1 into dialogues. The teacher's classroom discourse in stage 1 served a univocal function, contributing to classroom dynamics which required that the students reproduce exactly the formulaic answers they had been fed. In stage 2, her discourse shifted to being more dialogic.

Not only did students have opportunities to speak, but also, they were freed from the burden of reciting formulaic answers, and, most importantly, were no longer reproached for not being able to supply such answers. Instead, the teacher began using the students' spontaneous contributions to construct explanations of the content she was teaching. The students responded to these changes and became more participative.

Teacher 3 did not implement changes to the same extent that Teacher 1 did, despite the similarities between their environments. Teacher 3 maintained a high level of control in the classroom, continued to front the class, and regulated most of the activities, such as organizing turn taking in the class dialogue. However, the same impact was observed in

both classrooms at the macro level: the classrooms were deviated from their original attractor states, which were similar, and developed dynamics which emerged from their new state, and were different from those observed in stage 1.

At the micro level, the dynamics emerging from each context were responsive to the particular variables, and therefore differed.

5.4 The guiding principles and crucial features of the model in action

(1) Self-adaptation

In Teacher 3's classroom, self-adaptation is evident in the way the evolution of the teacher's classroom behaviour impacted on classroom dynamics—the students adapted the way they participated in the lesson, volunteering answers, asking questions, seeking help from colleagues, voluntarily and optionally pairing up. The teacher also adapted to the students' new behaviour, allowing them to make these choices (See Chapter V section 4.3.3.3).

(2) Validation of participants' knowledge/complementarity

The fact that, in stage 2, the teacher started to elicit contributions from the students, by asking them for examples of language use rather than asking them to identify grammatical features demonstrates that the teacher was trying to construct explanations using the students' knowledge, and therefore validating such knowledge. A particularly interesting instance of this occurred in the fourth lesson observed, when the teacher asked the class to help explain some concepts to students who had said they were having difficulties. The teacher suggested that someone in the class might be able to come up with an explanation which the students having difficulties would find easier to understand (see chapter V, section 4.3.4.2). This is strong evidence that the teacher recognized the students as knowledgeable individuals, to the point that she could rely on them to supplement her own explanations.

(3) Fostering of the principles characteristic of effective learning—agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community (Shulman, 1996)

Agency is recognized in the way the students started to make decisions about how to complete the activities given by the teacher: pairing up voluntarily and optionally, asking questions to the teacher, and seeking the help of other students, for instance. It signals that the students were starting to take control of their own learning. Collaboration can be seen in the way the students started to help one another, after the teacher allowed them to interact more freely. Once more these dynamics are consistent with those of a supportive community.

(4) Promoting a shift from the knowledge-transfer approach to a knowledge-construction one/dynamism

The evidence for this feature rests in the way the teacher abandoned her previous formulaic answers and started to construct explanations from students' contributions, involving the students in a problem solving process, and including them as active participants in the construction of explanations, while she incorporated their contributions in such explanations.

(5) Simultaneously informing and apprenticing participants

By actively taking part in the sorts of practices observed in this classroom, the students were given opportunities to experience processes such as knowledge construction and behaviours such as agency. This in turn offered students the possibility of being apprenticed in these sorts of practices.

(6) The model is suitably applicable to the context in which it is implemented

Not unlike the cases of the other two classrooms, the implementation of the approach developed by Teacher 3 promoted a positive reaction from the students. Had the approach not been suitable, it would have been rejected by all participants.

5.5 How the necessary conditions are met

In the case of this classroom, authenticity is demonstrated in the way the teacher started asking questions to which she did not have a pre-specified answer in stage 2, characterising the questions as authentic, and consequently leading to authenticity in teacher-student interaction. The fact that the students were given freedom to make decisions about their own learning, led to authentic interaction amongst the students: if they paired up voluntarily, it is likely that they interacted naturally and authentically, as opposed to the dynamic in a staged interaction to comply with the requirements of a prescribed activity.

Meaningful role for learners is evident in the way the students were given opportunities to contribute to the lesson, and their contributions were used by the teacher, transforming the lessons from the initial monologic (univocal) discourse to a dialogic one, which gave the students an active and meaningful role to play. The discussion about the validation of participants' knowledge in section 4.4 (2) above provides further evidence for the claim that dialogic discourse had been established in this classroom.

Balance of power between teacher and learners was also evident in this classroom—the teacher still retained strong control over the classroom, but started to allow students to move around freely and make some choices about how to complete the activities she had given them. She invited the students to contribute explanations, and thus empowered them, sharing her role as owner of the knowledge and acknowledging the students as capable of producing accounts as valid as her own.

Self-regulation is evident in the way the students' patterns of behaviour changed in response to changes in classroom architecture. Once the students were given freedom to choose how to complete the activities, the classroom became more complex, in the sense that the students were not following the same patterns of behaviour observed in stage 1.

6 Project evaluation

6.1 Addressing the criteria of the implementation

In Chapter III, section 5, it was proposed that the overall success or failure of an implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model should be evaluated on the basis of a set of criteria. These criteria are addressed here, with reference to the implementation of the project in this study. Firstly, each criterion yields a measure of how successful the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE was, in terms of (i) changes in participating teachers' approaches to teaching and learning in their classrooms, and (ii) the responses of their students to these changes.

6.1.1 Results according to the criteria for the evaluation of the implementation

6.1.1.1 Change in participants' classroom behaviour

The data collected during the observations of teachers' classrooms, conducted during the implementation, clearly show that all participants attained some degree of change. A shift in classroom discourse from the teacher-centred authoritarian to the more egalitarian mode is perhaps the strongest evidence of this change, and is in accord with the principles of the model (see sections 3–5 above).

6.1.1.2 Change in students' classroom behaviour

Students responded to changes in the teachers' practices. This is most evident in the rise in students' participation, evidenced in the increase in the frequency with which students offer contributions to the lessons recorded and transcribed (see sections 3–5 above).

6.1.1.3 Evaluation of change

According to the researcher's own assessment of the data collected, changes identified in classroom dynamics indicate improvement in teaching/learning conditions from the perspective of the model: all changes observed were positive. While change was not

always apparent in every item of the observation criteria, negative change was not observed in any item.

6.2 Summary of the evaluation of the project implementation

The results presented in Chapter V and summarized above indicate that the project was implemented successfully. In essence, the criteria for successful implementation may be regarded as essentially having been met.

[24] The reviews and the assessors' results for each teacher are presented in Chapter V, section 5.

Chapter VII

Conclusion

1 Introduction

In this chapter, a brief summary of this study is presented in section 2. The LTE course implemented in Brazil is reviewed in section 3, in regard to how its classroom architecture operationalized the guiding principles and crucial features of the model, and in terms of the resemblance between the LTE classroom and the language classroom. In section 4, the research question is addressed in relation to the data analysed and discussed in Chapter VI. In section 5, some of the implications of the study for LTE are considered. In section 6, the main limitations which have constrained this study are discussed. In section 7, future research possibilities based on the present study are considered, and in section 8 some final remarks are offered.

2. The study

In this study, a tentative model of Language Teacher Education (LTE), the Self-Adaptive Model, was constructed based on the synergy among ideas extracted from a review of the literature, drawing mostly on studies within the Sociocultural Theory of Human Development and Complexity Theory. This model is the result of an attempt to operationalize ways in which TESOL teacher education can contribute to improving the quality of English teaching and learning in a non-Anglophone context.

In order to conduct a trial implementation of the model of LTE named the Self-Adaptive Model, a case study was conducted. The model was implemented in Joao Pessoa, Brazil,

to investigate to what extent it would impact on participants' classroom behaviour in that context. The implementation was conducted through a series of workshops with a group of local teachers, as part of a professional development LTE course, which included classroom visits and observations.

The data collected during the implementation show that the participating teachers made changes to their classroom practices in accord with the principles informing the model, that their students responded to these changes, and that the students' behaviour also changed. The evidence also shows that each of the participating teachers was able to construct and implement a different approach, which in turn led to the emergence of classroom dynamics which were specific to their respective contexts. These findings support the self-adaptability of the model proposed here.

3 The LTE course reviewed

One of the most significant propositions in this study is that LTE classrooms and language classrooms be analogously organized. This is seen as a crucial contributor to successful teacher education, as it is an essential condition for apprenticeship, which is understood as the catalyst of learning. The fact that the teachers experienced the principles and features of the model as these were highlighted in the LTE course allowed them to replicate the LTE classroom architecture in their own classrooms.

A set of classroom features can be called upon to investigate the similarity between the LTE classroom in this study and the language classrooms observed, in the absence of directly observable dimensions of classroom architecture or identifiable participant behaviour.

It is possible to establish a clear link between the LTE classroom architecture in the implementation and that of the language classrooms of the participating teachers. This link can be seen in features such as dialogic classroom discourse; meaningful epistemic

role for learners; power balance between teacher and students and the shift from knowledge transfer to knowledge construction. Moreover, in the classrooms observed, the implementation of the four principles characteristic of effective learning, which were originally identified by Shulman (1996) in the context of LTE, constitutes further evidence of analogous classroom architecture between the LTE classroom and the language classrooms in this study.

Because these features are not normally present in language classrooms in the target universe, as the observations in stage 1 show, the presence of such features in participating teachers' classrooms is believed to be related to these teachers' participation in the LTE course.

Furthermore, in the case of the teachers who participated in this project, the presence of these features is also verified in emergent classroom practices and dynamics in the participating teachers' classrooms, which show an environment in accord with the principles promoted by the Self-Adaptive Model. These are discussed below.

In order to operationalize a dialogic classroom discourse; meaningful epistemic roles for learners; and a power balance between teacher and students in the LTE classroom, the voices of the participants were heard from the outset of the course. This is evident in the use of survey results in the first meeting with participants, and the way participants discussed the proposed content to establish what should be part of their course.

The discourse is dialogic, because the participants have equal opportunities to contribute to the discussion. Participants play a meaningful role, because their participation impacts on the design of the course. Participants, including the facilitator, have balanced power, because they are seen as contributors of different equally important knowledge and the decisions are made collectively. The facts that the knowledge contributed by the participants crucially informs the development of the programme, and that they are responsible for developing their own approaches to teaching and learning, based on the

knowledge they construct, show that the participants' knowledge and the facilitator's knowledge are equally valued.

The shift from knowledge transfer to knowledge construction emerges from these three features: dialogic classroom discourse, participants' meaningful epistemic roles, balanced power between participants and the facilitator. Because the discourse in the classroom is dialogic, participants have balanced power and play meaningful roles; information is exchanged freely amongst participants, who then need to process the information available to them and apply their own understanding of it to develop accounts of what is being discussed which fit their particular contexts. The new information proposed and participants' existing knowledge inform the collective construction of individual knowledge, instead of having a pre-specified body of knowledge which all participants should acquire.

The same four features of classroom architecture observed in the LTE classroom—dialogic classroom discourse, participants' meaningful epistemic roles, balanced power between participants and the facilitator, and knowledge construction—are also evident in participating teachers' classrooms. Essentially, thus, the LTE course was built taking into account participating teachers' expectations about content: the teachers who were observed during the course reproduced this process in their classrooms by giving their students opportunities either to bring their chosen content to the classroom or let their teacher know what content they would like to study. The LTE course was based on dialogic discourse: the discourse in the classrooms observed became increasingly dialogic, as is evident in the way the students' voices were heard and the time given to students to express themselves.

The dialogic discourse in the participating teachers' classrooms contributed to more balanced power relations between the teacher and the students, evident in the way the teachers set the students free to contribute, respected their contributions and did not judge

them. This, in turn, contributed to affording students a meaningful epistemic role—a serious role that they can value themselves—because their contributions were used to construct the lessons.

Finally, the classrooms observed included features of knowledge construction, evident in the way explanations and lesson content were increasingly built upon the students' participation as well as the teachers', characterizing the practices as collaborative dynamic knowledge building instead of static knowledge transfer. The identification of these features in both the LTE course and the participating teachers' classrooms is evidence of the similarity in their architectures. The dynamics emerging from the implementation of these features demonstrates complementarity (teacher's and learners' knowledge activate one another); dynamism (existing knowledge is called upon to understand new information and restructured as a result of this process); and self-adaptation (the classroom self-adapts to accommodate the new dynamics).

4 The research question addressed

4.1 To what extent, if any, does the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE with a group of TESOL teachers in Brazil impact on participants' classroom behaviour?

The trial implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE shows that, on a small scale, the model has been successfully implemented in a short course to in-service teachers, to the extent that those who participated in the trial responded positively, and those who completed the course achieved results with which they were satisfied, and were considered positive in the terms of evaluation specified for this project.

In terms of the effectiveness of the model, the study shows that the participating teachers did embrace some of the principles promoted in the course, and modified their overall

approach to language teaching and learning to include such principles. The evidence collected here shows that the participating teachers were able to implement their modified approaches in their classrooms to varying extents, and that some of the principles promoted in the course were observable in their classroom practices and dynamics.

4.2 Analysis of the impact

Dealing with the matter of the impact on participants' classrooms involves a discussion of a multiplicity of factors, and the question can be addressed from several different viewpoints. The answers to the question are based on the differences observed between classroom behaviour in stage 1 and stage 2, and the extent to which some dimensions of classroom behaviour in stage 2 can be related to aspects of the model.

Patterns of behaviour observed in the participants' classrooms were identified and analysed, and the extent to which these patterns were in accord with the model were explored. Given the complexity of the processes at play in each classroom, the role of contextual specificities in classroom behaviour, and the design of this study, no direct causal relations between the behaviour observed and the aspects of the model were sought.

Both the change in the teachers' behaviour and the behaviour itself are attributed to the teachers' participation in the LTE course in which the model was implemented. This link can be made in the absence of other identifiable factors which could explain the occurrence of dissimilar behaviour observed in these classrooms between stage 1 and stage 2, and also due to the ways in which teachers' classroom behaviour observed in the process of the implementation conformed to aspects of the model.

4.2.1 The impact at a macro scale

In general terms, at a macro scale, new patterns of classroom behaviour were observed in stage 2. Excluding unidentified factors, a plausible explanation is that the teachers'

participation in the LTE course contributed to a chain reaction which led to change in the participating teachers' classrooms.

The observations in stage 1, prior to participants' introduction to the model in the LTE course, showed that the teachers' approaches to teaching and learning were in accord with the traditional models in that context. The LTE course promoted a particular account of teaching and learning which differed from the traditional accounts based on knowledge transfer. During the workshops, the participating teachers were encouraged to construct individual accounts of teaching and learning in their own contexts which were based on knowledge construction instead of knowledge transfer. The teachers were also encouraged to develop individual approaches to teaching and learning in light of their new personal accounts of the processes involved in their work as teachers, and implement their approaches in their classrooms.

Subsequent observations showed that the teachers made changes in their classroom architectures and in their classroom practices which were in accord with the principles and crucial features of the model implemented in the LTE course. This suggests that the teachers incorporated such principles to their individual accounts of the teaching/learning processes and to their self-developed approach to teaching and learning.

As observed, these changes impacted on the participants' students, who changed their classroom behaviour in response to the changes implemented by their teachers; the classroom self-adapted to the emergent conditions. At this stage, new patterns of behaviour and new classroom dynamics were observed.

4.2.2 Patterns observed at a micro scale

4.2.2.1 Teachers' discourse

One of the most noticeable changes in the classrooms observed relates to classroom discourse. In this respect, several differences were observed between the first and

subsequent observations in each classroom. The first of these differences relates to the teachers' discourse. In the first observation in each of the classrooms, in stage 1, it was observed that the teachers used language in a controlling way.

