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Teacher identity construction in a TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education in Western Australia

Arman Abednia
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بِسْمِ اللّٰهِ الرَّحْمٰنِ الرَّحِیْمِ

مَنْتِ خدای را عز و جل که طاعتش موجب قربتست و به شکر اندرش مزید نعمت. هر نفسی که فرو می رود ممدّ حیاتست و چون بر می آید مفرّح ذات. پس در هر نفسی دو نعمت موجودست و بر هر نعمتی شکری واجب

از دست و زبان که برآید

کز عهده شکرش به در آید

اعملوا آلَ داوَدَ شُكْرًا وَ قَلِيلٌ مِّنْ عِبَادِيَ الشُّكُورِ

بنده همان به که ز تقصیر خویش

عذر به درگاه خدای آورد

ورنه سزاوار خداوندیش

کس نتواند که به جای آورد

گلستان سعدی

سعدی شیرازی

IN THE NAME OF ALLAH, THE MERCIFUL THE CLEMENT

Laudation to the God of majesty and glory! Obedience to him is a cause of approach and gratitude in increase of benefits. Every inhalation of the breath prolongs life and every expiration of it gladdens our nature; wherefore every breath confers two benefits and for every benefit gratitude is due.

Whose hand and tongue is capable

To fulfil the obligations of thanks to him?

Words of the most high: Be thankful, O family of David, and but few of my servants are thankful.

It is best to a worshipper for his transgressions

To offer apologies at the throne of God,

Although what is worthy of his dignity

No one is able to accomplish.¹

The Gulistan of Sa'di (Sa'di Shirazi, 1258)

¹ Translation by Richard Francis Burton (1888)

**Teacher Identity Construction in a TESOL Graduate
Certificate of Education in Western Australia**

This thesis is presented for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

by

Arman Abednia

Edith Cowan University
School of Education
(Perth) Australia
2018

USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.

Abstract

This research project explored the potential of a second language teacher education course for fostering teacher identity negotiation. It was found that classroom conversations provided a rich space for teacher identity negotiation; however, no substantial changes were observed in most aspects of their identities during the course, except for a growth in a few teachers' self-confidence. The implications are that conducting teacher education in an interactive manner is highly beneficial, but deeper engagement with practice of teaching is recommended. These insights should facilitate positive outcomes for teacher education programs.

Thesis Format

In this thesis, APA 6th has been used for formatting the entire thesis and in-text and end-text referencing. However, the formatting style tools of Microsoft Office presented challenges in starting paragraphs in line with level-3, level-4, and level-5 headings. Therefore, paragraphs begin under them. Single line spacing has been applied to quotes from the literature and interview excerpts.

Declaration

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

- i. Incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;
- ii. Contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; or
- iii. Contain any defamatory material.

I also grant permission for the library at Edith Cowan University to make duplicate copies of my thesis as required.



.....

Arman Abednia

Date: 12th September, 2017

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I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my former Principal Supervisor Dr Yvonne Haig (Adjunct) and my subsequent Principal Supervisor Associate Professor Geoffrey Lummis for their selfless support and constant guidance. You taught me what it means to be a good teacher and a research supervisor.

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Statement of Contribution by Authors

I, Arman Abednia, contributed to the majority of work in the design, data collection, analysis and interpretation of the results, composition and editing of each of the manuscripts listed above.

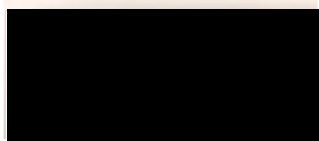
Signed:



Date: 12/09/2017

I, Associate Professor Geoffrey Lummis on behalf of Dr Yvonne Haig, endorse that this level of contribution by the candidate indicated above is appropriate.

Signed:



Date: 12/09/2017

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to the late Dr Mohammad Shahbazi, my lovely high school English teacher and inspiring role model who encouraged me to become a TESOL professional and fully supported me for as long as he was there.

I miss you...

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List of Abbreviations

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| CA | Conversation Analysis |
| CoP | Communities of Practice |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| ESL | English as a Second Language |
| IPA | The International Phonetic Alphabet |
| L2 | Second Language |
| LOTE | Languages Other than English |
| TBLT | Task-based Language Teaching |
| TESOL | Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages |
| TESOL Grad Cert | TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education |
| TL | Teacher learner |
| TLA | Teacher Language Awareness |
| Tutorial prep | Tutorial preparation worksheet |

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Consciously, we teach what we know; unconsciously, we teach who we are"
(Hamachek, 1999, p. 209).

Background

A brief glance at the (immediate) history of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) shows its distance from educational theory and undue focus on asocial and cognitive linguistic dimensions of second language education (Braxley, 2008; May, 2011). However, more recent literature on TESOL highlights its increasing awareness of its educational side and a growing focus on the contributions of social constructivist theories of learning and teaching to the advancement of this area (Canagarajah, 2005; Crookes, 2013; Kumaravadivelu, 2006a; Mann, 2005). A similar shift of focus is observed in TESOL teacher education. Early attempts to educate second language (L2) teachers were mainly characterised by transmitting externally defined and prescribed techniques (J. C. Richards, 2008; J. C. Richards & Farrell, 2005) to teachers whose prior experiences and beliefs were largely ignored (Crandall, 2000; Freeman, 1989; Imig & Imig, 2006; Wright, 2010). While this approach is still more or less in vogue in many contexts, more awareness of the complex nature of teacher development has resulted in a reconceptualisation of TESOL teacher education in increasingly constructivist and sociocultural terms (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; K. E. Johnson, 2000, 2006, 2009; J. C. Richards, 2008, 2010; Singh & Richards, 2006). This has meant a shift away from reducing teachers to passive technicians who mainly practice others' theories and towards considering teachers as reflective practitioners, who have the ability to theorise about their practices and practice their personal theories (Griffiths, 2000). The main assumption underlying the constructivist orientation is that teachers are not empty vessels to be filled with knowledge and skills of teaching. Rather, they are already equipped with prior experiences and personal beliefs which inform their teaching knowledge and practice (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). This heightened awareness led to an increased interest among researchers in studying teacher-related factors such as teacher cognition (Borg, 2006), teacher knowledge (Freeman, 2002), teacher beliefs (Freeman, 1989; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Woods, 1996), and, especially over the last two decades, teacher identity, the focus of the present research project, which, in addition to

numerous peer-reviewed papers, has been the focus of books (M. Clarke, 2008), edited volumes (Barkhuizen, 2017), and special issues (De Costa & Norton, 2017; Varghese, Motha, Park, Reeves, & Trent, 2016).

The Concept of Teacher Identity

Korthagen (2004) believes that one's answers to “such questions as ‘who am I?’, ‘what kind of teacher do I want to be?’, and ‘how do I see my role as a teacher?’” (p. 81) constitute their identity. Taking the relational aspect of identity into account, Lasky (2005) argues that teacher identity is “how teachers define themselves to themselves and to others” (p. 901). A major feature of teachers’ self-definitions, or identities, is their dynamic nature. In contrast to traditional deterministic views of identity which are promoted in essentialist theories of social reproduction and consider identity to be unitary, static, and internally coherent, a constructivist view of identity conceives of this construct as shifting, flexible, in conflict, and in constant motion (Barrett, 2008; Norton, 1997; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005). In this regard, Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop (2004) explain:

...identity is not a fixed attribute of a person, but a relational phenomenon. Identity development occurs in an intersubjective field and can be best characterized as an ongoing process, a process of interpreting oneself as a certain kind of person and being recognized as such in a given context (Gee, 2001). In this context, then, identity can also be seen as an answer to the recurrent question: “Who am I at this moment?” (p. 108).