Their discourse was characterized as authoritative or univocal (Wertsch, 1998). This is evident in the way the teachers talked for the greatest part of the lessons and controlled the students' discourse, guiding them to answer questions by pointing at words written on the board, answering their own questions, or prompting the students' answers by uttering the beginning of words, as shown in the transcripts.

The students were given few opportunities to speak, most of which they did not take, and when they did speak, the teachers' expectations were that the students recited the information they had been given: the teachers used controlled inauthentic questions (Palincsar et al., 1994).

In stage 2, it was observed that the teachers shifted from their univocal discourse into a more dialogic mode. They created more opportunities for the students to speak, stopped leading the students to answer their questions, replaced the inauthentic questions, to which they had a pre-specified answer, with authentic ones, which gave the students opportunities to contribute their own ideas, instead of reciting back to the teacher the ideas they had been fed.

After the shift in the teachers' discourse, it was observed that the students began to speak more frequently in the classes. Unlike in stage 1, the teachers' questions sought novel information which needed to be contributed by the students. Questions such as "What do you like to do?", "Can you give me an example of a phrase with a pronoun?" or "How would you describe this picture?" do not have pre-specified answers. This type of question frees the students of the burden of reciting an answer, which they might not know or of which they might be unsure.

4.2.2.2 Meaningful epistemic role for students

It was observed that the teachers were considering the students' contributions to the lesson according to their own merit. Besides giving the students more opportunities to speak and adjusting their discourse to permit students to contribute their own ideas, in stage 2, the teachers displayed a different attitude towards the students' contributions.

The teachers did not dismiss any contributions, even if they were not appropriate, and rather invited the students to rethink and decide whether their contributions were useful. The students dismissed inappropriate contributions themselves. More specifically, some students were asked to explain content to their peers (in the case of Teacher 3); in some instances, the students suggested topics or brought them to the lessons, by writing to the teacher (in the case of Teacher 1), or presenting their own topics and discussing personal learning strategies in class (in the case of Teacher 2).

This innovation in which students were given the opportunity to play meaningful epistemic roles relates to two of the crucial features of the model: shifting from knowledge transfer to knowledge construction and validation of participants' knowledge; and to one of the necessary conditions for the enabling environment: fairer power balance between teachers and students.

4.2.2.3 Power balance between teacher and students

During the course it was observed that the teachers started sharing their role with the students, which somewhat empowered the latter, alongside other practices which could have had the same effect, such as promoting favourable conditions for students to speak freely and valuing students' contributions

In some instances, the students were suggesting topics to be included in the lessons; in others, they were called upon by the teacher to explain content to other students, as, according to the teacher, some of their explanations might be better understood by some of their colleagues who were having problems than the teacher's own explanations. There

were also instances in which the teacher shifted roles with students, who were playing a traditional teacher role for part of the lesson, as they presented their own content, and cast their colleagues and the teacher in the role of audience and collaborators.

This simultaneously shows an adjustment in the power balance between teacher and students and the validation of the students' knowledge in all three classrooms. Interestingly, although the validation of the students' knowledge seemed to have been implemented equally in all classrooms, the adjustment in power balance between teacher and students did not. This is further evidence of self-adaptation, as the adjustment in power balance responded to contextual factors which differed from one classroom to another.

4.2.2.4 Shift from knowledge transfer to knowledge construction

Another observable impact of the implementation on the target universe is the shift in the teachers' approaches to language teaching and learning. The data collected showed that, after their commencing the course, each teacher's role shifted from being an external agent acting upon the classroom to being a classroom participant.

This is evident in the way each teacher's role became more participative, the lesson mode shifted from knowledge transfer to knowledge construction, the teacher's level of control in the classroom decreased, and the content of the lessons became more contextualized, after the first observation.

One particular instance which exemplifies this shift is the way the teachers gave the students opportunities to contribute their knowledge. As the course progressed, it was observed that when the teachers asked a question to which the students volunteered no answers, the teachers rephrased their questions, or asked other questions to help the students contributing their knowledge. The answers to the questions asked seemed less important than the students answering questions, to the point that if the students did not answer, neither did the teacher, and questions went unanswered until the group

constructed an explanation which fitted the question. This is quite in line with the idea of focusing on processes as well as outcomes and the concept of 'authentic interaction'.

4.2.2.5 Classroom practices

The impact of the implementation is also apparent in the modification of classroom practices. This is observed in the way the teachers stopped answering their own questions; stopped asking inauthentic questions; stopped expecting students to provide answers according to a pre-determined answer key; started giving more time for the students to participate, and started using the students' contributions to construct answers collaboratively.

The teachers were not merely enacting performances according to modelled practices, with a focus on outcomes, but constructing their own practices out of emergent classroom behaviour, with the focus on both outcomes and the processes themselves.

This is evident in the differences in the practices observed in each of the classrooms between stage 1 and stage 2, and in the differences observed between each observation in the same classroom. In all classrooms, although to different extents, the students displayed increasing autonomy, making spontaneous decisions about their own classroom behaviour. What is seen in the observations can be classified as emergent behaviour, as the students independently decided on how to complete tasks, moulding their own practices in response to the new environmental conditions, following their own preferences and self-perceived appropriateness to achieve their chosen goals.

This is in stark contrast with the traditional classroom practices observed in stage 1, which follow a lockstep style, leading to classroom practices prescribed and controlled by the teacher.

4.2.2.6 Classroom dynamics

Another impact can be seen in the modification of classroom dynamics, which includes the students' responses to the changes. This is shown in the way the students became more participative; the teachers' rapport with the students improved, the students' level of comfort, interest and engagement increased, and the classroom atmosphere became more relaxed.

These dimensions of classroom behaviour are crucial to creating the enabling environment for the implementation of approaches based on the Self-Adaptive Model, and are closely related to the four principles of effective learning: agency, meta-cognition, collaboration, and the formation of a supportive community (Shulman, 1996).

Examples of classroom dynamics as the course progressed include: students interacting voluntarily with the teacher and with one another; students working collaboratively with the teacher and with one another; dialogue between the teacher and the students; students' contribution to the content of the lessons; increase in classroom activity; teacher and students moving about the classroom instead of adopting their traditional positions.

4.2.3 Evaluation of the impact

Based on the data presented in Chapter V and analysed in Chapter VI, it appears that one of the positive aspects of the Self-Adaptive Model is that it leads to the creation of more participative LTE programmes in which participants have opportunities to contribute to the development of such programmes. In turn, this aspect can lead to advancements in LTE. This is in accord with claims in the literature (Rubdy, 2000 and others) that context sensitivity is a key factor in the success of LTE programmes, and that considering the impact of social factors in LTE is crucial to the development of effective LTE programmes (Breen, 2001).

The general argument underlying participative LTE programmes is as follows. When novice-teachers are apprenticed into the practice of language teaching of the kind that fosters the collaborative development of individual principled approaches to language teaching and learning by each participant, they will be able to construct a strong professional identity, as well as become better prepared to develop context sensitive classroom architectures and implement authentic and more successful practices in their teaching.

Most importantly, language teachers will be able to carry the idea of apprenticeship and collaborative development into their classrooms and promote changes to traditional classroom practices.

Considering the investigation of the concept of knowledge, one obvious problem affecting the teaching of English in the target context is centred in the knowledge-transfer approach to teaching, which characterizes long-established, severely criticized, classroom practices. These practices are patently evident in the first lesson observed of each participating teacher. As argued in Chapter I, section 4.5.1, in order to change these practices, a change in teachers' speech genres and discourse patterns in the classroom is essential.

The data presented and reviewed in Chapter V show that in the case of the three participating teachers, the classroom practices observed in stage 1 differ from the ones observed in stage 2, and that the changes observed are in accord with the principles promoted in this study. The data also show that the discourse of these teachers has shifted from an authoritative to a participative mode, which is in accord with the dialogic function of discourse, better suited to educational contexts.

According to the principles and features of the model implemented in this study, these changes contribute to the improvement of the quality of the teaching and learning of English in the target context, as they foster knowledge construction. Therefore, it is

reasonable to suggest that the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model in Brazil had a positive impact on the target universe.

5 Implications

This study answers to calls from other research papers for the investigation of issues such as those considered here particularly regarding, but not restricted to, the impact of Complexity Theoretical descriptions of language classrooms to LTE (Burns & Knox, 2011). The present study has implications for future research in LTE. It contributes relevant data and provides preliminary answers to questions emerging from a more complex understanding of classroom dynamics, in the context of a troubled field. LTE, as a field, is continually reviewing its established assumptions about the teaching and learning of languages, in a quest to further understand the preparation necessary for language teachers.

Another immediate and relevant implication of this study relates to the consideration of issues such as context sensitivity and self-regulation in the design of LTE programmes in general and TESOL teacher education in particular, especially in the context of non-native speaker teachers. The positive results achieved in the case of the teachers who participated in this study highlight aspects that cannot be ignored in the design of effective LTE programmes, such as the complexity of the language classroom and the appropriateness of teachers' self-developed approaches to teaching and learning. This study thus could serve to inform more complex approaches to LTE and TESOL teacher education.

Finally, the implementation of these proposals is reliant on education policy, for without the careful consideration of the issues pertaining to the complexity of language teaching and learning, context sensitivity and self-regulation in the sphere of education policy, all

efforts in LTE to properly prepare language teachers to implement appropriate approaches in their classrooms are likely to be fruitless.

6 Limitations

These generally positive results suggest that the model can be effectively implemented and impact on participants' classroom behaviour in the target context. As yet unanswered questions still remain in relation to learning outcomes; the scale of implementation; the extent to which the results of this implementation could be considered as applicable in the case of pre-service teachers; the self-adaptability of the model; the generalization of results; and the longevity of the behaviour changes that were documented.

The most acute limitation of this study concerns the impact of the implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model on learning outcomes. The data presented in Chapter V show that the changes observed in the classrooms were in accord with the principles promoted in the implementation. It is understood that these principles are conducive to effective learning. However, the students' learning of English could not be measured due to a series of constraints such as the time frame of the study, and the complexity of measuring dynamic outcomes (a general problem noted by de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011).

The small-scale implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model raises questions about whether or not the model could be implemented at a larger scale and whether or not this would lead to similar results to those discussed above. The answer which can be provided here, based on the data presented in Chapter V, is thus limited to the small scale of the implementation described in Chapter IV. Within these conditions, as established in Chapter VI, it can safely be claimed that the Self-Adaptive Model has been successfully implemented in the target context and impacted positively on participants' classroom behaviour.

Another limitation of the present study relates to pre-service language teachers. In this experiment, it was not possible to fully implement the model with novice teachers. Once more, the timeframe of the study restricted the possibilities, and in this particular case, so did the context in which the implementation was conducted, which required that the model be adapted to suit local conditions and constraints.

There are also questions about the self-adaptability of the model at a macro scale. The implementation presented in Chapter IV was conducted in a particular context. Despite the fact that there are enough disparities between the three cases analysed in Chapter VI to confirm the self-adaptive character of the model at a micro scale, the strong similarities at a macro scale, such as the sociocultural background of the participants, raise some questions over the replicability of these results in another context.

Also, the small scale of this project limits the capacity to generalize the results, and poses questions about the longevity of the behavioural changes observed. The evidence presented in Chapter V and analysed in Chapter VI shows positive outcomes in the particular case under investigation, and can be suggestive of the impact of the Self-Adaptive Model in future implementations, but is not sufficient to claim that a larger scale implementation would be successful, even though a series of inferences would point in this direction.

Considering the question of how long lasting the changes presented in Chapters V would be, from a Complexity Theoretical perspective, the changes simply signal an alteration in the trajectory of the classrooms observed. The real question is not how durable the changes are, but to what they are conducive. Due to the complex dynamic nature of classroom behaviour, it is only possible to predict that the classrooms discussed here will continue self-adapting to emerging conditions until they reach another attractor state and become stable. This limits the present study to the identification of patterns of behaviour

at the time the observations were conducted, without a glimpse into the next stage in the trajectory of the classrooms.

7 Future research

The limitations of the present study highlight the need for longitudinal studies to be conducted, in order to address questions about the impact of the model. This can be achieved through the replication of the implementation described in Chapter IV using a longer time frame, to allow the documentation of a period sufficient to permit the investigation of learning trajectories.

Other longitudinal studies are required to observe the impact of a full implementation of the Self-Adaptive Model with pre-service language teachers, when they become in-service teachers. Additionally, such an undertaking could be combined with research about the impact of the implementation of the model on language learning.

Other small-scale experiments need to be conducted in a range of different contexts to verify the extent to which the model is self-adaptive. More research is also needed to establish whether a larger scale implementation of the approach presented here is possible, and whether such implementation would yield results similar to those presented here.

Lastly, the adoption of a longitudinal time frame in similar projects would reveal the next stages in the trajectory of particular language classrooms, and permit an investigation into recurrent patterns of classroom behaviour.

8 Final remarks

From an investigation of the Self-Adaptive Model of LTE in action, it is reasonable to conclude that the implementation of the model successfully impacted on the teachers'

classroom behaviour: their approach to teaching changed and the changes observed were in accord with the principles of the model. It is, in addition, legitimate to conclude that the implementation by the teachers of the principles of the model successfully impacted on their students' classroom behaviour, which also exhibited changes, consistent with the principles of the model.

In relation to the principles themselves, they constitute an attempt to operationalize some ways, believed to contribute positively to teaching and learning, in which certain dimensions of the classroom, such as discourse, can be structured. This is not intended to exhaust such ways, nor the dimensions, but merely to inform the investigation of accounts which might fit the phenomenon under investigation in this study: effective language teaching and learning, and in turn contribute to the investigation of context sensitive LTE programmes.

The relevance of the Self-Adaptive Model lies in its potential to encourage emergent behaviour. It puts forward a set of necessary conditions for the development of the enabling environment which can sustain the guiding principles and crucial features of the model. Provided this development is successful, patterns of classroom behaviour in accord with such principles and features are expected to emerge, as the evidence presented above shows was the case in the classrooms observed in this study.

No claims are made about any causal relation between the implementation of such principles and features and the emergence of any particular patterns of behaviour observed in this study. The claim is that the development of the enabling environment and the implementation of such principles and features might allow for patterns of classroom behaviour believed to be favourable to language teaching and learning to emerge. In the context of the model, classroom behaviour is a response to classroom dynamics, and therefore susceptible to unique conditions. Given the complexity of events and

interactions taking place in the classroom, it is not expected that different classrooms exhibit the same patterns of behaviour.

This might seem to be a weakness in the model, given that much of contemporary education is based on pursuing predetermined outcomes, but it is in fact a strength. As the evidence presented above shows, each of the participating teachers in this study was able to develop an approach to teaching and learning suited to their particular classrooms. The evidence also shows that the students in each of these classrooms responded to their teacher's approaches in different ways. This is because participants' behaviour responded to a multiplicity of factors and stimuli, such as the teaching and learning environmental specificities, as well as personal and sociocultural factors. Had the model been aimed at encouraging a predetermined set of behaviours, the implementation would have failed.

One of the shortfalls of implementing standardised models in educational environments is the risk that it will promote inauthentic, staged, behaviour. If participants know that they are expected to exhibit certain patterns of behaviour, they might emulate such behaviour in order to deliver what is expected of them, as is often the case in LTE and in the language classroom. If, on the other hand, education participants are expected to display patterns of behaviour they deem to be appropriate, and adapt their behaviour in response to classroom dynamics, what might emerge is a range of self-adapted behavioural patterns, as it was observed in this study.

The fact that students are given opportunities to participate meaningfully does not necessarily mean that they will. This is true of both the LTE classroom and the language classroom. On the other hand, it is also true that if such opportunities are not available to students, it is fairly reasonable to predict that meaningful participation is unlikely to ensue. This analogy can easily be extended to any other classroom dimension.

Additionally, it can be argued that, from the initial intervention, a series of events were set in motion, as a response from the participants. These events contributed to change in

the participating teachers classrooms, and new patterns of behaviour emerged which set these classrooms on new trajectories. As complex dynamic systems are self-organized critically, each stage in the trajectory of each of these classrooms depends on the preceding stage. While there is evidence to suggest that these new trajectories are more favourable to teaching and learning than the ones followed by these classrooms prior to the implementation of this project were, given the short span of the observations conducted in this study, the precise trajectory which each of these classrooms will follow is unpredictable.

Ultimately, this study is an attempt to address some of the problems in LTE identified in the literature reviewed in Chapter I, via the development and implementation of a model of LTE. The model is informed by the synergy amongst ideas such as: promoting the inclusion and active participation of all members of the classroom in order to construct classroom dynamics as a social exercise (Breen, 2001) resolving the theory/practice issue, establishing the legitimacy of teachers' ways of knowing, developing a plan for situated LTE—three of the four challenges which need to be meet in order to reorient LTE proposed by Johnson (2006)—and facilitating authentic dialogue between specialists and local subjects to investigate how their ideas could productively be turned into practice (Rubdy, 2000). In so doing, this study offers a modest contribution to the advancement of Language Teacher Education.

Appendix 1 – LTE courses comparison

	UNSW	*Norwood English*	*College of teachers*	*International house Sydney*	*i to i*
Duration	20 weeks –148 hours of instruction	4 to 5 weeks –120 hours	8 to 12 weeks –150 hours total	4 weeks –120 hours total	2 days inst. –40 hours with D. Learning
Content	Five major strands direct course content: 1.The Context of Teaching and Learning; 2.Language Theory; 3.Lesson Design; 4.Course Design; 5.Teaching Skills and Strategies Current theoretical and methodological bases for effective language learning and teaching, ranging from the principles of language learning to materials selection and evaluation, underpin all five strands. Classroom management, multi-cultural and cross-cultural factors, learning styles, language levels and testing and evaluation are other vital issues addressed in the course.	Introduction to TEFL; Common Terms; Overview Of Methodologies; Theories and Approaches; Qualities of 'The Good Teacher'; Students: Culture/Motivation/Learning Difficulties; Classroom Management; Adults & Children as Learners; Planning; Presentation; Practice; Production; Beginning a Lesson: Warm Up Activities; Beginning a Lesson: Presentation; Communication: Speaking; Listening; Reading; Writing; Language Analysis; Controlled Practice; Production; Teaching Materials; Using Audio & Video; Teaching Situations: One Student or Sixty?; Analysing A Lesson; Using What You Know; Resources; Finding Work; Higher Qualifications; Career Development; Living & Working Abroad; Homestays and Self-employment	The Study of English: use and usage; syntax and meaning; word classes and word formation; noun, preposition, adjective, and verb phrases; forms and functions of the tenses; cohesion; aspects of lexis: introduction to phonetics and phonology. TESOL: task-based communicative activities; receptive and productive skills, reading and listening materials; speaking and writing; integration of skills; discovery techniques; language games; oral and written forms of practice and interaction; problem-solving activities; simulation and role-play; pair-work and group-work; audio-visual aids.	TESOL methodology & language analysis including: teaching speaking, writing, reading, listening, developing learner's language knowledge, preparing lessons, using reference materials, planning and evaluation of lessons, materials for classroom use, managing the classroom, developing teacher professionalism, understanding different learner styles and motivation to teaching, applying knowledge of learner cultural and linguistic backgrounds to teaching, using basic concepts and grammar terminology, using basic lexical and phonological terminology.	Introduction and warmers; Classroom management; Introduction to grammar; Total Physical Response - a new learning technique; A foreign language lesson; Elicitation techniques; Using the blackboard; Sentence structure; Functions; Level checks; Practice activities; Free practice activity; Teaching practice preparation; First teaching practice; Feedback; Drama and role play; Pronunciation; Stress; rebel or rebel?; Intonation; Reading ; Listening ; Grammar: tenses and time; Error correction; Exam classes; Final teaching practice preparation; Final teaching practice and feedback; Employment in TESOL
Methodology	Practically oriented course consisting of lecture input, workshops and a practical component	Distance learning The course consists of a short introductory unit plus four longer units. Each unit contains exercises and case studies plus an assignment to be completed and returned to your tutor.	Distance learning	Instruction and supervised practice	Intensive instruction
Practicum	40 hours	N A	Na	6 hours	N A
Assessment	There are seven coursework assignments: belief statements; communicative activities design; lesson plan elaboration; visuals design; language analysis with a grammar strand; teaching practice journal; major work in course design, and assessed teaching practice.	Assessment is based on the quality of the written assignments as determined by your tutor. Borderline cases will be passed to another tutor for moderation. Participants are expected to show an understanding of the basic issues covered by the course and an awareness of the problems faced by language learners.	Examination is by continuous assessment of the worksheet assignments for each unit module. There are no written examinations.	Six hours of assessed teaching practice written assignments. There is no final examination.	Not mentioned
Learning outcome	Acquisition of current theoretical and methodological bases for effective language learning and teaching, understanding of language teaching methodology development, development of materials selection, evaluation, and design skills, curriculum development skills, Classroom management, multi-cultural and cross-cultural factors, learning styles, language levels and testing and evaluation	Not specified	Acquisition of general understanding of, and familiarity with, the world of teaching English to speakers to other languages including general terminology, qualifications, further training options and career opportunities. Acquisition of a good grasp and understanding of the communicative approach to teaching English to speakers of other languages.	The principles of effective planning and teaching a range of practical skills for teaching English to adults confidence and control in the classroom increased language awareness and a framework for language analysis a structure for ongoing professional development.	Not specified

Appendix 2 - Overview of the course schedule

11 Feb – Introduction – documents signature – survey questionnaire results – deliberations about the course (language of discussion and reading material; roles of participants; participants proposed course content) – reflective observation – participants to organise peer/facilitator observation – facilitator to organise and conduct observations

18 Feb — Teacher domains of knowledge – the tentative table of content for the LTE course discussed – revisiting survey results – revisiting, discussing and expanding participants contributions

25 Feb – Syllabus development – Cross-referencing participants proposed course content and the domains of teacher knowledge – deliberating on the domains to be included – Content knowledge briefly explored

04 March – Brief overview of the historical development of English teaching and TESOL teacher education internationally and in Brazil (This was aimed at encouraging the development of professional identity; highlighting difficulties, improvements, and current efforts and opportunities in LTE in Brazil, and contextualizing the content) – the Self-Adaptive Model explained -

11 March – Traditional education re-examined – new proposals in education discussed

18 March – Teachers scholarship – communities of practice – reflective practice – beliefs and practices re-examined

25 March – Summary of ideas constructed during the workshops – re-examinations of ideas – considerations on how to apply some of the ideas discussed

01 April to 15 April – Easter break

22 April – Review of the content covered in the course – learner as system variable – language classroom architecture – how can we facilitate language learning?

29 April – Implementation plan – group assisted development of individual plans for the implementation of new ideas

06 May – Teaching listening – How does listening work? – What resources are involved in listening? – What separates good listeners from weak listeners? – What characterizes expert listeners? – How to help learners develop expertise in listening? – What kind of activities can be used in the classroom to improve listening?

13 May – Teaching reading – How does reading work? – What resources are involved in reading? – What separates good readers from weak readers? – What characterizes expert readers? – How can we help learners attain reading expertise? – What kind of activities can be used in the classroom to improve reading?

20 May – Teaching speaking – How does speaking work? – What resources are involved in speaking? – What separates good speakers from weak speakers? – What characterizes expert speakers? – How can we help learners attain speaking expertise? – What kind of activities can be used in the classroom to improve speaking?

27 May – Teaching writing – How does writing work? – What resources are involved in writing? – What separates good writers from weak writers? – What characterizes expert writers? – How can we help learners attain writing expertise? – What kind of activities can be used in the classroom to improve writing?

03 June – Public holiday

10 June – The role of instructional materials – testing and evaluation – the remaining domains presented and briefly discussed:

- Knowledge of learners
- Knowledge of curriculum
- Knowledge of educational enterprise
- Knowledge of educational context
- Discourse knowledge
- Field-specific knowledge
- Support knowledge
- Non-native English speakers in TESOL

17 June – Conclusion celebration

Appendix 3 - Slideshow used in the 1st workshop

Survey results

Share information	Yes	22	100%
	No	0	0
Permit observations	Yes	20	91%
	No	2	9%
Knowledge of communities of practice	Yes	5	23%
	No	17	77%
Preferred language for discussions	Eng	11	50%
	Port	11	50%
Problems following in English	Yes	0	0%
	No	22	100%
Preferred language for reading material	Eng	13	59%
	Port	8	36%
Problems reading in English	Yes	2	9%
	No	18	82%
Other related courses	Yes	11	50%
	No	10	45%
Post graduate courses	Yes	8	36%
	No	15	68%
Intend to do post graduate courses	Yes	10	45%
	No	3	14%
Teaching experience	years	From 2 to 32	
Computer literate	Yes	19	86%
	No	3	14%
Easy access to a computer	Yes	21	95%
	No	1	5%
Easy access to the Internet	Yes	21	95%
	No	1	5%
Regularity of access to Internet	Daily	11	50%
	almost D	5	23%
	occasionally	5	23%
	rarely	0	0%
	Never	1	5%

Participants' expected content

Expected Content

- How to deal with adult learners
- Teaching practice
- How to enlarge students´ vocabulary;
- How to widen students´ literacy level;
- How to offer the students classes which are focused on their specific interest in order to make such classes more dynamic.
- A new approach to language teaching.
- How to get students to interact with each other.
- Non-native speech and teaching methodology
- Ways to improve teaching and student motivation;
- How to work with vocabulary and grammar in class in a way to enhance students' purpose for learning English.
- How to improve speaking
- Content referring to classroom practice
- More up to date foreign language teaching methodology
- Better methods to improve teaching, linguistics, pronunciation, listening and speaking, reading and comprehension, education methods, refreshing...
- Methodology
- How to deal with the lack of materials and how to plan a better class
- Student motivation strategies, classroom management
- The contemporary difficulties in English teaching
- Methodology

Participant identified themes

- **Most frequent themes**: teaching methodology/strategies, skills development, classroom practice/dynamics
- **Other relevant themes**: student motivation, learning autonomy, interaction, skills development, focus on students' interests

Participants' suggested areas for development

Areas for development

- Autonomous learning
- Knowledge of learners
- How students learn
- Methodology
- Vocabulary / textual genre / ludic activities related to reading purposes
- How to motivate students
- Fluency, update my vocabulary, general knowledge.
- Classroom practice and speaking
- Practice spoken language and enhance my knowledge about the language to attain better fluency.
- Student motivation, interaction and autonomy.
- Literature and speaking
- Linguistics and Sociolinguistics
- Language education methods and linguistics.
- Teaching strategies
- Speaking
- Fluency and teacher self-motivation
- Speaking
- Speaking

Participant identified themes

- **Most frequent themes**: teaching methodology/ strategies, students' motivation, skills development (emphasis on speaking), classroom practice/dynamics
- **Other relevant themes**: student autonomy, students' interaction, how students learn, teacher self-motivation

Participants' perceived difficulties

Perceived Difficulties

- Students' shyness
- Dealing with mixed age groups in class
- Teachers' low proficiency and lack of opportunities to develop in Anglophone contexts
- It is difficult to motivate students to speak English.
- Public schools in Brazil, does not provide books for students.
- We have classes with a large number of students.
- Speaking
- How to help students become more independent
- How to encourage students to read in English
- Teaching materials
- Pronunciation, listening and speaking.
- Teaching materials
- Lack of materials
- Student motivation
- Teaching materials
- Student motivation

Participant identified themes

- **Most frequent themes**: Teaching materials, student motivation, skill development (emphasis on speaking)
- **Other relevant themes**: student autonomy

Appendix 4 - Slideshow used in the 4th workshop

TESOL in Brazil

- Two Teacher Profile
- Language School
- Standard Education
- Professional Status

Basic Issues

- Common Knowledge Base
- LTE
- Knowledge Production

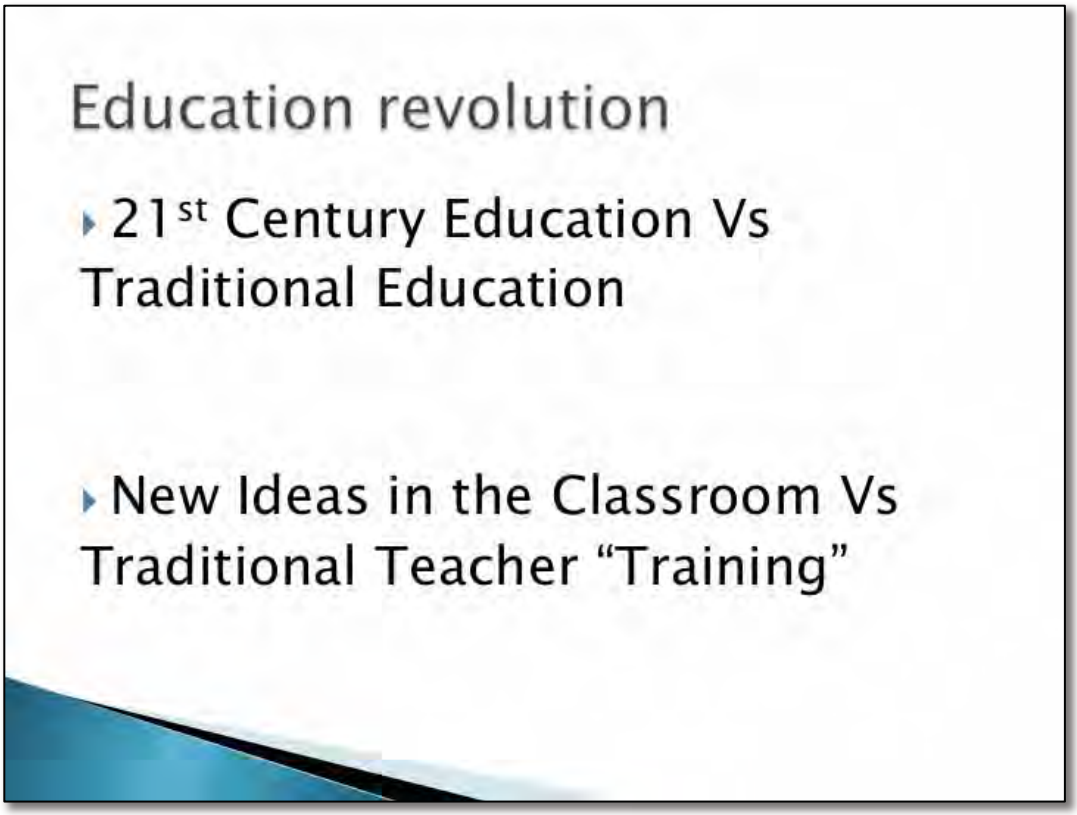
Self Adaptive Model

- Co-construction by participants
- Flexible and multiple application possibilities
- Research based

Three-part material

- Pedagogical and Philosophical basis
- Knowledge base for teaching
- Knowledge base for teaching languages

Appendix 5 - Slideshow used in the 5th workshop



New ideas to consider

- Complex Dynamic Systems
- Mutually determining factors
- Context Uniqueness
- Non-transferability of Knowledge
- Participative knowledge construction

Discuss the validity of:

- Rote Learning
- Knowledge transfer and Discovery
- Teacher Knows

The Nature of Knowledge

- Knowledge VS Information
- Genetic study

Discussion

- How do people learn?
- How do people learn in the 21st century?
- How do people learn in your teaching context?