The above quote shows that dynamicity of identity is, to a great extent, an outcome of the interaction between person and environment, which are inextricably interconnected and implicate each other. Differently put, identity is shaped and reshaped as a result of the dynamic interactions between factors internal to teachers, such as emotions (Zembylas, 2005), and those external to them, such as sociocultural, institutional, and political elements of the context where they work and live and their experiences of interaction with all relevant stake-holders in this context (Beijaard et al., 2004; Duff & Uchida, 1997). Beijaard, Verloop, and Vermunt (2000) recognise three sets of factors which inform the process of teacher identity formation, namely educational settings where teachers work, including the culture of school and the ecology of classroom, teaching experiences gained through interactions with significant others such as students, colleagues and authorities, and teachers’ personal life experiences and histories. Depending on the relative impact of personal and contextual factors on how teachers define

themselves as teachers, their experience of identity construction is informed, to varying degrees, by their practice of adopting a combination of identities given to, or imposed on, them by the wider context and those they actively claim for themselves, or in Buzzelli and Johnston's (2002) words, *assigned* and *claimed* identities respectively.

The impact of the dynamic interplay between person and context on how an individual comes to define themselves shows that identity is both a product (identity at the moment) and a process (identification) (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). Applied to the context of teaching, this means that a teacher can identify themselves with certain professional roles and features of the teaching profession at a particular point in time. At the same time, depending on the nature and significance of different social factors as manifested in the context and perceived by the teacher and the interactions between these factors and the teacher's internal side, this self-perception alters in ways which are not necessarily predictable. The perceived dynamicity of identity is reflected in scholars' use of phrases such as 'identity formation' (Tsui, 2017), 'identity construction' (Nelson and Temples (2011), 'identity negotiation' (Duff & Uchida, 1997), 'identity work' (Kong, 2014), and 'identity experiences' (Henry, 2016). Indeed, the adjectives assigned to many other teacher-self related constructs, such as 'messy' for teacher beliefs (Pajares, 1992) and 'elusive' for teacher self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), can be used to describe teacher identity.

Teacher Identity and Teacher Education

Compared to other professions, teaching seems to be greatly influenced by teacher identity. Nias (1989) comments, "self image is more important to them [i.e., teachers] as practitioners than is the case in occupations where the person can easily be separated from the craft" (p. 202-203). Scholars have argued for the key place of identity in effective teaching. Palmer (1998) believes, "good teaching cannot be reduced to technique; good teaching comes from the identity and integrity of the teacher" (p. 10). Studies have shown that identity greatly impacts on different aspects of teachers' practice, such as decision making (Bullough, 1997), teaching quality (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996), creativity and autonomy (Singh & Richards, 2006), efficiency in coping with unfavourable working conditions (M. Moore & Hofman, 1988), and willingness to deal with changes and practice innovative ideas (C. Day, 2002).

In proposing a holistic approach to teacher education, Korthagen (2004) argues that changes in teachers' teaching practice, competencies, and beliefs are informed by changes in their identities. Sachs (2005) presents a similar argument about teacher identity which, to her, "stands at the core of the teaching profession" and "provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of 'how to act' and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society" (p. 15). The process of learning to teach, thus, has come to be regarded as primarily a process of identity construction rather than knowledge acquisition (Kanno & Stuart, 2011; H. T. Nguyen, 2008; Varghese et al., 2005). Regarding the centrality of identity formation to the process of learning to teach, more than two decades ago Britzman (1991) commented, "learning to teach – like teaching itself – is always the process of becoming: a time of formation and transformation, of scrutiny into what one is doing, and who one can become" (p. 8). The efficacy of teacher education, thus, is believed to be largely determined by how it fosters teacher identity development (Singh & Richards, 2006).

Inspired by the growing recognition of teacher identity as a key aspect of teacher learning and the arguments encouraging a major focus on identity in TESOL teacher education, an increasing body of research has been emerging around the world on how teachers negotiate their identities in teacher education. This research area has gradually gained momentum over the last two decades, with most studies published since 2010. Some of the studies have explored entire teacher education programs as a space for teacher identity construction (e.g., M. Clarke, 2008; Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016), while others have focused on how teachers negotiate their identities as they engage with specific components of teacher education. Some of these components are practicum (e.g., Henry, 2016; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Trent, 2013), collaborative activities (e.g., Farrell, 2011; Morton & Gray, 2010), electronic tools of teacher learning (e.g., Delahunty, 2012; Trent & Shroff, 2013), and research assignments (e.g., Trent, 2010c, 2012). Another focus adopted in this literature is the process of identity formation experienced by teachers with Languages Other than English (LOTE) backgrounds as they learn to teach in English-speaking contexts (e.g., Kong, 2014; H. T. M. Nguyen & Sheridan, 2016). Finally, some researchers have studied how teachers negotiate their identities as relating to teaching different language skills (e.g., Burri, Chen, & Baker, 2017; Gardiner-Hyland, 2014b).

These studies, which are discussed in detail in Chapter 2, show that the process of identity formation as experienced by teacher learners is a highly dynamic process. While reporting relatively varied findings, the studies unanimously indicate that teacher identity negotiation is

informed by a complex interplay between the identities with which teacher learners enter teacher education, the often conflictual pedagogical approaches presented to them in the university coursework and practicum contexts, their interactions with their peers, practicum mentors, and teacher educators, and their encounters with different academic and sociocultural norms in the wider context.

Research Gaps and the Significance of Addressing Them

As mentioned above, L2 teacher identity research has been around for just over two decades. During this period, several aspects of TESOL teacher education as a space for teacher identity formation have been explored, with practicum having received most attention. While celebrating this extensive focus on practicum, one cannot help noticing that limited attention has been paid to the potential of the university coursework for fostering teacher identity negotiation (Gardiner-Hyland, 2014b; Lee, 2013). This is despite the fact that coursework constitutes a major teacher education component where teacher learners spend most of their time learning to teach. Furthermore, most studies are of a macro-analytical nature in that they have explored evolutionary patterns of identity negotiation across long timescales, such as entire programs of teacher education (M. Clarke, 2008), units (Burri et al., 2017), practicum placements (Kanno & Stuart, 2011), and research assignments (Trent, 2012). Limited focus has been given to teacher learners' in-the-moment identity experiences in shorter timescales. Specifically, little research has been conducted on how teachers engage in identity work in conversations in the teacher education classroom (e.g., Morton & Gray, 2010), despite strong connections recognised between dialogue and teacher identity construction in the mainstream literature (e.g., Parr & Chan, 2015). Connections between such identity experiences and more macro identity shifts across longer durations have not been examined in more than few studies either (e.g., Henry, 2016), although a combined micro- and macro-analytical approach has been promoted as providing deep insights into the process of teacher identity formation (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011; Klimstra et al., 2010). Additionally, most of the published research is situated in pre-service education (e.g., Yayli, 2012; R. Yuan & Lee, 2014), with a limited number of studies focusing on graduate programs (e.g., Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Lee, 2013). Given the career-long nature of teacher identity formation (Mitchell & Mitchell, 2005; Mockler, 2011) and the substantial and complex ways in which teacher learners in these programs negotiate their identities (Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Lee, 2013), it is important to study teacher identity in graduate teacher education more extensively. Finally, while the 'language teacher' role of

teacher learners has received extensive attention in the L2 teacher identity literature, their ‘language analyst’ role has not been duly focused on as an aspect of their identities. The few studies which include this focus do not go beyond reporting teachers’ little attention to their role as language analysts (e.g., Antonek, McCormick, & Donato, 1997; Farrell, 2011). Given the significance of language awareness to effective teaching (Andrews, 1999, 2001; Gießler, 2012; Wright & Bolitho, 1993), studying it from an identity perspective should provide helpful insights into how to support teacher learning in teacher education programs.

The Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The present multi-faceted dissertation addresses the research areas identified above. It explores how teacher learners negotiate their identities in a graduate course of TESOL in a major Western Australian university and how their identity negotiation is fostered or hindered. The overarching research questions then are:

1. How do teacher learners negotiate their teacher identities in a TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education?
2. How is teacher identity negotiation fostered or hindered in the TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education?

To answer these questions, the study integrates a micro-analysis of conversations in the teacher education classroom to explore teacher learners’ in-the-moment identity experiences with a macro-analysis of interviews conducted with teacher learners early and late in the course to identify shifts in their identities. To further explore the potential of the course for fostering teacher identity formation and its limitations in this regard, it also incorporates an analysis of the course documents. Additionally, the analysis of the documents, the interviews, and one set of the classroom conversations includes a focus on teacher learners’ negotiation of the ‘language analyst’ identity.

The next chapter reports on a review of the research on L2 teacher identity, specifically focusing on teacher identity negotiation in the context of TESOL teacher education.

Thesis Structure

This thesis consists of 11 chapters. The present chapter provided a short introduction to the whole research project. Chapter 2 reports on a review of the literature on teacher identity in TESOL teacher education, which is the context of the research. Wenger's (1998) *Communities of Practice (CoP)* is the theoretical lens adopted in this thesis. To establish its relevance to teacher identity and teacher education, Chapter 3 presents a review of empirical and theoretical pieces in which major learning concepts in CoP have been drawn upon to foster teacher learning and identity formation. These concepts have been used, to varying degrees, in the discussion of the findings, both in each of the findings chapters (Chapters 5-9) and in the final discussion (Chapter 10). Chapter 4 explains the research methodology.

Five chapters are allocated to the qualitative studies done within this research project. Chapters 5 to 7 which accommodate observation data focus on how interlocutors engage in identity negotiation through dialogue in the teacher education classroom. Chapter 5 reports on an investigation into the interactional dynamics of two example exchanges in which the teacher learners critically examine the teacher educator's ideas within a dialogical atmosphere. They thus engage in identity negotiation around the notion of co-learning. Chapter 6 focuses on another set of conversations which share a focus on language use and thus serve as a space for teacher learners' identity negotiation as relating to their 'language analyst' role. Chapter 7 reports on a sample conversation following teacher learners' experience of fulfilling an information gap task. This conversation involves their imaginative reflection on different aspects of teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) as prompted by their experience with the task. The analysis of the interviews with some of the teacher learners is focused on in Chapter 8, where identity shifts across the course are focused on. This is followed by a report on the analysis of the course documents in Chapter 9, which sheds further light on the potential of the course for fostering teacher identity negotiation. The findings of these five qualitative studies are integrated in a final discussion in Chapter 10. Chapter 11 concludes the thesis with a focus on the implications of the findings, reflections on the methodological choices made in this research, and suggestions for future studies .

Four of the chapters in this dissertation (i.e., 3, 5, 6, & 7) have been written in the form of papers that are under review in different journals. As explained above, Chapter 3, which is in the form of a literature review, presents the theoretical lens of the research project. Because of

their paper format, the qualitative studies reported in Chapters 5, 6, and 7 all have introduction and methodology sections. Therefore, the Introduction and Research Methodology chapters of the thesis are relatively short, as they have been written mainly to provide a macro understanding of the whole research project.

The other two qualitative studies reported in Chapters 8 and 9 have been written in the form of traditional chapters. Therefore, they do not have introduction and research methodology sections. However, they include discussion of findings in order to maintain consistency in how the results of data analysis are presented across all five qualitative studies. The details related to their respective methodological aspects, namely participants/materials and data collection and analysis, are discussed in the Research Methodology chapter. Finally, although all qualitative studies include discussion components, their findings are also integrated in Chapter 10, the final discussion component of the thesis.

CHAPTER 2

A REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON TEACHER IDENTITY NEGOTIATION IN TESOL TEACHER EDUCATION

Overview

This chapter presents a review of the literature on L2 teacher identity. This review shows that the research in this area has focused on various aspects of identity that teachers negotiate as they engage in different kinds of contexts. The explored identity aspects include professional, personal, socio-cultural, linguistic, and racial. The contexts in which the process of negotiating these identities has been investigated are workplace, where both novice and experienced teachers have been studied, and teacher education, including pre-service, in-service, and graduate programs. In an attempt to acknowledge the general scope of studies on L2 teacher identity, the chapter starts with a brief review of studies on different aspects of teacher identity and then discusses selected studies on teacher identity construction in the context of workplace. Given the focus of the present research on L2 teacher professional identity formation in teacher education, the chapter proceeds to present an extensive review of studies with a similar focus. A subsequent critical analysis of this group of studies sheds light on the potential existing in this area where further research would contribute to our understanding of the dynamics and complexities of L2 teacher identity construction in teacher education. Specifically focusing on the areas addressed in the present study, this analysis serves as a lead-up to the rest of the chapters which focus on this study.

Multiple aspects of L2 Teacher Identity and Their Interactions

The existing literature indicates researchers' interest in research on different types of identity, such as racial (e.g., Motha, 2006), cultural (e.g., Ha, 2007; Menard-Warwick, 2008), social (e.g., Clark, 2010), sociocultural (e.g., Duff & Uchida, 1997), linguistic (e.g., Jenkins, 2005), and sexual (e.g., Stanley, 2012), as well as their interactions (e.g., Ajayi, 2011; Appleby, 2013; Simon-Maeda, 2004). Three studies focusing on single aspects of teacher identity and one exploring their interactions are reported here as examples. The researcher has deliberately

avoided including a study on professional identity in this section as this aspect of teacher identity becomes the focus of the most extensive section of this chapter, where studies on teacher professional identity in teacher education are discussed.

Motha (2006) conducted a critical feminist ethnography of four female K-12 public school English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers' struggles in negotiating their racial identities in the US. Data were collected through interviews, classroom observations, and afternoon teas with the participants. Using constant comparative methodology to analyse the data, she observed different ways in which the context had impacted the participants' negotiation of their racial identities, such as their professional authority being questioned in classroom or their professional skills being undermined because of their race and gender. In response to these challenges, the participants had dealt with the racism involved in the teaching profession in different ways, like disentangling the notions of White and American in their teaching and legitimising different varieties of world Englishes. They were also observed to have reinforced racism through, for example, delegitimising some vernaculars. Highlighting the racism inherent in TESOL and the essentially racial nature of stake-holders' identities, Motha (2006) puts emphasis on raising ESL teachers' awareness of the implications of their practice and racial discrimination pervading schools and society.

Duff and Uchida (1997) examined the lives of four English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers (two Japanese and two Americans) and their students in an adult EFL program in Japan to explore shifts in teachers' sociocultural identities and the factors associated with those shifts. Within an ethnographic case study framework, they collected data through administering teacher/student questionnaires at the beginning and end of the course, teachers' weekly retrospective journals, classroom observations, field notes, interviews (post-observational and life-history), a review of instructional materials, and the participant-observer's research journal over a six-month period. It was found that the teachers' personal histories had informed their perceptions of their sociocultural identities which were in a constant process of renegotiation due to changing contextual variables, such as instructional materials and students' reactions. The major themes emerging from the data were: the complexity of sociocultural identity formation, cultural transmission, and change, the pursuit of interpersonal and intercultural connection, and the desire for educational and personal control. The discussion of these themes shows how biographical, professional and contextual factors may interact to foreground, background, and transform different aspects of teachers' sociocultural identities. The authors

recommend further investigation into the processes of L2 teacher socialisation and sociocultural identity negotiation and the contextual factors which impact on these processes.

Jenkins (2005) explored the linguistic identities of eight language proficient female non-native speaker (NNS) teachers of English, whose teaching experience ranged from preservice to 17 years. Through interviews about their attitudes to pronunciation and accent, she found that some had positive and some had negative attitudes to their own English accent, with one not having thought about it. However, most of them liked the idea of their accents' being mistaken for a native speaker's. Their concern over having a native-like accent emerged again when all recalled negative experiences related to their NNS status and some talked about their preference for teaching native rather than ELF (English as a lingua franca) accents. As an implication of these findings, Jenkins argues that, if teachers see that an ELF identity contributes to rather than endanger their and their students' future socioeconomic prospects internationally, they may favour ELF pronunciation.

In her focus on multiple aspects of nine EFL teachers' identities in Japan, Simon-Maeda (2004) conducted life history interviews with them to explore how their personal, sexual, cultural, linguistic, and professional identities were influenced by sociocultural factors and their own efforts in dealing with them. To be more specific, the participants' personal backgrounds, colour, NNS status, and work environments, the social norms with regard to a woman's circumstances and sexual orientation, and the way they made sense of them informed their negotiating identities as teachers in different ways. For example, engagement in AIDS activism in addition to teaching had led one of the participants to appreciate the significance of choosing materials which would make the EFL curriculum more meaningful. Having been mistakenly considered a child with learning difficulties affected another participant's approach to identifying learners' different styles of learning. In light of these findings, the author concludes that "[c]losely examining teachers' stories enables TESOL professionals to uncover the field's political and ideological underpinnings and rework them toward more progressive ends" (p. 431).

These studies show that interactions between teachers' personal and cultural backgrounds and professional practices as well as the sociocultural context where they work inform their identity negotiation. This has led the researchers to emphasise the significance of further exploration of

these complex interactions and heightening teachers' and other stake-holders' awareness of this complexity with a view to improving policy and practice in L2 teacher education.

L2 Teacher Identity Formation in the Workplace

Several studies have explored the process of identity construction in the context of work. Some have focused on novice teachers' identity negotiation, while some have explored experienced teachers' experience of identity formation.

Novice Teachers' Identity Formation

The studies on novice teachers have traced the trajectories of identity construction from stages as early as schooling (Trent & DeCoursey, 2011), through pre-service education (Xu, 2013), to the induction phase of their teaching career. The two studies reported below are examples of the researchers' attempts to capture a long-term process of shaping and reshaping identity, from prior to teaching to as long as four years, in the case of Ruohotie-Lyhty (2013), and six years, in the case of Tsui (2007), of participants' involvement in teaching.

Ruohotie-Lyhty (2013) investigated Finnish teachers' individual differences in experiencing the induction phase through focusing on two L2 teachers (Taina and Suvi) who had contrasting experiences in the first years in the profession. In line with a narrative approach, the participants' essays written prior to full-time teaching, four interviews, reflective essays and informal e-mail messages collected during their first four years in the profession constituted the data of this study and were subjected to paradigmatic and narrative analysis and the analysis of episodes. Before entering the profession, Taina's narrative mainly signified concern about best methods of language teaching, whereas Suvi's displayed a focus on a good relationship with pupils, colleagues and authorities. After starting to teach, Taina's narratives were characterised by disappointment caused by failures to teach innovatively, shock resulting from pupils' behaviour and lack of interest, guilt and betrayal. Despite grappling with similar challenges, Suvi's narrative reflected an easy beginning and a strong sense of autonomy and problem solving. No considerable qualitative changes were observed in the second and third years of their teaching. In the fourth year, Taina was still uncertain and lacked confidence about her way of teaching and, thus, was trying to teach like other teachers, while she was more hopeful. Suvi, on the other hand, felt confident about her teaching effectiveness. Enjoying a

sense of achievement and professional development, she was able to internalise and practice the principles she had started with. The findings inspire the author to highlight the significance of “[u]nderstanding teachers’ induction from the perspective of a possible identity crisis” which “can open up ways of supporting newly qualified teachers in their professional development, both during their teacher studies and during the induction phase” (p. 127).

Over a slightly longer period of time, Tsui (2007) conducted a narrative inquiry of how legitimacy of access to practice (re)shaped a Chinese EFL teacher’s identity in his first six years of teaching. When offered the teaching post, Minfang’s grade was not the highest, he did not have a master’s degree, and he was told his eligibility for the position had been controversial. In the first two years of teaching, Minfang developed an identity of marginality because he was not considered a competent teacher as he was teaching the least favoured classes of listening, was reminded of his “disgraceful history”, did not have a master’s degree, and was told that he had to be “grateful” for the position. He started to develop a stronger sense of membership in the department when he was given communicative classes to teach and, more importantly, tried to show that this access was legitimate by demonstrating his skills and abilities and obtaining a master’s degree. Based on these observations, the author argued that there are two major sources of identity construction, namely “recognition of competence valued by a community and legitimacy of access to practice [which] are mutually constitutive” (p. 675).

The above findings are particularly insightful because they focus on the induction phase which is perhaps the most challenging stage of a teacher’s career and therefore described by phrases like ‘culture shock’ experienced by a ‘stranger in a new land’ (Sabar, 2004), and ‘baptism by fire’ (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002). Still, some other researchers have focused on experienced L2 teachers’ identity.

Experienced Teachers’ Identity Formation

How experienced L2 teachers negotiate their identities in the workplace has been studied in diverse ways. Trent (2010d) studied how teachers’ construction of their identities impacts the possibility of collaboration between ESL and content teachers. Yoo (2011) looked at ways in which negative perceptions of early-career experiences can cause a sense of powerlessness in the long run and how this can be resolved. And Liu and Xu (2011) explored the complexity of

identity formation of teachers who teach in settings where traditional and progressive pedagogical approaches coexist. Three other studies, which represent similar diversity in terms of their foci and contexts (i.e., EFL and ESL), are reported in detail below.