Dialectic Systems Approach

- STHUD – learn by doing
- CT – self-regulation
- Dialectics –movement and change

Discussion

- How do people learn to teach?
- How do people learn to teach languages?

Appendix 6 - Sample of participants online activity

Previous meeting - Email updates to me

View profile Hide options Mar 18 2010, 12:03 am

1. Anasunset

From: **Anasunset <anasunse...@gmail.com>**
Date: **Wed, 17 Feb 2010 10:03:15 -0800 (PST)**
Local: **Thu, Feb 18 2010 12:03: 22 am**
Subject: **Re: 1st meeting - comment**

Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

-

> Hi Professor Rick,

> As regards the previous meeting, I can point out some aspects which
> called my attention:
> a) the historical background relating to education;
> b) I do agree with your point of view of considering "each individual
> educational setting as unique" .
> c) "Knowledge is understood as socially constructed by each
> individual…"
> My comments:
> • People are different in several aspects so they learn in different
> ways (some are visual, others learn by doing in practice, etc) This
> shows us, as teachers, that we cannot have a strict syllabus as well
> as a unique methodology in classroom. That is why some books do work
> well for some groups and not for others.

Previous meeting - Email updates to me

1. tootse fernandes View profile Hide options Apr 1 2010, 4:25 am

m: **tootse fernandes <tootse.fernan...@gmail.com>**
te: **Wed, 31 Mar 2010 09:25:51 -0800 (PST)**
cal: **Thu, Apr 1 2010 4:25 am**
bject: **Re: Previous meeting – comment**

Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

Hi teachers... i agree with Anasunset. I hope that our course can help
me help my students to improve their knowledge in english.

How can the course help you? - Email updates to me

View profile More options Apr 1 2010, 6:28 am

2. Rick

Hello mates

Tootse's comment has inspired me to write some questions, which I would like to share with you. I have many doubts about this project and perhaps we can all reflect together, share our reflective diaries here, and help me find some possible answers. Perhaps we can use these questions as a starting point for our diaries, or as a framework to direct our collective reflections, if the group agrees. Based on Tootse's comment, I then invite you to reflect on this list of questions:

1. How can the course help you?

2. What do you think you have gained from the course so far?

3. Did you construct any knowledge through your participation in this course so far?

4. If yes, how can you apply the knowledge you have constructed in your teaching?

5. Would you change anything in your lessons as a result of taking part in this course?

6. If yes, what would you change?

7. Why would you change this?

8. What would you expect as a result this change?

9. How would you evaluate the results of this change?

10. Do you think these questions can help your reflection and critical analysis of the course?

11. What other questions can you think of which might help your reflection?

12. Are there any questions you would like to ask the group?

13. If you could change anything in this course, what would it be and why?

Please let me know what you think of these questions; are they useful in any way?

How can the course help you? - Email updates to me

View profile Hide options Apr 3 2010, 2:55 pm

1. Anasunset

m: **Anasunset <anasunse...@gmail.com>**
te: **Fri, 2 Apr 2010 19:55:28 -0800 (PST)**
cal: **Sat, Apr 3 2010 2:55 pm**
bject: **How can the course help you?**
Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

Hi Prof Rick,

When I first got to know about this course I had no idea what it was going to be. But after reading the questionnaire, and the consent form, I found that it would be concerned with methodology, linguistics, didactics. In this way, the course is already helping me a lot because what I was doing, somehow empirically, now I know/ I can learn/ study/read the theoretical fundamentals and, thus, improve my pedagogical practice as well as explain the students the aim of what they are doing in class. As an example, if I am teaching reading comprehension, I tell them that I will only guide to them so that they can find their way and, thus, they will be autonomous readers, that is, they will be able to read without my help.
Anasunset

How can the course help you? - Email updates to me

View profile Hide options Mar 3 2010, 11:23 pm

2. Rick Arruda

From: **Rick Arruda <englishinbra...@gmail.com>**
Date: **Sat, 3 Apr 2010 09:23:17 -0300**
Local: **Sat, Apr 3 2010 11:23 pm**
Subject: **Re: How can the course help you?**
Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

Hi Anasunset

I am very happy with your work, and wish we could all do the same. Why don't we try?

Your reflection is inspiring.

Would you mind posting that as a discussion? (Click on NEW POST, then past this reflection as a new discussion topic)

That might help the group.

Thanks

Rick

Discussion on reflection -
Email updates to me

1. Anasunset View profile Hide options Apr 4 2010, 1:00 pm

From: **Anasunset <anasunse...@gmail.com>**
Date: **Sat, 3 Apr 2010 18:00:12 -0800 (PST)**
Local: **Sun, Apr 4 2010 1:00 pm**
Subject: **If yes, how can you apply the knowledge you have constructed in your teaching?**
Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

Hello everybody,

Let´s enlarge our discussion. I would like to read your opinions.
To be honest, I think that what we have been studying/reading and discussing in class, is not directed to help us prepare materials, to grammar practice, to speaking skill or any other whatsoever.But, in fact, these fundamentals are related to apllied linguistics, and thus, focus on the way we behave in class as teachers: how we understand our students´s learning process, how far we are giving them the chance to be subject of learning, and not just depending on us for everything, i we are able to visualize their background knowledge so that we bring to class interesting materials which will arouse their interest/ motivation. The main point should be: take to class not what we want/ we like/ we know more/ we enjoy teaching, but, instead of, take to class what the group really needs English for, either for real life, academic or professional purpose.
Ana

Discussion on reflection -
Email updates to me

2. Rick View profile Hide options Apr 4 2010, 10:17 pm

From: **Rick <englishinbra...@gmail.com>**
Date: **Sun, 4 Apr 2010 03:17:44 -0800 (PST)**
Local: **Sun, Apr 4 2010 10:17 pm**
Subject: **Re: If yes, how can you apply the knowledge you have constructed in your teaching?**
Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

I think you're absolutely right, Anasunset. We are not yet thinking about preparing materials, even though we will discuss this later.
This attitude towards teaching; the investigation of our students' learning processes, the reflection about our classroom practices, and the concern with learners' background knowledge, sociocultural background, specific needs, physical, emotional and mental factors, as well as the stimulation of autonomous learning and the search for optimal classroom conditions are the aims of the course so far. And I think we are doing well.

It is very important to create instruments to help us in this journey, which won't be a short one. Amongst the instruments we can create, the most effective one might be this forum. Our community of practice just got a new member yesterday. Welcome Susan Brown.
It is also important to bear in mind that it might seem a lot to do, but we are actually not going to do everything at once. We start thinking about these things, and before we know it, we will find ourselves implementing little changes and enjoying the search for better ways to do things in the classroom. Our students might contribute a lot, if we give them space to choose. Let them bring materials, let them suggest topics, let them participate in a dialectic classroom and we might be surprised.

Everyone could help me! - Email updates to me

View profile

1. Susan Brown View profile

From: **Susan Brown <cxavier...@gmail.com>**
Date: **Thu, 8 Apr 2010 20:11:05 -0800 (PST)**
Local: **Fri, Apr 9 2010 3:11 pm**
Subject: **Everyone could help me!**

Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

Hi, Everybody!!!
I´ve a question about the Kumaravadivelu's theory this could be compare Halliday's theory - Systemic Functional Language - when Kumaravadivelu said that into negotiation factors divides at three dimensions: introspection, interaction and interpretation could be able to link these idea of Halliday's theory when he used the same dimensions interpersonal, textual and metafunctions in this process?
thanks, Susan Brown

Everyone could help me! - Email updates to me

2. Rick View profile Hide options Apr 9 2010, 10:44 pm

From: **Rick <englishinbra...@gmail.com>**
Date: **Fri, 9 Apr 2010 03:44:01 -0800 (PST)**
Local: **Fri, Apr 9 2010 10:44 pm**
Subject: **Re: Everyone could help me!**

Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

Hi, Susan

Excellent question! I am impressed. I am not all that familiar with Halliday. As a matter of fact I had to study a bit so I could try to give you an answer. Hope I can help you. There are some core differences between the two authors. Even though the concepts they use may seem similar and easy to confuse, they are actually not directed at the same thing.

When Kumaravidevelu writes about introspection, interaction and interpretation, he is investigating the thought processes of language learners. More precisely, how language learners mentally deal with

linguistic input. Halliday, on the other hand, investigates the nature of language. He proposes the division of language into three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. What Halliday is trying to describe is language itself.

I have prepared a document for download which explains halliday's metafunctions, if anyone is interested: Systemic functional linguistics, written by Dr. Dannielle Almeida - UFPB

Hope this helps you Susan

Discussion on reflection -
Email updates to me

2. Susan Brown View profile Hide options Apr 15 2010, 1:51 pm

From: **Susan Brown <cxavier...@gmail.com>**
Date: **Wed, 14 Apr2010 19:51:21 -0700 (PDT)**
Local: **Thu, Apr 15 2010 1:51 pm**
Subject: **Discussion on reflection**

Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

About these questions I answered
This content could help me in relation students and the way that I will used this content in my practice class; I think i have gained from the course in my constructed in how to learning and teaching, guess more information to add in class; i rememberd about halliday´s theory, and i will see the newer system in educaction, and knowledge to apply. I support the ideas with in interaction theory and cultural ones. NO, I would not have change the lessons as a result of taking yet, but i will try to change in next class. I would change this like asking more students to talk about their knowledge. I will expect a result change is almost good, but I think the process is being growing because change require time and patience. I am not sure it is helping my reflection, and it is good to my autoreflection. I have a question

for everybody are you think that this new paradigm in educaction would be function here in the public school, that we all know that some professional would not like change and never forget them notebooks notes? thanks

Doubt - Email updates

1. Susan Brown View profile Hide options Apr 15 2010, 1:16 pm

bject: **Doubt**
m: **Susan Brown <cxavier...@gmail.com>**
te: **Wed, 14 Apr 2010 19:16:08 -0700 (PDT)**
cal: **Thu, Apr 15 2010 1:16 pm**
Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author

I've a question about unilateral strategies, if the new paradigm in education studies is based on interaction and its support in the social and cultural facts, how could you explain this strategie when it mencioned at book that listeners han no access to interaction?

2. Rick View profile Hide options Apr 17 2010, 5:25 am

Doubt - Email updates

m: **Rick <englishinbra...@gmail.com>**
te: **Fri, 16 Apr 2010 11:25:09 -0700 (PDT)**
cal: **Sat, Apr 17 2010 5:25 am**
bject: **Re: Doubt**
Print | Individual message | Show original | Report this message | Find messages by this author
Hi Susan

Your question is quite complex, but let's see if we can work together and solve it.

These unilateral strategies you mentioned refer to listening, right?

They are unilateral in the sense that the listener cannot interact directly with the speaker. When we listen to the radio, for example, we cannot interact with the people we are listening to. This happens in real life, so needs to be taken into account when we think about listening. We will say that this unilateral listening is a modality of listening. As language teachers, we need to prepare our students for this modality of listening. If we apply the new paradigm, which as you said yourself is based on social interaction, to the teaching of listening, and more specifically to the teaching of the unilateral modality of listening, we can have the students interacting with each other as they perform activities involving unilateral listening. Not because the strategies which will be used are unilateral, or the task prevents interaction between listener and speaker, it prevents social interaction between students when learning how to perform. This said, remember that our goal is to help them learn, and we believe social interaction can help us. Once they have learned, we want them to be able to perform on their own, unassisted and without the direct social interaction.

This is but a simplified explanation; we can go deeper and say that, according to the Sociocultural Theory of Human Development, social interaction comes from the engagement of people in society. In an

instance other than language learning, the fact that the listener cannot engage in direct conversation with the speakers does not mean there is no social interaction. The listener engages with the speakers' ideas, and interacts with them. Even when we read alone, we engage with society through the text, which is a socially and culturally loaded artefact; the text represents society. So reading is also social interaction, at another level than face to face interaction.

How does this work for you, Susan? We learn together and help each other become independent. So learning is collective but the performance once we have learned might be solo. I haven't actually thought about this before your question. Does the answer make sense to you? Please feel free to question further if you wish.

Does anyone else have a view about this? Or a doubt?

Appendix 7 - Syllabus of a Letras course

LETRAS INGLÊS – LICENCIATURA (Degree in English)

CÓDIGO	NOME DA DISCIPLINA (Course)	CR	P.E.L.	CH	PRÉ-REQUISITO
1º PERÍODO					
404017	Text production I	04	2.02.1	60	-
404061	Latin Language I	04	2.02.1	60	-
404111	English Language I	04	3.01.2	60	-
407031	Introduction to Philosophy	04	4.00.2	60	-
	TOTAL 16	240			
2º PERÍODO					
404018	Text production II	04	2.02.1	60	404017
404062	Latin Language II	04	2.02.1	60	404061
404112	English Language II	04	3.01.2	60	404111
404059	Introduction to Linguistics	04	3.01.3	60	-
	TOTAL 16	240			

3º PERÍODO					
404051	Linguistics I	04	2.02.2	60	404059
404113	English Language III	04	3.01.2	60	404112
404304	Portuguese Language Morphology	04	2.02.3	60	404059
404029	Literature Theory I	04	2.02.3	60	404018

5º PERÍODO			
	TOTAL	16	240

4º PERÍODO					
404114	English Language IV	04	3.01.2	60	404113
406251	Intro. to Developmental Psychology	04	3.01.2	60	-
404401	Literature Theory II	04	2.02.3	60	404029
404305	Portuguese Language Syntax	04	2.02.3	60	404304
	TOTAL	16	240		
401011	structure and functionality of teaching	04	3.01.2	60	-
404115	English Language V	04	3.01.2	60	404114
404037	Fundamentals of Portuguese Literature	04	3.01.2	60	404401
	TOTAL	12	180		

6º PERÍODO					
404121	English Literature I	04	3.01.4	60	404114-404401

404047	Fundamentals of Brazilian Literature	04	3.01.2	60	404401
404116	English Language VI	04	3.01.2	60	404115
404101	English phonetics and phonology	04	2.02.2	60	404115
	TOTAL 16 240				

7º PERÍODO

404122	English Literature II	04	3.01.4	60	404121
406256	Introduction to Learning Psychology	04	3.01.2	60	-
404117	English Language VII	04	1.03.1	60	404116
	TOTAL 12 180				

8º PERÍODO

404123	English Literature III	04	3.01.4	60	404122
401101	Didactics	05	3.02.3	75	406256
404119	English Language VIII	04	1.03.1	60	404117
	TOTAL 13 195				

9º PERÍODO

401143	English Teaching Practice I	04	1.03.3	60
404161	North-American Literature I	04	3.01.4	60
404107	English Language IX	04	1.03.3	60
	TOTAL 12 180			

10º PERÍODO					
401144	English Teaching Practice II	04	1.03.3	60	401143
404162	North-American Literature II	04	3.01.4	60	404161
404108	English Language X	04	1.03.3	60	404107
	TOTAL	12		180	

LETRAS INGLÊS - LICENCIATURA

CÓDIGO	Courses	CR	P.E.L	CH	PRÉ-REQUISITO
404046	Children’s and adolescent’s Literature	04	2.02.3	60	-
404053	History of Language	04	3.01.2	60	-
404054	Oral Language	04	2.02.2	60	
404051					
404074	History of English Language	04	4.00.2	60	-
404082	Philosophy of Language	04	3.01.2	60	-

404084	Psycholinguistics	04	2.02.2	60	
404051					
404085	English teaching /Applied Linguistics	04	1.03.2	60	-
404102	Instrumental English I	04	2.02.1	60	-
404103	Instrumental English II	04	2.02.1	60	
404102					
404106	English Language Seminar	04	2.02.3	60	404114
404109	English translation	04	2.02.2	60	404305-404119
404118	Study of texts - English	04	2.02.2	60	404116
404124	English Literature Seminar	04	2.02.3	60	404161
404126	Anglo-American Culture	04	4.00.2	60	-
404163	North-American Literature III	04	3.01.4	60	404161
404164	North-American Literature Seminar	04	2.02.3	60	404161
404301	Oral Expression - Portuguese	04	2.02.2	60	-
404441	English Teaching Techniques	04	1.03.2	60	404116
404451	Special Topics in writing - English	04	2.02.2	60	a fixar
405011	Anthropology I	04	4.00.2	60	-
405015	Brazilian Folklore	04	4.00.2	60	405011
405018	Brazilian Culture	04	4.00.2	60	405011
405041	Sociology I	04	4.00.2	60	-

LETRAS INGLÊS - LICENCIATURA (English Licentiature)

Curso:		Graduação em Letras – Habilitação em Inglês
Grau:		Licenciado
Turno:		Noturno
Duração:	Mínima:	4,5 anos
	Máxima:	08 anos
Carga Horária:		2.295 horas
Nº máximo de Créditos por Semestre:		20
Créditos Obrigatórios:		141
Créditos Optativos:		12
Nº Total de Créditos:		153

Appendix 8 – Sample of observation questionnaires filed out by participating teachers during peer observation

Can you identify the approach used by the teacher? Please comment

Grammar-translation. It is not an effective approach, but t elementary schools we have many students, so it is difficult o use communicative approach.

How would you describe the teacher's methodology?

The teacher gives the students a text. Explains the vocabulary and e grammar, then he/she asks students to translate.

What type of lesson was it? (x) New content ( ) content checking ( ) Revision

What materials were used? Book, and the white board.

How did the lesson start?

Reading a book and through that coming up with new vocabulary and grammar.

How was the student's level of interest?

( ) High ( ) Medium high ( ) Medium ( ) Medium low (X) Low

How was the students' level of engagement?

( ) High ( ) Medium high ( ) Medium (X) Medium low ( ) Low

How was the content presented?

( ) Teacher tells (x) Teacher explains ( ) Teacher Asks ( ) Group investigates

Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily? ( ) Yes (x) No

Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her? (x) Yes ( ) No

Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement? (x) Yes ( ) No

Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson? ( ) Yes (x) No

Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with each other in the lesson? (x) Yes ( ) No

Were there any group work/pair work? (x) Yes ( ) No

Did students contribute to the lesson? (x) Yes ( ) No

Were students learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher? ( ) Yes (x) No

Did students display learning autonomy? ( ) Yes (X) No

Did students collaborate with each other? (X) Yes ( ) No

What language was used by the teacher? ( )Target (X) Local ( ) Both

Did students produce the target language? ( ) Yes (X) No

Were students encouraged to produce the target language? ( ) Yes (X) No

Can you identify the approach used by the teacher? Please comment
Sentimos dificuldade no ensino de Língua Inglesa por não ter domínio no "speaking". Procuramos melhorar para desempenhar um tra-
How would you describe the teacher's methodology? balho melhor.
Grammar translation.
(Atividades puramente gramaticais)

What type of lesson was it? (X) New content ( ) content checking ( ) Revision

What materials were used?
blackboard, chalk, teacher's book, pictures.
How did the lesson start?
Termina sempre com atividades.

How was the student's level of interest?

( ) High ( ) Medium high ( ) Medium ( ) Medium low (X) Low

How was the students' level of engagement?

( ) High ( ) Medium high ( ) Medium (X) Medium low ( ) Low

How was the content presented?

( ) Teacher tells (X) Teacher explains ( ) Teacher Asks ( ) Group investigates

Did students interact with the teacher voluntarily? ( ) Yes (X) No

Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with him/her? (X) Yes ( ) No

Did students respond to the teacher's encouragement? (X) Yes ( ) No

Did students interact with each other voluntarily in the lesson? ( ) Yes (X) No

Did the teacher encourage students' interaction with each other in the lesson? (X) Yes ( ) No

Were there any group work/pair work? ( ) Yes (X) No

Did students contribute to the lesson? (X) Yes ( ) No

Were students learning autonomy encouraged by the teacher? (X) Yes ( ) No

Did students display learning autonomy? ( ) Yes (X) No

Did students collaborate with each other? ( ) Yes (X) No

What language was used by the teacher? ( )Target (X) Local ( ) Both

Did students produce the target language? ( ) Yes (X) No

Were students encouraged to produce the target language? ( ) Yes (X) No

Appendix 9 - Sample of exit Questionnaires

Exit Questionnaire

Did you complete the course? ( )Yes (X)No
If not, your reasons for not completing were related to:
(x)Work ( )personal ( )interest ( )course satisfaction
Was the course too demanding? ( )Yes (X)No
Was the language requirement too high? ( )Yes (X)No
Did you enjoy your participation? (X)Yes ( )No
In general:
Were you satisfied with the course? (X)Yes ( )No
Did the course attend to your needs? (X)Yes ( )No
Did the content reflect your expectations? (X)Yes ( )No
Where the content relevant to your teaching context? (X)Yes ( )No
Were you able to apply some of the content in your teaching? (X)Yes ( )No
If yes, how did your students react to it? ( )Indifferently (X)Positively ( )Negatively
Did you perceive any positive impact on your students? (X)Yes ( )No
Did you perceive any negative impact on your students? ( )Yes (X)No
Do you think the course helped you improve your teaching in any way? (X)Yes ( )No

Caro Rick,

Gostei demais da experiência de participar desse curso. Gostaria sim de participar da próxima edição, quer seja presencial ou virtual. Lamento bastante ter "deixado" de participar devido á função que assumi a qual me impossibilitava de sair da escola, pois sempre aparecia algo p/ resolver.
Nao quero perder contato. Esta troca é muito rica e teachers carecem desse espaço aberto e franco p/ discussões.
No mais, desejo-lhe tudo de bom, sucesso na sua caminhada de pesquisa e qdo da próxima edição... please do get in touch.

Atenciosamente,
[redacted]

[Dear Rick

I liked enormously the experience of having taken part in this course. I would like to take part in the next edition, whether be it face-to-face or online. I am really sorry I had to drop out due to the new position I undertook at my school, which prevents me from attending. I would like to keep in touch. This sharing is very important and teachers do need a space open to meaningful discussions.]

Exit Questionnaire

Did you complete the course? ( )Yes (X)No
If not, your reasons for not completing were related to:
(x)Work ( )personal ( )interest ( )course satisfaction
Was the course too demanding? (X)Yes ( )No
Was the language requirement too high? ( )Yes (X)No
Did you enjoy your participation? (X)Yes ( )No
In general:
Were you satisfied with the course? (X)Yes ( )No
Did the course attend to your needs? (X)Yes ( )No
Did the content reflect your expectations? (X)Yes ( )No
Where the content relevant to your teaching context? (X)Yes ( )No
Were you able to apply some of the content in your teaching? (X)Yes ( )No
If yes, how did your students react to it? (X)Indifferently ( )Positively ( )Negatively
Did you perceive any positive impact on your students? ( )Yes (X)No
Did you perceive any negative impact on your students? ( )Yes (X)No
Do you think the course helped you improve your teaching in any way? (X)Yes ( )No

Olá Henrique, fiquei muito triste porque nao cheguei ao final do curso, mas ao mesmo tempo fico feliz porque os ensinamentos e os novos conhecimentos abordados por vc e no seu livro nos dará uma nova dimensão de trabalho para o ensino de lingua inglesa. Quando vc marcar o nosso encontro com a turma, farei questao de ir, ate porque nos tornaremos grandes amigos.
Um forte beijo
[redacted]

[Hello Henrique, I am very sad because I did not complete the course, but at the same time I am happy because the knowledge discussed in your class and your writings will give another dimension to my work teaching of English.]

Appendix 10 – Letter of support from the State Bureau of Education

University of New South Wales

School of Modern Language Studies

GOVERNO DA PARAIBA

SECRETARIA DE ESTADO DA EDUCAÇÃO E CULTURA

Date João Pessoa, 13 de janeiro de 2.010

To the Ethics Comitee

I refer to the research project entitled education of teachers of English to speakers of other languages in non-Anglophonic contexts by Mr. Henrique Paulo Arruda. After examination of the proposal sent to this office through the University Of New South Wales, we have considered the project relevant to the Brazilian educational enterprise and believe it could contribute to the betterment of our teachers and ultimately to the improvement of the quality of our language education programs. We welcome this initiative.

This project has the full support of the Secretaria Estadual de Educação e Cultura, subject to the individual consent of the potential participant(s). We will be providing Mr. Arruda with assistance to publicize this project among the English teaching comunity and students concluding an English teacher degree at our local university, and also with the implementation of the above mentioned project.

Terezinha Alves Fernandes

Signature

Terezinha Alves Fernandes
GEEMEP/SEEC
GERENTE EXEC. DO ENS. MÉDIO E DE ED. PROF.

(Position in the organisation)

References

Akbari, Ramin. (2008). Transforming lives: introducing critical pedagogy into ELT classrooms. *ELT Journal, 62*(3), 276-283. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccn025

Alderson, J. Charles, & Beretta, Alan. (1992). *Evaluating second language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Alderson, J. Charles, North, Brian, Modern English Publications (Basingstoke England), & British Council. (1991). *Language testing in the 1990s: the communicative legacy*. London: Macmillan.

Alkin, Marvin C., & American Educational Research Association. (1992). *Encyclopedia of educational research* (6th ed.). New York & Toronto: Macmillan.

Allwright, Dick. (2005). Developing Principles for Practitioner Research: The Case of Exploratory Practice. *The Modern Language Journal, 89*(3), 353-366. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2005.00310.x

Anderson, Lorin W., & Burns, Robert B. (1989). *Research in classrooms: the study of teachers, teaching and instruction*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Antonek, Janis L., McCormick, Dawn E., & Donato, Richard. (1997). The Student Teacher Portfolio as Autobiography: Developing a Professional Identity. *The Modern Language Journal, 81*(1), 15-27. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1997.tb01624.x

Appleton, James J., Christenson, Sandra L., & Furlong, Michael J. (2008). Student engagement with school: Critical conceptual and methodological issues of the construct. *Psychology in the Schools, 45*(5), 369-386. doi: 10.1002/pits.20303

Aron, Albert W. (1922). The linguistic background of the modern language teacher 1. *The Modern Language Journal, 7*(2), 75-83. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1922.tb00353.x

Bachman, Lyle F., & Palmer, Adrian S. (1996). *Language testing in practice: designing and developing useful language tests*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bailey, K., & Pasternak, M. (2004). Preparing Non-native and Native English-Speaking Teachers. In L. D. Kamhi-Stein (Ed.), *Learning and teaching from experience: perspectives on nonnative English-speaking professionals* (pp. 155-175). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Baker, Louis C., Fritsche, G. A., Purin, C. M., Tremper, G. N., Waters, Miss Elizabeth A., & Young, Miss Caroline M. (1929). The training of the modern foreign language teacher. *The Modern Language Journal, 13*(4), 312-314. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1929.tb01250.x

Banerjee, Subarna. (2008). Dialects, World Englishes and Education: Understanding Literacy From a Global Perspective. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(1), 149-155. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00217.x

Bartels, Nat. (2005). *Applied linguistics and language teacher education*. New York: Springer.

Bates, E., & MacWhinney, B. (1988). What is functionalism? *Papers and Reports on Child Language Development, 23*, 22-34.

Batstone, Rob. (2010). *Sociocognitive perspectives on language use and language learning*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bax, Stephen. (1997). Roles for a teacher educator in context-sensitive teacher education. *ELT Journal, 51*(3), 232-241. doi: 10.1093/elt/51.3.232

Bell, David M. (2007). Do teachers think that methods are dead? *ELT Journal, 61*(2), 135-143.

Benson, Phil. (2007). Autonomy in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching, 40*(1), 21-40.

Berliner, David C., Calfee, Robert C., Association., American Psychological, & 15., Division. (1996). *Handbook of educational psychology*. New York: Prentice Hall International.

Bernhardt, Elizabeth, & Hammadou, Joann. (1987). A Decade of Research in Foreign Language Teacher Education. *The Modern Language Journal, 71*(3), 289-299. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1987.tb00369.x

Bickley, Verner Courtenay, & Education, Hong Kong Institute of Language in. (1986). *Future directions in English language teacher education: Asia and Pacific perspectives*. Hong Kong: Institute of Language in Education.

Bigelow, M., & Walker, C. (2004). *Creating teacher community: Selected papers from the Third International Conference on Language Teacher Education*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition.

Bolitho, Rod. (1991). A place for second language acquisition in teacher development and in teacher education programmes. In E. Sadtono (Ed.), *Language acquisition and the second/foreign language classroom* (pp. vii, 213 p.). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Bolitho, Rod, Carter, Ronald, Hughes, Rebecca, Ivanič, Roz, Masuhara, Hitomi, & Tomlinson, Brian. (2003). Ten questions about language awareness. *ELT Journal, 57*(3), 251-259. doi: 10.1093/elt/57.3.251

Borg, Simon. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(2), 81-109.

Borg, Simon. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice*. London: Continuum.

Bosco, Frederick J. (1970). The Relevance of Recent Psychological Studies to TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 4*(1), 73-87. doi: 10.2307/3585780

Boud, David. (1988). *Developing student autonomy in learning* (2nd ed.). London: Kogan Page.

Braine, George. (1999). *Non-native educators in English language teaching*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Brandt, Caroline. (2006). Allowing for practice: a critical issue in TESOL teacher preparation. *ELT Journal, 60*(4), 355-364. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccl026

Brandt, Caroline. (2008). Integrating feedback and reflection in teacher preparation. *ELT Journal, 62*(1), 37-46. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccm076

Breen, M. P. (2001). The social context for language learning: a neglected situation? In C. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context: a reader* (pp. xiv, 352 p.). London: Routledge.

Brumfit, Christopher, Mitchell, Rosamond, & British Council. (1989). *Research in the language classroom*. s.l.: Modern English Publications in association with the British Council.