Ostovar Namaghi (2009) explored the effects of contextual constraints, namely predetermined education, evaluation, and in-service teacher education systems, on teachers' professional lives in Iranian high schools. Following the guidelines of grounded theory, he interviewed five experienced EFL male teachers from different high schools in Mashhad. Iterative data collection and analysis resulted in the emergence of the core theme of "rationalised identity". This theme highlights the controlling effect of external factors and consequences of teachers' actions on their teaching and adoption of a highly conformist approach to their professional practice. Rationalised identity subsumed three major roles of Iranian high school EFL teachers: passive recipients of information in in-service teacher education, information transmitters in teaching, and cool implementers in planning whose practice is detached from their knowledge and expertise. The author concludes that working in an educational system where instrumental goals take priority over teacher empowerment and autonomy poses constraints on teachers' identity negotiation.

Following a similarly critical approach to EFL teacher identity development, Gao (2012) investigated the self-identification of sixteen experienced Chinese language teachers (seven males and nine females) in two Hong Kong secondary schools. Interviews and classroom observations were conducted focusing on L2 instruction and cultural transmission. The qualitative analysis of the data yielded two major roles: "linguistic torchbearer and instructor of basic language knowledge" (p. 93) and "cultural transmissioner and indoctrinator of Confucian values" (p. 94). The first role was the result of limited linguistic skills among South Asian families as perceived by the participants, and the second role emerged from their emphasis on teachers' being responsible for acculturating and socializing South Asian learners into the Chinese value system. These perceptions led the teachers to stereotype learners as academic underachievers and reinforce a deficiency approach to them. The author characterises teachers' negotiation and enactment of their professional and sociocultural identities with complexities and paradoxes. Therefore, he concludes that in-depth analysis of teacher identity is an important prerequisite to helping teachers become aware of their likely tendency to reinforce a discourse of othering and hegemony when treating language minority students.

J. Brown (2005), who has not identified the setting of the study, conducted interviews with 20 teachers focusing on their reasons for entering and continuing in the ESL teaching profession. 13 had selected ESL teaching in pre-service teacher education and the rest had shifted to ESL after teaching in other areas. The data analysis guided by grounded theory indicated that the former had decided to train as ESL teachers mainly because of lack of alternative options, future career plans, location of teaching positions, and chance. Their major teacher roles, they believed, were assisting students to deal with language problems and supporting them generally. The latter had shifted to ESL teaching because of the availability of part-time positions, administrators' willingness to give classes to "any teacher available" (p. 15), and escaping from large classes and disruptive students. The more positive reasons they referred to were the perceived usefulness of ESL compared to other areas, contributing to students' lives, and rapport between teachers and students. The participants were all enthusiastic about teaching ESL because, to them, compared to other subjects, their creativity was less restricted, they were more useful in their current roles, ESL students were more admirable and appreciative, and there were more discipline and less disruption.

The studies reported above present several insights into the process of teacher identity formation: different aspects of teacher identity vary in terms of how flexible or stable they are, and in similar working conditions, teachers experience relatively different processes of identity formation (Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2013); contextual constraints and the dominant value system might adversely affect teachers' identities; for example, they may lead teachers to conform to the status quo (Ostovar Namaghi, 2009) and stereotype learners (Gao, 2012); yet, teachers can play an active role in renegotiating their identities (Tsui, 2007).

L2 Teacher Identity Formation in Teacher Education

In this section of the chapter, a representative sample of the studies conducted on L2 teacher identity formation in the context of teacher education are reviewed. Most of these studies have been published since 2010, with a handful published in 1990s and 2000s. Regarding the type of teacher education programs, most of these studies are situated within pre-service courses, with some reporting on how teachers negotiate their professional identities in graduate courses. With regard to the foci adopted in these studies, some have examined how teacher learners negotiate their identities as they engage in learning to teach in teacher education programs. While these studies have treated teacher education programs in their entirety as a space for

teacher learners' identity negotiation, most studies have focused on specific components of teacher education and how teacher learners negotiate their identities as they engage with those components. Given the particular importance attached to student teaching experiences afforded by practicum placements, most of the studies have explored different aspects of identity formation in this context. Inspired by the socially negotiated nature of identity, several studies have specifically focused on how teacher learners negotiate their identities in collaborative spaces, like group meetings and lesson planning conferences. Another group of studies have explored teacher learners' experience of identity formation as they engage with electronic tools of teacher education, like online discussion forums and e-portfolios. Increasing attention to engaging teachers in research has manifested itself in a few investigations of how teacher learners' research experience within teacher education programs may contribute to their identity construction. Given the persistently increasing number of L2 teachers with LOTE backgrounds, most of the studies in the abovementioned categories explore the identity development of this group of teacher learners. Still, some have adopted the additional lens of how the experience of teacher learning in English-speaking contexts may inform the identity formation of this group of teachers. Finally, the researcher's literature search yielded a few investigations of L2 teachers' identity negotiation as relating to teaching different language skills. These categories of studies are explained in the rest of this section in the same order as introduced here.

Before focusing on these studies, however, a point related to how the researcher classified the studies is worth noting. As mentioned above, most of the studies have focused on identity formation within the context of practicum. In some of these studies, the authors have focused on the entirety of practicum experience as relating to teacher identity negotiation. These studies are reported in the first category below. Some other studies, while situated within a practicum context, investigate identity formation as relating to specific aspects of the student teaching experience, such as peer collaboration (Dang, 2013) and using electronic portfolios (Trent & Shroff, 2013). These studies have been classified based on such specific foci and thus reported in other categories.

Teacher Identity Formation throughout Programs of Teacher Education

It was mentioned above that some studies have treated teacher education programs in their entirety as a space for teacher learners' identity negotiation. The studies of this nature which

the researcher identified have been conducted in different contexts, ranging from Finland (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016), through UAE (M. Clarke, 2008), Hong Kong, and China (Gu & Benson, 2015), to US (Vitanova, 2016). Three of these studies each featuring a different context are reported here.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, M. Clarke (2008) is the only book-long report on a study of L2 teacher identity. To do its highly extensive and elaborate analysis justice, the report presented of it here is longer than those on the other studies which follow. Situated in UAE, this study explored how six Emirati women negotiated their teacher identities in a Bachelor of Education in Teaching English to Young Learners. The data consisted of focus groups and online discussion forums collected over the final two years of the program and analysed using discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1992, 2003) and Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998). First, the author explored the participants' experiences of identity negotiation through investigating some of the ways in which the participants formed a community of practice. In discussing the participants' choice of teaching as an act of belonging, Clarke identified the factors which informed their career choice to be their family influences, the dominant discourses of gender in UAE which presented teaching as an appropriate career for women, inspirational role models to follow, negative role models to surpass, and English itself as an increasingly global language and a source of prestige. Clarke proceeds to focus on evolving forms of mutual engagement among the participants. These included the student teachers' offers of assistance and support to each other during their studies, collegial empathy, cumulative development of topics and questions in their exchanges, and their detailed responses to points made by their peers. Regarding their practice of alignment, the author reports the participants' varied experiences with the wider communities of practice. Different opportunities were recognised as affording such experiences. These included their engagement with educational resources and materials originating in different education communities including university and practicum schools and the literature on education which they drew upon for their research and writing projects. Their interactions with supervising college teachers and supervising school teachers and their successful and unsuccessful brokering of new practices to school communities were some of the other means through which they negotiated alignment. Finally, the student teachers were observed to engage in imagination through reflection on their past, present, and future and creation of future possibilities based on the experience of here and now.

In the rest of the book, the author reports how the student teachers negotiated their identities at three levels of discursive construction, namely systems of knowledge and beliefs, intrapersonal identity, and interpersonal relations. Regarding their systems of knowledge and beliefs, the student teachers were found to be constructing a dichotomy of the ‘new’ teachers of the present and future versus the ‘traditional’ teachers of the past. They associated concepts like insensitivity and cruelty, learners as empty vessels, teacher-centeredness, and passive learning with the former, and sensitivity and kindness, learners as presenting individual styles, strengths and needs, learner-centeredness, and active learning with the latter. The chapter focused on discursive construction of intrapersonal identity is based on the analysis of one participant’s experiences, since she was elaborate in her accounts and passionate in what she said. The author’s analysis was guided by a focus on the instances of this participant’s commitment to truth, commitment to necessity, and moral commitments. The analysis showed that this participant was negotiating her identity as a teacher based on advocacy of contemporary educational discourses and disapproval of the status quo in the UAE school system, including school teachers’ and supervisors’ traditional mindsets. The key concepts from contemporary discourses of education which informed her identity negotiation included cooperative learning, student engagement, creating a respectful and secure classroom climate, catering for the individual needs of learners who are ‘tender plants’ rather than ‘empty vessels’, and teacher collaboration. Some features of the dominant education system in UAE that she distanced herself from were corporal punishment, criticising students publicly, and discrimination between national teachers and those from overseas who were given special places to sit separately. Clarke analysed the student teachers’ discursive construction of their interpersonal relations in light of how their negotiation of a sense of community informed their self-definition as teachers. He reports different instances of the community’s discourse being constructed. These include explicit statements of agreement, statements made by one member which include other community members, encouraging peers to maintain the educational and social commitments of the community, celebrating progress towards an increasingly ‘student-centred’ approach, and reference to a shared future agenda focused on sensitivity to learners. A few of the participants were also observed to problematise and move beyond the ‘new’ versus ‘traditional’ education binary underpinning the community’s discourse. Based on these findings, Clarke highlights the sophisticated nature of how the participants negotiated their identities as follows:

[the] wholehearted and passionate enthusiasm with which the student

teachers have embraced the discourses of ‘new’ or ‘progressive’ education that they have encountered during their degree, cannot be separated from the strength of the interpersonal relations among members of the community, nor can the strength of these shared beliefs and the bond between the community’s members be separated from the vivid forcefulness of many of the students’ individual teaching identities (p. 184).

Problematising most participants’ tendency to construct “an oppositional affiliation with regard to the government schools and teachers, which at times spills over into hostility and antagonism” (p. 185), the author recommends that teacher education programs promote agonism as an alternative to antagonism. He argues that this can happen through helping student teachers to combine a questioning approach to government school teachers’ pedagogical practice with an empathetic understanding of their job-related challenges, to recognise their similarities while focusing on differences, and to work in the collaborative atmosphere of an inclusive learning community.

In a very different context, Finland, Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2016) report on eight teacher learners’ identity formation through participation in a teacher education program aimed at preparing teachers to teach English as a foreign language in the lower comprehensive school. The data consisted of each participant’s three narratives about the issues significant to their understanding of and experiences with English, that they wrote at the beginning and the end of the first semester and at the end of the second year. Each student teacher also wrote two reports from teaching practice which consisted of observation and teaching. Data analysis of these accounts showed that the participants displayed expansive, reductive, and attentive forms of identity-agency. The expansive forms of identity-agency were taking a new direction, gaining confidence, taking responsibility, and developing pedagogical thinking. Reductive forms of identity-agency consisted of losing confidence, rejecting new ideas, and considering new ideas as having limited benefits. Attentive forms of identity-agency were observed in the participants’ active monitoring of their environment, problematising their original beliefs, recognising new possibilities in alternative beliefs, and pondering future options. The authors attributed these shifts to different factors, including practical teaching experiences, new theoretical knowledge provided in the coursework, the amount of support the student teachers provided to each other, the experience of overcoming difficulties, high expectations of personal development, and tensions between these expectations and what happened. Highlighting the relational nature of identity formation, the authors emphasise the important role of the group

in teacher education and the significance of considering this role in teacher education programs so that they serve as a rich context for professional development.

In a comparative study on teacher education in mainland China and Hong Kong, Gu and Benson (2015) studied two pre-service programs in two teacher education universities in these contexts. Seven student teachers from Hong Kong and nine from mainland China participated in focus group and individual interviews. The authors analysed the data from a Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) perspective. They found that the participants' engagement with the studies and interpersonal interactions in the two settings informed their understanding of teaching English and themselves as teachers. The focus on theory and proficiency training in the mainland China program led the students to position themselves mainly as English learners and, to a lesser degree, as English teachers. The Hong Kong students who went through a more practical curriculum with more teaching practice opportunities experienced a smoother transition from language learner identities to language teacher identities. They also came to clearly favour an interactive, rather than a teacher-fronted, teaching approach. The other group, however, struggled over whether to adopt traditional methods or follow a communicative approach. Most of the mainland participants were found to have aligned themselves with a discourse of 'standard' language, while most of their Hong Kong counterparts favoured diversity in English use. Both groups set up binaries between the traditional and communicative teaching approaches, otherising in-service teachers as old and traditional. Both imagined a future where they could teach in their own unique ways and would not have to teach to the test. The authors argue that the participants' dichotomous views of teaching would limit the possibilities for their future collaboration with the more experienced school teachers. Thus, like Clarke, they recommend promoting an agonistic alternative to this antagonism in order to help teachers move beyond disagreements and accept other teachers' legitimacy despite their differences. Incorporating procedures into teacher education which facilitate student teachers' smooth transition from a learner identity to a teacher identity and shift away from a standard English discourse and towards a more diversity-oriented view of language are among the other implications of this study.

The above three studies present a highly dynamic, multi-faceted, and complex picture of teacher identity formation in teacher education. M. Clarke (2008) and Gu and Benson (2015) explicitly highlight different ways in which student teachers negotiate their identities through engagement, alignment, and imagination. They also expose student teachers' tendency to

develop antagonistic binaries through their reflections on different styles of teaching, considering their own modern and learner-centred and those of experienced school teachers as old and traditional. In both studies, an agonistic alternative is recommended to be adopted in teacher education programs so that student teachers develop a more sophisticated understanding of teaching, acknowledge their experienced colleagues' views, and as a result work with them in a collaborative atmosphere. The importance of peer collaboration and community-building is also emphasised by Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2016) who report different identity trajectories experienced by their participants which are partly informed by how they interact with their classmates.