Brutt-Griffler, Janina, & Samimy, Keiko K. (1999). Revisiting the Colonial in the Postcolonial: Critical Praxis for Nonnative-English-Speaking Teachers in a TESOL Program. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(3), 413-431. doi: 10.2307/3587672

Burley, Suzanne, & Pomphrey, Cathy. (2002). Intercomprehension: a move towards a new type of language teacher. *The Language Learning Journal, 25*(1), 46-51. doi: 10.1080/09571730285200091

Burley, Suzanne, & Pomphrey, Cathy. (2003). Intercomprehension in Language Teacher Education: A Dialogue between English and Modern Languages. *Language Awareness, 12*(3-4), 247-255. doi: 10.1080/09658410308667080

Burns, Anne, & Knox, John S. (2011). Classrooms as Complex Adaptive Systems: A Relational Model. *Tesl-Ej, 15*(1), 1 - 25.

Butler, Yuko Goto. (2004). What Level of English Proficiency Do Elementary School Teachers Need to Attain to Teach EFL? Case Studies from Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(2), 245-278. doi: 10.2307/3588380

Canagarajah, A. Suresh. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Canagarajah, A. Suresh. (2000). Negotiating ideologies through English: strategies from the periphery. In T. Ricento (Ed.), *Ideology, politics, and language policies : focus on English* Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Canagarajah, A. Suresh. (2005a). *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Canagarajah, A. Suresh. (2005b). Reconstructing local knowledge, reconfiguring language studies. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Candlin, Christopher, & Mercer, Neil. (2001). *English language teaching in its social context : a reader*. London: Routledge.

Carrier, Karen A. (2003). NNS teacher trainees in Western-based TESOL programs. *ELT Journal, 57*(3), 242-250. doi: 10.1093/elt/57.3.242

Castellano, Marisa, & Datnow, Amanda. (2004). The influence of school reform on classroom instruction in diverse schools. In H. C. Waxman, R. G. Tharp & R. S. Hilberg (Eds.), *Observational research in U.S. classrooms : new approaches for understanding cultural and linguistic diversity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Cazden, Courtney B. (2001). *Classroom discourse: the language of teaching and learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Cerf, Barry. (1922). Aims in the teaching of modern languages 1. *The Modern Language Journal, 6*(8), 419-440. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1922.tb03229.x

Chagas, R. V. C. (1967). *Didática especial de línguas modernas*: Companhia Editora Nacional.

Clark, Christopher M., & Yinger, Robert J. (1977). Research on Teacher Thinking. *Curriculum Inquiry, 7*(4), 279-304. doi: 10.2307/1179499

Clarke, Matthew. (2008). *Language teacher identities : co-constructing discourse and community*. Clevedon, UK ; Buffalo NY: Multilingual Matters.

Cochran-Smith, Marilyn, Feiman-Nemser, Sharon, & McIntyre, D. John. (2008). *Handbook of research on teacher education : enduring questions in changing contexts* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge; Co-published by the Association of Teacher Educators.

Cochran-Smith, Marilyn, & Zeichner, Kenneth M. (2005). *Studying teacher education: the report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Coleman, Algernon. (1925). What the modern language teacher must do for the modern foreign language study. *The Modern Language Journal, 10*(2), 65-73. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1925.tb06459.x

Coleman, Algernon. (1926). The first year of the modern foreign language study 1. *The Modern Language Journal, 10*(7), 389-399. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1926.tb02609.x

Connelly, F. Michael, & Clandinin, D. Jean. (1988). *Teachers as curriculum planners : narratives of experience*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Cooper, Thomas C. (2004). How Foreign Language Teachers in Georgia Evaluate their Professional Preparation: A Call for Action. *Foreign Language Annals, 37*(1), 37-48. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2004.tb02171.x

Cotterall, Sara. (1995). Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy. *ELT Journal, 49*(3), 219-227.

Cotterall, Sara. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: principles for designing language courses. *ELT Journal, 54*(2), 109-117.

Cox, Maria inês Pagliarini, & De Assis-Peterson, A. N. A. antônia. (1999). Critical Pedagogy in ELT: Images of Brazilian Teachers of English. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(3), 433-452. doi: 10.2307/3587673

Crawford, J. P. Wickersham. (1924). The modern foreign language investigation. *The Modern Language Journal, 9*(1), 1-10. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1924.tb06433.x

Crawford-Lange, Linda M. (1981). Redirecting Second Language Curricula: Paulo Freire's Contribution. *Foreign Language Annals, 14*(4), 257-268. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1981.tb01644.x

Crookes, Graham, & Lehner, A. L. (1998). Aspects of Process in an ESL Critical Pedagogy Teacher Education Course. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(2), 319-328. doi: 10.2307/3587586

Cvetek, Slavko. (2008). Applying chaos theory to lesson planning and delivery. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 31*(3), 247-256. doi: 10.1080/02619760802208320

Davies, Alan. (2008). TESOL, Applied Linguistics, and the Butterfly Effect. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(2), 296-298. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00122.x

Davis, Brent, & Sumara, Dennis. (1997). Cognition, Complexity, and Teacher Education. *Harvard Educational Review, 67*(1), 105-126.

Day, R. R., & Conklin, G. (1992). *The knowledge base in ESL/EFL teacher education*. Paper presented at the TESOL Conference, Vancouver.

de Almeida Mattos, Andréa Machado. (2000). A Vygotskian approach to evaluation in foreign language learning contexts. *ELT Journal, 54*(4), 335-345.

De Bot, Kees. (2008). Introduction: Second Language Development as a Dynamic Process. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(2), 166-178. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00712.x

De Bot, Kees, & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2011). Researching Second Language Development from a Dynamic Systems Theory perspective. In M. Verspoor, K. De Bot & W. Lowie (Eds.), *A dynamic approach to second language development : methods and techniques*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub. Company.

De Bot, Kees, Verspoor, Marjolijn, & Lowie, Wander. (2005). Dynamic Systems Theory and Applied Linguistics: the ultimate "so what"? *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 15*(1), 116-118. doi: 10.1111/j.1473-4192.2005.0083b.x

de Burgh-Hirabe, Ryoko, & Feryok, Anne. (2012). Japanese as a foreign language extensive reading and self-regulation: Case studies of high school language learners. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics, 18*(1), 23-37.

de Sonneville, Jenny. (2007). Acknowledgement as a key to teacher learning. *ELT Journal, 61*(1), 55-62.

Decker, W. C. (1917). Results of the examination for approval for oral credit, the licensing of teachers of modern languages. *The Modern Language Journal, 1*(4), 125-130. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1917.tb03253.x

Dewey, J. (2008). The need for a philosophy of education. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D. J. McIntyre & Association of Teacher Educators. (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education : enduring questions in changing contexts* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge; Co-published by the Association of Teacher Educators.

Dörnyei, Zoltán. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Duff, Patricia, & Hornberger, Nancy H. (2008). *Language socialization* (2nd ed.). New York: Springer.

Duff, Patricia, Rossiter, Marian J., Derwing, Tracey M., & Jones, Vivienne M. L. O. (2008). Is a Picture Worth a Thousand Words? *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(2), 325-329. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00127.x

Ellis, Elizabeth Margaret (2003). *Bilingualism among Teachers of English as a Second Language.* (PhD), Griffith University Brisbane, Australia.

Ellis, Greg. (1996). How culturally appropriate is the communicative approach? *ELT Journal, 50*(3), 213-218. doi: 10.1093/elt/50.3.213

Ellis, Nick C., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2009). *Language as a complex adaptive system*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Ellis, Nick C., Simpson-Vlach, Rita, & Maynard, Carson. (2008). Formulaic Language in Native and Second Language Speakers: Psycholinguistics, Corpus Linguistics, and TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(3), 375-396. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00137.x

Ellis, R. (2001). Second Language Acquisition: research and language pedagogy. In C. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context : a reader*. London: Routledge.

Elmore, Richard. (1996). Getting to Scale with Good Educational Practice. *Harvard Educational Review, 66*(1), 1-27.

Ernst, Carola L. (1941). Examination for the Certification of Teachers of Foreign Languages in the State of Connecticut. *The Modern Language Journal, 25*(11), 862-863. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1941.tb00619.x

Farrell, Thomas S. C. (2008). Critical incidents in ELT initial teacher training. *ELT Journal, 62*(1), 3-10.

Ferguson, Gibson, & Donno, Sarah. (2003). One-month teacher training courses: time for a change? *ELT Journal, 57*(1), 26-33. doi: 10.1093/elt/57.1.26

Feryok, Anne. (2009). Activity theory, imitation and their role in teacher development. *Language Teaching Research, 13*(3), 279-299.

Feryok, Anne. (2010). Language teacher cognitions: Complex dynamic systems? *System, 38*(2), 272-279. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2010.02.001

Feryok, Anne. (2012). Activity Theory and Language Teacher Agency. *The Modern Language Journal, 96*(1), 95-107. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2012.01279.x

Feryok, Anne, & Pryde, Michael. (2012). Images as orienting activity: using theory to inform classroom practices. *Teachers and Teaching, 18*(4), 441-454. doi: 10.1080/13540602.2012.696045

Field, John. (2008). Face to Face With the Ghost in the Machine: Psycholinguistics and TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(3), 361-374. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00136.x

Fife, Robert Herndon. (1925). Preliminary report on the modern foreign language study. *The Modern Language Journal, 9*(6), 339-343. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1925.tb03712.x

Flanders, Ned A. (1970). *Analyzing teaching behavior*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co.

Flowerdew, John. (1999). The Practicum in L2 Teacher Education: A Hong Kong Case Study. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(1), 141-145. doi: 10.2307/3588199

Franco, M. M. (2010). O ensino científico das línguas modernas. *Revista HELB, 4*(4).

Freeman, Donald, & Johnson, Karen E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the Knowledge-Base of Language Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(3), 397-417. doi: 10.2307/3588114

Freeman, Donald, & Johnson, Karen E. (2004). Comments on Robert Yates and Dennis Muchisky's "On Reconceptualizing Teacher Education" Readers React … Common Misconceptions About the Quiet Revolution. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(1), 119-127. doi: 10.2307/3588261

Freeman, Donald, & Johnson, Karen E. (2005b). Towards linking teacher knowledge and student learning. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.), *Second language teacher education : international perspectives* (pp. 73–95). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Freire, Paulo, & Ramos, Myra Bergman. (2003). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (30th anniversary ed.). New York: Continuum.

Gatbonton, Elizabeth. (1999). Investigating Experienced ESL Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge. *Modern Language Journal, 83*(1), 35.

Geisler, C. (1994). Literacy and expertise in the academy. *Language and Learning Across the Disciplines, 1*(1), 35-57.

Goodlad, John I., Mantle-Bromley, Corinne, & Goodlad, Stephen John. (2004). *Education for everyone: agenda for education in a democracy*. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass.

Greenman, Nancy P., & Dieckmann, Jack A. (2004). Considering Criticality and Culture as Pivotal in Transformative Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 55*(3), 240-255.

Grossman, P. L., Wilson, S. M., & Shulman, Lee. (1989). Teachers of substance; subject matter knowledge for teaching. In M. C. Reynolds (Ed.), *Knowledge base for the beginning teacher*. Oxford; New York: Published for the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education by Pergamon Press.

Grundy, P. (2002). Reflexive language in language teacher education. In H. R. Trappes-Lomax & G. Ferguson (Eds.), *Language in language teacher education*. Amsterdam ; Philadelphia: J. Benjamins Pub. Co.

Hall, B. T. (2007). Issues and challenges: teacher training. Retrieved November 20, 2007, from http://www.esl-school.com/mt-tb.cgi/278

Hasanova, Dilbarhon, & Shadieva, Tatyana. (2008). Implementing communicative language teaching in Uzbekistan. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(1), 138-143. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00215.x

Hayes, David. (1996). Prioritizing "voice" over "vision": Reaffirming the centrality of the teacher in ESOL research. *System, 24*(2), 173-186. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(96)00002-4

Hayes, David. (2000). Cascade training and teachers' professional development. *ELT Journal, 54*(2), 135-145.

Hedgcock, John S. (2002). Toward a Socioliterate Approach to Second Language Teacher Education. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*(3), 299-317. doi: 10.1111/1540-4781.00151

Hiebert, James, Gallimore, Ronald, & Stigler, James W. (2002). A Knowledge Base for the Teaching Profession: What Would It Look like and How Can We Get One? *Educational Researcher, 31*(5), 3-15. doi: 10.2307/3594422

Holliday, Adrian. (1994). *Appropriate methodology and social context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Horne, Steve. (2003). Short teacher training courses. *ELT Journal, 57*(4), 395-397.

Howard, T. C., & Aleman, G. R. (2008). Teacher capacity for diverse learners: What do teachers need to know? In S. Feiman-Nemser & D. J. McIntyre (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: enduring questions in changing contexts* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge; Co-published by the Association of Teacher Educators.

Howatt, Anthony P. R. (1984). *A history of English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Howatt, Anthony P. R., & Widdowson, H. G. (2004). *A history of English language teaching* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Howey, Kenneth R., & Grossman, Pamela L. (1989). A Study in Contrast: Sources of Pedagogical Content Knowledge for Secondary English. *Journal of Teacher Education, 40*(5), 24-31.

Hu, G. (2005). Professional development of secondary EFL teachers: lessons from China. *Teachers College Record 107* (4), 654-705.

Hunter, William J., & Benson, Garth D. (1997). Arrows in time: The misapplication of chaos theory education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 29*(1), 87-100. doi: 10.1080/002202797184215

Jacobs, Jennifer K., Kawanaka, Takako, & Stigler, James W. (1999). Integrating qualitative and quantitative approaches to the analysis of video data on classroom teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research, 31*(8), 717-724. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(99)00036-1

Jenkins, Jennifer. (2006). Points of view and blind spots: ELF and SLA. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *16*(2), 137-162. doi: 10.1111/j.1473-4192.2006.00111.x

Jessner, Ulrike. (2008). A DST Model of Multilingualism and the Role of Metalinguistic Awareness. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(2), 270-283. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00718.x

Johnson, Ben. (2012). How Do We Know When Students Are Engaged? Retrieved from http://www.edutopia.org/blog/student-engagement-definition-ben-johnson

Johnson, Karen E. (2006). The Sociocultural Turn and Its Challenges for Second Language Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *40*(1), 235-257. doi: 10.2307/40264518

Johnson, Keith. (2005). *Expertise in second language learning and teaching*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Johnson, R. K. (1986). ESL teacher training: the case for the prosecution. In V. C. Bickley (Ed.), *Future directions in English language teacher education: Asia and Pacific perspectives*. Hong Kong: Institute of Language in Education.

Johnston, B., & Goettsch, Karin. (2000). In Search of the Knowledge Base of Language Teaching: Explanations by Experienced Teachers. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *56*(3), 437-468.

Johnston, B., & Irujo, S. (2001). *Research and practice in language teacher education: Voices from the field. Selected papers from the First International Conference on Language Teacher Education*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition.

Johnston, Oliver M. (1918). University training of the high school teacher of modern foreign languages, with particular reference to French. *The Modern Language Journal*, *3*(3), 95-99. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1918.tb03381.x

Kamhi-Stein, Lia D. (2004). *Learning and teaching from experience : perspectives on nonnative English-speaking professionals*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Kaplan, Robert. (2008). Practice Without Theory and Theory Without Practice. *TESOL Quarterly*, *42*(2), 294-296. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00121.x

Kayser, C. F. (1916). The federation and the proposed modern language journal*. *The Modern Language Journal*, *1*(1), 1-9. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1916.tb03235.x

Knight, P. (2001). The development of EFL methodology. In C. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context : a reader*. London: Routledge.