Teacher Identity Formation During Practicum

As mentioned earlier, many of the reviewed studies have focused on L2 teachers' experience of identity formation within the context of practicum. These studies cast light on the significance of this space to teacher identity negotiation through different findings. Some of these findings reflect positive experiences of identity negotiation, like the development of an increasingly strong teacher identity towards the end of practicum placements (Kanno & Stuart, 2011). Yet, several findings reflect challenges involved in this process, such as perceived conflicts between the progressive pedagogical discourses presented in the theoretical coursework and the more traditional views of teaching promoted in practicum placements schools (Trent, 2013). Highlighting the problematic nature of teacher learners' view of these types of discourses as mutually exclusive, some of the studies also report how some participants manage to reappropriate and integrate them into their teaching practice as they progress through their placements (e.g., He & Lin, 2013). Still, some expose the persistence of a sense of uncertainty in how some teacher learners view themselves as teachers till the end of their student teaching experience (e.g., Henry, 2016). A detailed description of selected studies is presented in the rest of this section.

To address the gap in research on the long-term development of L2 teacher identity, Kanno and Stuart (2011) conducted a qualitative analysis of how two American novice ESL teachers enrolled in a master's program of TESOL defined themselves as teachers. These two participants' learning process was explored across three 10-week periods of teaching assistantship in the university's ESL centre. Following Varghese et al.'s (2005) and Cross's (2010) advocacy of a combined focus on narrated and enacted teacher identities, the researchers

collected data from multiple sources, namely interviews, reflective journals, classroom observations, video-recorded classes, stimulated recalls, and documents. The data were analysed from a situated learning perspective (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The analysis shows that while the participants' classroom practice shaped their identities in different ways, their changing identities also shaped their teaching practice. As for the former, what helped the participants become language teachers was the intense and long teaching opportunities. Experiencing the whole cycle of an ESL course multiple times helped them identify important areas of their teaching and improve in those areas. These opportunities helped them develop their basic pedagogical skills and their subject matter knowledge. The two novices' changing identities in turn had impacts on their teaching practice. Not regarding themselves initially as teachers resulted in their inadequate teacher authority and ineffective classroom management. However, developing a stronger teacher identity led to the participants' acting more firmly in class, holding students more accountable for their learning, and not viewing students' performance as necessarily reflecting their worth as teachers. Yet, the authors also identified a weakening of the participants' genuine commitment to students that they had expressed early on in their teaching practice. Their "growing self-identification as teachers over time meant, on the flip side, that they increasingly saw themselves less as one of the students" and came to "notice more faults with the students" (p. 248). Based on these findings, the authors promote a view of teacher learning as mainly a process of identity development, with knowledge acquisition as a part, and encourage redefining L2 teacher education in this line.

In Turkey, Yayli (2012) explored 21 pre-service teachers' professional language use during a practicum, which she took as reflective of their negotiating membership in the teaching profession. She used Gee's (2005) proposed notions of social languages and D/discourses and Freeman's (1993) concepts of renaming experience/reconstructing practice to analyse multiple datasets, namely the student teachers' weekly field notes and reflective reports, their written responses to open-ended questions at the end of the semester, and her own observational notes. Before their teaching practice, the teachers' language featured examples of local language mostly originating from their beliefs and experiences as language learners and included many instances of emotion-laden phrasings. After their practicum started, the teachers' language use became increasingly professional and appropriate to the context of the program. Yet, their shift from using their own local language to adopting a professional language was limited by their limited success in establishing connections between their teaching experiences and the discussions in the coursework. Regarding how the participants saw themselves as teachers,

they initially made highly positive remarks about their teaching expertise. However, the data collected towards the end of the semester showed that some had grown less optimistic about their teaching skills and more actively voiced concerns about their ability to teach. On the contrary, some considered themselves to be ready to teach, a readiness they attributed to participation in the teacher education course, teaching practice, and their adequate command of English. In light of the achievements and limitations observed in her participants' learning, the researcher calls for refining the practicum model used in the teacher education programs in Turkey in several respects, including longer durations of internships to facilitate prospective teachers' connecting theory and practice and helping teacher educators to improve their own use of professional language.

In Hong Kong, Trent (2013) reports on the process of identity negotiation that eight Chinese student teachers went through during a six-week practicum in their third year of a Bachelor of Education program. Three interviews were conducted with each of the student teachers before, in the middle, and at the end of the practicum. The results of the first round of the interviews showed that the student teachers had strongly committed themselves to developing the types of identity which were in line with the principles of communicative language teaching. In the second set of interviews, the participants mentioned identity positions they had been assigned during their practicum experience which were inconsistent with their preferred teacher identities. These assigned identity positions included "very traditional teacher", "spoon feeder", and "controller", which the participants linked with their concurrent 'student teacher' identity. This link, the researcher argues, suggests a perceived sense of powerlessness associated with being a student teacher. However, the third round of interviews showed that some of the student teachers made attempts to engage in practices which helped them realise their favoured "communicative teacher" identity and see benefits such as student satisfaction. In their exercise of agency, the participants were faced with limitations, such as the strong resistance of the practicum schools, and its consequences, like conflicts with their supporting teachers. The researcher argues that such interpersonal conflicts may be the reason behind feelings of uncertainty about teaching as a career observed on the part of some participants. The author also problematises the antagonistic relations that the participants come to, and are made to, consider as existing between the negotiated identity positions, such as "traditional teacher" and "communicative teacher". He builds on this finding to stress the importance of helping stakeholders to analyse and deconstruct dichotomous conceptions of teaching they may have internalised. To facilitate this critical analysis, he proposes different measures like teacher

support groups, where stake holders can engage in different forms of professional development, such as peer observation and meetings to discuss teaching approaches and student teachers' student teaching experiences.

In a similar context, He and Lin (2013) conducted an ethnographic case study in which they investigated a Chinese pre-service teacher's identity negotiation in a context of school–university partnership. Drawing on Activity Theory and critical post-structuralist identity theories, they conceptualise the teacher's practicum experience as boundary-crossing between the two activity systems of the university community and the school community. Within this conceptual framework, they explore the interpersonal relations and tensions in school–university partnership, and how these tensions impact pre-service teacher identity development. The data consisted of video-recorded English lessons taught by the teacher, audio-recorded conversations between student teachers and mentors, observation field notes, two semi-structured interviews with the student teacher, her lesson plans and reflective reports, and documents related to the practicum. While the teaching methodology courses that the participant had attended at the university had promoted progressive approaches to teaching EFL as an alternative to teacher-fronted methods, she and her peers had been presented with the latter by their mentor in the practicum. Although the participant was critical of the mentor's traditional view of teaching, she could not create and maintain an interactive atmosphere in her lessons in her early teaching practice. The students did not respond well to her plans, she had to cover a heavy 'must-teach' content, and as a manager of the class, she suffered a lack of authority without the mentor's support. Consequently, she gradually adopted the mentor's style, which led to her relative disappointment by her success in engaging students. Her later lessons involved her trying to improve the teaching-learning process without violating the school policies. While more or less following those policies, this teacher communicated with her students more outside the class and designed activities in which they developed and shared their learning plans, among other things that she did to incorporate her university learning into her teaching. This she came to call her 'own style.' The authors consider this participant's practicum journey "an example of a student teacher's 'arguing for (MacLure 1993) her identity and exercising her creative agency to break through the impasse imposed by the unhelpful essentialist opposition between 'progressive' and 'traditional' pedagogical discourses (Lin and Luk 2002)" (p. 214). They propose a critical and ethical approach to L2 teacher education to help student teachers make similar attempts.