Kramsch, Claire J. (2002). *Language acquisition and language socialization : ecological perspectives*. London & New York: Continuum.

Kubanyiova, Magdalena. (2007). *Teacher development in action: an empirically- based model of promoting conceptual change in in-service language teachers in slovakia*. (PhD), University of Nottingham.

Kubanyiova, Magdalena. (2012). *Teacher development in action : understanding language teachers' conceptual change*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The Postmethod Condition: (E)merging Strategies for Second/Foreign Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*(1), 27-48. doi: 10.2307/3587197

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a Postmethod Pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35*(4), 537-560. doi: 10.2307/3588427

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods : macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a). TESOL Methods: Changing Tracks, Challenging Trends. *TESOL Quarterly*, *40*(1), 59-81. doi: 10.2307/40264511

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006b). *Understanding language teaching : from method to post-method*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

La Ganza, W. (2008). Learner autonomy-teacher autonomy: Interrelating and the will to empower. In T. Lamb & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy : concepts, realities, and responses* (pp. 63 - 79). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub. Co.

Lafford, Barbara A. (2007). Second Language Acquisition Reconceptualized? The Impact of Firth and Wagner (1997). *The Modern Language Journal, 91*, 735-756. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00666.x

Lantolf, James P. (2000). A Century of Language Teaching and Research: Looking Back and Looking Ahead. *The Modern Language Journal, 84*(4), 467-471. doi: 10.1111/0026-7902.00082

Lantolf, James P., & Thorne, S. L. (2008). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition : an introduction* (pp. 201-224). New York: Routledge.

Lantolf, James P., & Thorne, Steven L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1983). Training teachers or educating a teacher. In J. E. Alatis, H. H. Stern & P. Strevens (Eds.), *Applied linguistics and the preparation of second language teachers : toward a rationale*. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1997). Chaos/Complexity Science and Second Language Acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 18*(2), 141-165.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2002). Language acquisition and language use from a Chaos/Complexity Theory perspective. In C. J. Kramsch (Ed.), *Language acquisition and language socialization : ecological perspectives* (pp. 33-46). London ; New York: Continuum.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2008). Does TESOL Share Theories With Other Disciplines? *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(2), 291-294. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00120.x

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2010). The dynamic co-adaptation of cognitive and social views: a Complexity Theory perspective In R. Batstone (Ed.), *Sociocognitive perspectives on language use and language learning*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2012). Complex, dynamic systems: A new transdisciplinary theme for applied linguistics? *Language Teaching, 45*(2), 202-214. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000061

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, Marti. (2011). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (3rd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, Lynne. (2008). Research Methodology on Language Development from a Complex Systems Perspective. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(2), 200-213. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00714.x

Lave, Jean, & Wenger, Etienne. (1991). *Situated learning : legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Leakey, Richard E., & Lewin, Roger. (1978). *People of the lake : mankind and its beginnings* (1st ed.). Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Press.

Lee, Icy. (2007). Preparing pre-service English teachers for reflective practice. *ELT Journal, 61*(4), 321-329.

Lemisko, L., Griffith, B., & Cutright, M. (2001). Reshaping Teacher Education in a Knowledge Society: Chaos and Collingwood. *Journal Of Teaching And Learning, 1*(2), 33 - 45.

Leshem, Shosh, & Bar-Hama, Rivka. (2008). Evaluating teaching practice. *ELT Journal, 62*(3), 257-265.

Levis, John, & Farrell, Thomas S. C. (2007). Failing the Practicum: Narrowing the Gap Between Expectations and Reality With Reflective Practice. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(1), 193-201. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00049.x

Lin, A., Wang, W., Akamatso, N., & Riazi, M. (2005). International TESOL professionals and teaching English for glocalized communication In A. S.

Canagarajah (Ed.), *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Liu, D. (1999). Training non-native TESOL students: challenges for TESOL teacher education in the west. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native educators in English language teaching*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Lo, Y. G. (2005). Relevance of knowledge of Second Language Acquisition: an in-depth case study of a non-native EFL teacher. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Applied linguistics and language teacher education*. New York: Springer.

Loewen, Shawn, & Philp, Jenefer. (2006). Recasts in the Adult English L2 Classroom: Characteristics, Explicitness, and Effectiveness. *The Modern Language Journal, 90*(4), 536-556. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00465.x

Long, M. H. (1989). Second language classroom research and teacher education. In C. Brumfit & R. Mitchell (Eds.), *Research in the language classroom*. London: Modern English Publications in association with the British Council.

Long, M. H. (1990). Second language classroom research and teacher education. In C. Brumfit & R. Mitchell (Eds.), *Research in the language classroom*. London: Modern English Publications in association with the British Council.

Lortie, Dan C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: a sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lortie, Dan C. (2002). *Schoolteacher: a sociological study* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lynch, Brian K. (1996). *Language program evaluation : theory and practice*. Cambridge England ; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Macalister, John. (2011). Teaching with Information Texts: Comparing the Beliefs of Malaysian and New Zealand Trainers. *Language Education in Asia, 2*(1), 56-70. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.5746/LEiA/11/V2/I1/A05/Macalister

Machado, R., Campos, T., & Saunders, M. (2006). História do ensino de línguas no Brasil: avanços e retrocessos. *Revista HELB 1*(1).

Macpherson, Sally. (2003). The short intensive teacher-training course. *ELT Journal, 57*(3), 297-300.

MacWhinney, Brian, Bates, Elizabeth, & Kliegl, Reinhold. (1984). Cue validity and sentence interpretation in English, German, and Italian. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 23*(2), 127-150. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5371(84)90093-8

Mandelbrot, Benoit B. (1983). *The fractal geometry of nature* (Updated and augmented [ed.] ed.). New York: W.H. Freeman.

Mantero, Miguel. (2004). Transcending Tradition: Situated Activity, Discourse, and Identity in Language Teacher Education. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies, 1*(3), 143-161. doi: 10.1207/s15427595cils0103_2

Markee, Numa. (1997). Second Language Acquisition Research: A Resource for Changing Teachers' Professional Cultures? *The Modern Language Journal, 81*(1), 80-93. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1997.tb01628.x

Markee, Numa, & Kasper, Gabriele. (2004). Classroom Talks: An Introduction. *The Modern Language Journal, 88*(4), 491-500. doi: 10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-14-.x

McClure, J. (2001). Developing language skills and learner autonomy in international postgraduates. *ELT Journal, 55*(2), 142-148.

McNamara, T. I. M. (2008). Mapping the Scope of Theory in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(2), 302-305. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00124.x

Medgyes, P. (1999). Language training: a neglected area in teacher education. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-native educators in English language teaching*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Medley, D. (1992). Structured observation. In M. C. Alkin & American Educational Research Association. (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of educational research* (6th ed.). New York & Toronto: Macmillan.

Mehan, Hugh. (1979). *Learning lessons : social organization in the classroom*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Mintrop, Heinrich. (2004). Fostering constructivist communities of learners in the amalgamated multi-discipline of social studies. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 36*(2), 141-158. doi: 10.1080/0022027032000142500

Modern Foreign Language, Study, & Purin, C. M. (1928). The training of modern foreign language teachers in the light of investigations. *The Modern Language Journal, 13*(1), 15-20. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1928.tb05574.x

Moore, L. C. (2008). Language socialization and second/foreign language and multilingual education in non-Western settings. In P. Duff & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education: Language socialization* (2nd ed., pp. 175-185). New York: Springer.

Morgan, Brian D. (1998). *The ESL classroom : teaching, critical practice, and community development*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Morris, Lori. (2003). Linguistic Knowledge, Metalinguistic Knowledge and Academic Success in a Language Teacher Education Programme. *Language Awareness, 12*(2), 109-123. doi: 10.1080/09658410308667070

Muchisky, Dennis, & Yates, Robert. (2004). Comments on Robert Yates and Dennis Muchisky's "On Reconceptualizing Teacher Education". The Authors Respond... Defending the Discipline, Field, and Profession. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(1), 134-140. doi: 10.2307/3588263

Murdoch, George. (1994). Language development provision in teacher training curricula. *ELT Journal, 48*(3), 253-265.

Nemtchinova, Ekaterina. (2005). Host Teachers' Evaluations of Nonnative-English-Speaking Teacher Trainees—A Perspective from the Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(2), 235-261. doi: 10.2307/3588310

Newman, Michael, & Hanauer, David. (2005). The NCATE/TESOL Teacher Education Standards: A Critical Review. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(4), 753-764. doi: 10.2307/3588536

Nogueira, M. C. (2007). *Ouvindo A Voz Do (Pré)Adolescente Brasileiro Da Geração Digital Sobre O Livro Didático De Inglês Desenvolvido No Brasil.* Pontifícia Universidade Católica Do Rio De Janeiro - Puc-Rio.

Northedge, A. (2002). Excursions into specialist discourse communities: a sociocultural account of university teaching. In C. G. Wells & G. Claxton (Eds.), *Learning for life in the 21st century : sociocultural perspectives on the future of education*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Norton, Bonny, & Flowerdew, John. (1999). The Practicum in TESOL: The Practicum in L2 Teacher Education: A Hong Kong Case Study. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(1), 141-145. doi: 10.2307/3588199

Norton, Bonny, Lima, MarÍLia D. O. S. Santos, & Fontana, Beatriz. (2007). Constructing Pedagogical Awareness With Brazilian Language Educators. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(2), 417-421. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00073.x

Norton, Bonny, & Toohey, Kelleen. (2004). *Critical pedagogies and language learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, David. (1987). Communicative language teaching: Making it work. *ELT Journal, 41*(2), 136-145.

Nunan, David. (1988). *The learner-centred curriculum : a study in second language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nystrand, Martin. (1997). *Opening dialogue : understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Nystrand, Martin, Gamoran, Adam, & Heck, Mary Jo. (1993). Using small groups for response to and thinking about literature. *English Journal, 82*(1), 14.

O'Dowd, Robert. (2007). Evaluating the outcomes of online intercultural exchange. *ELT Journal, 61*(2), 144-152.

O'Keeffe, Anne, & Farr, Fiona. (2003). Using Language Corpora in Initial Teacher Education: Pedagogic Issues and Practical Applications. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(3), 389-418. doi: 10.2307/3588397

Oakes, Jeannie. (2012). *Teaching to change the world* (4th ed.). Boulder, CO: Paradigm Pubishers.

Oliveira, L. E. (1999). *A historiografia brasileira da literatura inglesa : uma historia do ensino de ingles no Brasil (1809-1951).* (Master's), Universidade Estadual de Campinas Campinas.

Oxford, R.L. (2003). Toward a more systematic model of L2 learner autonomy. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.), *Learner autonomy across cultures : language education perspectives* (pp. xi, 292 p.). New York, N.Y.: Palgrave Macmillan.

Paiva, V. (1997). A identidade do professor de inglês. *APLIEMGE/FAPEMIG, 1*(1), 9-17.

Paiva, V. (2003). A LDB e a legislação vigente sobre o ensino e a formação de professor de língua inglesa. In C. M. T. Stevens & M. J. Cunha (Eds.), *Caminhos e colheita: ensino e pesquisa na área de inglês no Brasil*. Brasilia: Editora Universidade de Brasília.

Paiva, V. (2004). Avaliação dos cursos de Letras e a formação do professor. *Revista do GELNE, 5* (1).

Pajares, M. Frank. (1992). Teachers' Beliefs and Educational Research: Cleaning up a Messy Construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(3), 307-332. doi: 10.2307/1170741

Palfreyman, David, & Smith, Richard C. (2003). *Learner autonomy across cultures : language education perspectives*. New York, N.Y.: Palgrave Macmillan.

Palincsar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal Teaching of Comprehension-Fostering and Comprehension-Monitoring Activities. *Cognition and Instruction, 1*(2), 117-175. doi: 10.2307/3233567

Palincsar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1988). Teaching and Practicing Thinking Skills to Promote Comprehension in the Context of Group Problem Solving. *Remedial and Special Education, 9*(1), 53-59.

Palincsar, A. S., Brown, A. L., & Campione, C. J. (1993). First-grade dialogues for language acquisition and use. In E. A. Forman, N. Minick & C. A. Stone (Eds.), *Contexts for learning: sociocultural dynamics in children's development* (pp. xi, 395 p). New York ; Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Palincsar, A. S., Brown, A. L., & Campione, C. J. (1994). Models and practices of dynamic assessment. In G. P. Wallach & K. G. Butler (Eds.), *Language learning disabilities in school-age children and adolescents : some principles and applications*. Boston Mass.: Allyn & Bacon.

Panova, Iliana, & Lyster, R. O. Y. (2002). Patterns of Corrective Feedback and Uptake in an Adult ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*(4), 573-595. doi: 10.2307/3588241

Parker, Randall E. (2002). *Reflections on the great depression*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Peirce, Charles S., Burks, Arthur W., Hartshorne, Charles, & Weiss, Paul. (1958). *Collected papers of Charles Sanders Peirce*. Cambridge, Mass: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Pennycook, Alastair. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London ; New York: Longman.

Pennycook, Alastair. (1999). Introduction: Critical Approaches to TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(3), 329-348. doi: 10.2307/3587668

Pennycook, Alastair. (2000). English, politics, ideology: from colonial celebration to postcolonial performativity. In T. Ricento (Ed.), *Ideology, politics, and language policies : focus on English* Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Pennycook, Alastair. (2007). *Global Englishes and transcultural flows*. London: Routledge.

Phelps, Renata, & Hase, Stewart. (2002). Complexity and action research: exploring the theoretical and methodological connections. *Educational Action Research, 10*(3), 507-524. doi: 10.1080/09650790200200198

Phillipson, Robert. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pillet, Roger A. (1970). Teacher Education in Foreign Languages: An Overview. *The Modern Language Journal, 54*(1), 14-19. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1970.tb02230.x

Politzer, Robert L., & Bartley, Diana E. (1970). Academic Report: Practice-Centered Teacher Training: Standard English as a Second Dialect. *The Modern Language Journal, 54*(1), 31-31. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1970.tb02235.x

Prabhu, N. S. (1990). There Is No Best Method—Why? *TESOL Quarterly, 24*(2), 161-176. doi: 10.2307/3586897

Price, W. R. (1920). Results of the examinations for approval for oral credit; the licensing of teachers of modern languages. *The Modern Language Journal, 4*(7), 345-347. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1920.tb03515.x

Price, W. R. (1933). Shorn lambs II. *The Modern Language Journal, 18*(3), 153-159. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1933.tb00073.x

Price, W. R. (1934). Shorn lambs IV. *The Modern Language Journal, 18*(6), 375-382. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1934.tb01298.x

Prigogine, I., & Stengers, Isabelle. (1997). *The end of certainty : time, chaos, and the new laws of nature*. New York ; London: Free Press.

Purin, C. M. (1916). The direct teaching of modern foreign languages in American high schools 1. *The Modern Language Journal, 1*(2), 43-51. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1916.tb03240.x

Purin, C. M. (1928). The training of modern foreign language teachers in the light of investigations. *Modern Language Journal, 13*(1), 15.

Rajagopalan, K. (2005). The language issue in Brazil: when local language clashes with expert knowledge. In A. S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Ricento, Thomas. (2000). *Ideology, politics, and language policies : focus on English*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Richards, Jack C. (1990a). Beyond methods. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *The language teaching matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, Jack C. (1990b). *The language teaching matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, Jack C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, Jack C., & Lockhart, Charles. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge England ; New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, Jack C., & Rodgers, Theodore S. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching : a description and analysis*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Rico, Stephanie A., & Shulman, J. H. (2004). Invertebrates and organ systems: science instruction and 'Fostering a Community of Learners'. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 36*(2), 159-181. doi: 10.1080/0022027032000139405

Rihani, Samir. (2002). *Complex systems theory and development practice : understanding non-linear realities*. London & New York: Zed Books.

Rimm-Kaufman, Sara. (N/D). Improving Students' Relationships with Teachers to Provide Essential Supports for Learning Teacher's Modules. Retrieved June 9, 2013, from http://www.apa.org/education/k12/relationships.aspx

Risager, Karen. (2007). *Language and culture pedagogy : from a national to a transnational paradigm*. Clevedon ; Buffalo: Multilingual Matters.

Robbins, Dorothy. (2003). *Vygotsky's and A.A. Leontiev's semiotics and psycholinguistics : applications for education, second language acquisition, and theories of language*. Westport, Conn.: Praeger Publishers.

Robbins, Vernon K. (1996). *Exploring the texture of texts : a guide to socio-rhetorical interpretation*. Valley Forge, Pa.: Trinity Press International.

Roberts, Jon. (1998). *Language teacher education*. London: Arnold.

Robson, Colin. (2011). *Real world research : a resource for users of social research methods in applied settings* (3rd ed.). Chichester: Wiley.

Rodgers, Carol. (1998). Reflection in Second Language Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(3), 610-613. doi: 10.2307/3588133

Rogoff, Barbara, & Lave, Jean. (1984). *Everyday cognition : its development in social context*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Rubdy, Rani. (2000). Dilemmas in ELT: seeds of discontent or sources of transformation? *System, 28*(3), 403-418. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(00)00020-8

Sadtono, E., & Regional Language Centre. (1991). *Language acquisition and the second/foreign language classroom*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Sateles, L. M., & Almeida Filho, J. C. (2010). Breve histórico da abordagem gramatical e seus matizes no ensino de línguas no brasil *Revista HELB, 4*(4).

Saussure, Ferdinand de, Bally, Charles, Sechehaye, Albert, & Riedlinger, Albert. (1959). *Course in general linguistics*. New York: Philosophical Library.

Schmoker, Michael J. (2006). *Results now : how we can achieve unprecedented improvements in teaching and learning*. Alexandria, VA.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Schön, Donald A. (1995). Knowing-in-Action: The New Scholarship Requires a New Epistemology. *Change, 27*(6), 26-34. doi: 10.2307/40165285

Schulz, Renate A. (2000). Foreign Language Teacher Development: MLJ Perspectives—1916–1999. *The Modern Language Journal, 84*(4), 495-522. doi: 10.1111/0026-7902.00084

Schumann, John H. (1986). Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 7*(5), 379-392. doi: 10.1080/01434632.1986.9994254

Scott, Virginia M., & Fuente, Maria Jose D. E. L. A. (2008). What's the Problem? L2 Learners' Use of the L1 During Consciousness-Raising, Form-Focused Tasks. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(1), 100-113. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00689.x

Shannon, Claude Elwood, & Weaver, Warren. (1949). *The mathematical theory of communication*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Shohamy, Elana Goldberg. (2001). *The power of tests : a critical perspective on the uses of language tests*. Harlow: Longman.

Shulman, Lee. (1986a). Paradigms and research programmes in the study of teaching: a contemporary perspective. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed.). New York & London: Macmillan.

Shulman, Lee. (1986b). Those Who Understand: Knowledge Growth in Teaching. *Educational Researcher, 15*(2), 4-14. doi: 10.2307/1175860

Shulman, Lee. (1987). Knowledge and Teaching: Foundations of the New Reform. *Harvard Educational Review, 57*(1), 1-23.

Shulman, Lee. (1996). Just in Case: Reflections on learning from experience. In J. A. Colbert, P. Desberg & K. D. Trimble (Eds.), *The case for education : contemporary approaches for using case methods*. Boston ; London: Allyn and Bacon,.

Shulman, Lee. (1996c). The comparative psychology of school subjects. In D. C. Berliner & R. C. Calfee (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology*. New York & London: Macmillan.

Shulman, Lee, & Shulman, J. H. (2004). How and what teachers learn: a shifting perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 36*(2), 257-271. doi: 10.1080/0022027032000148298

Silberstein, Sandra. (2008). "Theorizing" TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(2), 299-302. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00123.x

Silva, P. R. (2007). *A prática reflexiva na formação inicial do professor de inglês.* (Mestre Mestrado em Educação), Universidade Federal de Sergipe, São Cristóvão/SE.

Sinclair, John McHardy. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sinclair, John McHardy, & Carter, Ronald. (2004). *Trust the text : language, corpus and discourse*. London ; New York, N.Y.: Routledge.

Skehan, Peter. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Slimani, A. (1992). Evaluation of classroom interaction. In J. C. Alderson & A. Beretta (Eds.), *Evaluating second language education* (pp. 197–221). Cambridge ; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Snider, Denton Jaques. (1903). *Ancient European philosophy : the history of Greek philosophy psychologically treated*. St. Louis, Mo.: Sigma Publishing.

Soars, Liz, & Soars, John. (2011). *New Headway* (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sokolov, Aleksandr Nikolaevich. (1972). *Inner speech and thought*. New York: Plenum Press.

Sorensen, P. (2004). Learning to teach collaboratively: the use of subject pairs in the school practicum. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*(32), 1-24.

Sowden, Colin. (2007). Culture and the 'good teacher' in the English Language classroom. *ELT Journal, 61*(4), 304-310.

Spaulding, Geraldine. (1941). The Achievement of the Modern Language Candidates in the National Teacher Examinations. *The Modern Language Journal, 25*(5), 361-367. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1941.tb03024.x

Steenbeek, Henderien, & van Geert, Paul. (2005). A dynamic systems model of dyadic interaction during play of two children. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 2*(2), 105-145. doi: 10.1080/17405620544000020

Steenbeek, Henderien, & Van Geert, Paul. (2008). An empirical validation of a dynamic systems model of interaction: do children of different sociometric statuses differ in their dyadic play? *Developmental Science, 11*(2), 253-281. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-7687.2007.00655.x

Steenbeek, Henderien W., & van Geert, Paul L. C. (2007). A theory and dynamic model of dyadic interaction: Concerns, appraisals, and contagiousness in a developmental context. *Developmental Review, 27*(1), 1-40. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2006.06.002

Stewart, Timothy. (2006). Teacher-Researcher Collaboration or Teachers' Research? *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(2), 421-430. doi: 10.2307/40264529

Stringer, Ernest T. (2007). *Action research* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Tarone, E., & Alwright, D. (2005). The language base of second language teacher education. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.), *Second language teacher education : international perspectives*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tarone, Elaine, & Yule, George. (1989). *Focus on the language learner : approaches to identifying and meeting the needs of second language learners*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tedick, Diane J. (2005). *Second language teacher education : international perspectives*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tedick, Diane J., & Walker, Constance L. (1994). Second Language Teacher Education: The Problems That Plague Us. *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*(3), 300-312. doi: 10.2307/330109

Thanasoulas, D. (2002). The changing winds and shifting sands of the history of English Language Teaching. Retrieved October 13, 2007, from http://www.englishclub.com/tefl-articles/history-english-language-teaching.htm

Tharp, Roland G., & Gallimore, Ronald. (1988). *Rousing minds to life : teaching, learning, and schooling in social context*. Cambridge Cambridgeshire ; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Thomas, J. (1999). Voices from the periphery: non-native teachers and issues of credibility. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Non-Native Educators in English Language Teaching*. London: Erlbaum.

Thorne, S. L. (2000). Second language acquisition and the truth(s) about relativity. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Timperley, Helen. (2001). Mentoring Conversations Designed to Promote Student Teacher Learning. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *29*(2), 111-123. doi: 10.1080/13598660120061309

Tomasello, Michael. (1999). *The cultural origins of human cognition*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Tomasello, Michael. (2003). *Constructing a language : a usage-based theory of language acquisition*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Tozer, Steven, Gallegos, Bernardo P., & Henry, Annette. (2011). *Handbook of research in the social foundations of education*. New York: Routledge.

Trappes-Lomax, H. R., & Ferguson, Gibson. (2002). *Language in language teacher education*. Amsterdam ; Philadelphia: J. Benjamins Pub. Co.

Tschacher, Wolfgang, & Haken, Hermann. (2007). Intentionality in non-equilibrium systems? The functional aspects of self-organized pattern formation. *New Ideas in Psychology*, *25*(1), 1-15. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.newideapsych.2006.09.002

Tsui, Amy. (2003). *Understanding expertise in teaching : case studies of second language teachers*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tsui, Amy. (2005). Expertise in teaching: perspectives and issues. In K. Johnson (Ed.), *Expertise in Second Language Learning and Teaching*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Turner, Mark. (1991). *Reading minds : the study of English in the age of cognitive science*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Tusting, Karin, & Barton, David. (2006). *Models of adult learning : a literature review*. Leicester: NIACE.

Valsiner, Jaan. (1988). *Developmental psychology in the Soviet Union*. Brighton: Harvester.

van Geert, Paul. (1994). *Dynamic systems of development : change between complexity and chaos*. London: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

van Geert, Paul. (2008). The Dynamic Systems Approach in the Study of L1 and L2 Acquisition: An Introduction. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(2), 179-199. doi: 10.2307/25173022

van Geert, Paul, & Steenbeek, Henderien. (2005). Explaining after by before: Basic aspects of a dynamic systems approach to the study of development. *Developmental Review*, *25*(3–4), 408-442. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2005.10.003

van Gelder, Tim. (1998). The dynamical hypothesis in cognitive science. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, *21*(05), 615-628.

van Lier, L. (1995). *Introducing Language Awareness*. London: Penguin.

van Lier, Leo. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum : awareness, autonomy, and authenticity*. London: Longman.

Van Orden, Guy, Holden, John, & Turvey, Michael. (2003). Self-Organization of Cognitive Performance. 3. Retrieved i3v, 7502587, 132, from http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=ovftf&NEWS=N&AN=00004785-200309000-00001

VanPatten, Bill. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction in second language acquisition*. Norwood N.J.: Ablex Pub.

VanPatten, Bill, & Williams, Jessica. (2008). *Theories in second language acquisition : an introduction*. New York: Routledge.

Verspoor, Marjolijn, Lowie, Wander, & Dijk, Marijn van. (2008). Variability in Second Language Development from a Dynamic Systems Perspective. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(2), 214-231. doi: 10.2307/25173024

Verspoor, Marjolijn, Lowie, Wander, & Van Dijk, Marijn. (2008). Variability in Second Language Development From a Dynamic Systems Perspective. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(2), 214-231. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00715.x

Verspoor, Marjolyn, De Bot, Kees, & Lowie, Wander. (2011). *A dynamic approach to second language development : methods and techniques*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Pub. Company.

Voloshinov, V. N., Matejka, Ladislav, & Titunik, I. R. (1973). *Marxism and the philosophy of language*. New York ; London: Seminar Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. , Rieber, R., & Carton, A. (1987). *The Collected Works of L. S. Vygotsky* (N. Minick, Trans. Vol. 1).

Vygotsky, L. S., & Cole, Michael. (1978). *Mind in society : the development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S., & Rieber, R. W. (1999). *The Collected Works of L. S. Vygotsky: volume 6* (A. M. Sheridan-Smith, Trans.). London: Plenum.

Wallace, C. (2005). Reading and expertise. In K. Johnson (Ed.), *Expertise in Second Language Learning and Teaching*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wallace, M. (1996). Structured reflection: the role of the professional project in training ESL teachers. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wallach, Geraldine P., & Butler, Katharine G. (1994). *Language learning disabilities in school-age children and adolescents : some principles and applications*. Boston Mass.: Allyn & Bacon.

Waters, Gabriel, & Wilcox, Sherman. (2002). Making meaning. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 25*(05), 644-645.

Waxman, Hersholt C., Tharp, Roland G., & Hilberg, R. Soleste. (2004). *Observational research in U.S. classrooms : new approaches for understanding cultural and linguistic diversity*. Cambridge, U.K. ; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Webbe, J. (1622). *An appeal to truth, in the controversie betweene art, and use; about the best and most expedient course in languages. To be read fasting, etc*.

Weigle, S. C. (2005). Second language writing expertise. In K. Johnson (Ed.), *Expertise in Second Language Learning and Teaching*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Weir, Cyril J. (1990). *Communicative language testing*. London: Prentice-Hall.

Weir, Cyril J. (1993). *Understanding and developing language tests*. London: Prentice Hall.

Weir, Cyril J. (2005). *Language testing and validation : an evidence-based approach*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wells, C. G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry towards a sociocultural practice and theory of education Learning in doing* (pp. xx, 370 p.). Retrieved from http://site.ebrary.com/lib/yale/Doc?id=10015018

Wells, C. G. (2002). Inquiry as an orientation for learning, teaching and teacher education. In G. Wells & G. Claxton (Eds.), *Learning For Life in the 21st Century* (pp. 197-210). Oxford: Blackwell.

Wells, C. G. (2007). Semiotic Mediation, Dialogue and the Construction of Knowledge. *Human Development, 50*(5), 244-274.

Wells, C. G., & Claxton, Guy. (2002). *Learning for life in the 21st century : sociocultural perspectives on the future of education*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Wertsch, James V. (1985). *Vygotsky and the social formation of mind*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Wertsch, James V. (1991). *Voices of the mind : a sociocultural approach to mediated action*. London: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Wertsch, James V. (1993). Commentary. *Human Development, 36*(3), 168-168.

Wertsch, James V. (1998). *Mind as action*. New York: Oxford University Press.

West, Richard. (1994). Needs analysis in language teaching. *Language Teaching, 27*(01), 1-19.

Whitcomb, Jennifer A. (2004). Dilemmas of design and predicaments of practice: adapting the 'Fostering a Community of Learners' model in secondary school English language arts classrooms. *Journal of Curriculum Studies, 36*(2), 183-206. doi: 10.1080/0022027032000139414

Widdowson, H. G. (1992). ELT and EL Teachers: matters arising. *ELT Journal, 46*(4), 333-339.

Widdowson, H. G. (2003). *Defining issues in English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wolfram, Stephen. (2002). *A new kind of science*. Champaign, IL: Wolfram Media.

Woods, Devon. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching : beliefs, decision-making and classroom practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Woodward, Tessa. (1991). *Models and metaphors in language teacher training : loop input and other strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wortham, Stanton Emerson Fisher. (1994). *Acting out participant examples in the classroom*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: J. Benjamins Pub. Co.

Wray, Alison. (2002). *Formulaic language and the lexicon*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wright, Tony. (1987). *Roles of teachers and learners*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wright, Tony. (2010). Second language teacher education: Review of recent research on practice. *Language Teaching, 43*(03), 259-296.

Yates, Robert, & Muchisky, Dennis. (2003). On Reconceptualizing Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(1), 135-147. doi: 10.2307/3588468

Yin, Robert K. (1984). *Case study research : design and methods*. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Zeichner, K. (1999). Action research and the preparation of reflective practitioners during the professional practicum. *International Journal of Practical Experiences in Professional Education (Australia), 3*(1), 1-26.

Zipf, George Kingsley. (1949). *Human behavior and the principle of least effort; an introduction to human ecology*. Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.