Similarly adopting a single-case study design, Henry (2016) examined the mechanisms through which shifts in a pre-service teacher's identity take place during a practicum in the west of Sweden. Adopting Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (Byrne & Callaghan, 2014), he conducted micro-level and macro-level analyses to provide insights into processes of identity construction across short timescales (i.e., specific classroom events) and longer timescales (ranging from the duration of a day to that of the whole practicum). Using Hermans' (2008) theory of the dialogical self, the researcher combined intrapersonal data, collected through retrospective interviews, with interpersonal data, gathered from posts on an online forum and a stimulated recall discussion. The findings show the participant's rather constant foregrounding and backgrounding of two mutually contradictory I-positions, namely "an extra person but not a teacher" and "someone who wants to work with and help young people". These shifts reflected the pre-service teacher's persistent uncertainty about whether teaching suits her and she wants to become a teacher. Observed in all timescales captured in the study, these shifts were found to have been facilitated by different factors. These included internal factors, such as her perceptions of future possibilities, and external factors, like the presence of her mentor when she was teaching and her desirable and (un)desirable student teaching experiences (e.g., being able to foster a sense of community in her classes and having to deal with inequitable assessment practices). In light of these identity transformations which the researcher sees as simultaneously dynamic and consistent, the author concludes that in teacher education:

in addition to "identity-targeted" activities, such as journaling and the creation of personal profiles, there is also a need to take account of identity development in activities where it is not immediately focal. Because a student's experience of becoming a teacher can be just as salient when carrying out an instructional task, it becomes necessary to make space for identity exploration across the full range of educational activities (p. 303).

The studies described above present a dynamic and sophisticated picture of how L2 student teachers negotiate their identities during their practicum teaching experience. First, they all show that teachers' classroom practice and identity shape each other rather than one shaping the other. They highlight the significant impact of different factors on identity formation. These include the length and intensity of opportunities for teaching practice, teacher learners' interactions with mentors and students during this practice, and the perceived future possibilities involved in developing a teaching career. Also important are pedagogical discourses dominating practicum schools, the conflicts between these discourses and those promoted in the university classes, and how well teacher learners exercise a creative agency to

establish connections and a compromise between these discourses. Other important aspects of identity formation that these studies report are gaining confidence in one's teaching knowledge and abilities and developing an increasingly professional language. The undesirable shifts reported in teachers' identities include a weakening of their genuine commitment to students, decreased optimism about their teaching skills, and maintaining a sense of uncertainty as to whether they want to pursue a teaching career.

Teacher Identity Formation in Collaborative Spaces

Given the importance attached to collaboration in teacher development (Butler, Lauscher, Jarvis-Selinger, & Beckingham, 2004; Musanti & Pence, 2010), several researchers have focused on how teachers negotiate their identities as they engage in collaborative spaces. Such spaces are highly varied and those investigated in the studies reported below include paired-placements, interactions with practicum mentors, group meetings, lesson planning conferences, and engagement in critical dialogue. Five studies which represent this diversity are described in detail below.

Dang (2013) focused on how two student teachers' collaboration in a paired-placement informed their identity formation. In line with the explanation in the introductory section of this chapter, although this study is situated within the context of a practicum, it is reported in this category because of its particular focus on peer collaboration. This study was part of a larger research project focused on the teacher learning practices of a cohort of 10 pairs of Vietnamese student teachers in a four-year BEd course at a university in Vietnam. Adopting Activity Theory (Engeström, 2008), the researcher studied one of the 10 dyads who worked in pairs for planning and teaching lessons. Interviews before the practicum and after each lesson, video-recordings and observations of the lessons, and documents such as lesson plans and teaching materials were content analysed. One of the participants in this pair had entered the teacher education program with a teaching background and thus had an established teacher role. The dominant role of the other one was being a student of the program. And both were going through a process of negotiating their emerging role as each other's colleagues. The study showed that the interactions between these emergent and established identities involved tensions. Some of the tensions the participants experienced were in their differing and opposing views of teacher learning, their unequal power relationship, and varying levels of utilisation of pedagogical tools. The participants' collaboration with each other resulted in partial resolution

of these tensions. This collegial collaboration, together with their experiences of interacting with students, the teaching tasks, and their supervising teachers informed the negotiation of their multiple roles as students, colleagues, and (future) teachers. These results highlight the significance of paying attention to the process of collaboration in paired placements in order to enhance conflict resolution and pave the way for productive identity construction.

E. R. Yuan (2016) explored how negative experiences involved in interactions with practicum mentors impacted two pre-service teachers' identity construction in a normal university in China. Interviews during the practicums, video-recorded teaching practice, audio-recorded lesson plan meetings, and the student teachers' weekly journals constituted the data. One of the participants had entered the practicum with the ideal identity of a caring teacher with a communitive approach who caters for learners' needs. Looking forward to working with a 'nice' mentor, he had developed his own ideal identity as an active learner. The mentor, however, turned out to favour traditional methods of teaching and rote learning and required the teacher to work as her "assistant" during the practicum. Considering the mentor a "warden" and the students as "prisoners", the preservice teacher had to become a "follower" of the mentor and therefore her "accomplice". The limited involvement of the university supervisor and the assessment impacts of the practicum inhibited the student teacher's agency and identity construction. The other participant had entered the practicum with the ideal identity of modern and communicative teacher and her lack of teaching experience led her to position herself as the mentor's "apprentice" to learn from her. The mentor turned out to be "distant" from her and treated her as an outsider. The pre-service teacher's limited interactions with students, couple with "mechanical and dull assignments", resulted in her adopting the identity of the mentor's "secretary" and "follower". The mentor's strict control on her teaching style imposed the identity of "spokesman" on her while she aspired to become a "communicative teacher". Her practicum experience and the prospect of working in an exam-oriented system where her colleagues and supervisors would disapprove of a communicative teaching style led her to construct the feared identities of "a mechanical teacher" and "an odd person" isolated in the workplace. Based on these findings, the author highlights the critical role of school mentors, the significant mediating influence of the institutional context on preservice teachers' interactions with mentors and university supervisors, and the great impact of all these factors on teacher identity construction. Close collaboration between school mentors and university supervisors, the author argues, contributes to preservice teachers' identity negotiation.

In Canada, Farrell (2011) studied three native-speaker experienced female teachers' reflections on their professional roles in 12 group meetings which he facilitated over a two-year period. The data consisted of the meetings, follow-up interviews with the teachers on their initial perceptions of their professional role identity that emerged during the meetings, and interviews with three officials from the institution where the teachers worked with a focus on their perceptions of the teachers' roles in that workplace. The inductive analysis of the data yielded three major roles, namely teacher as manager (e.g., vendor and entertainer), teacher as acculturator (e.g., socialiser, social worker, and care provider), and teacher as professional (collaborator, learner, and having knowledge about teaching and subject matter"). A continuum also emerged ranging from ready-made roles, such as vendor, entertainer and care provider, to negotiated roles, such as collaborator, knowledge provider, and learner. Interestingly, the participants did not feel positive about some of the ready-made roles. The major implication of this study was that engagement in reflective practice raises ESL teachers' awareness of their identities, how they have been shaped and by whom, and how they should be further reconstructed during a teacher's career. This awareness, the author argued, can enable teachers to critically examine where they are on the continuum of teacher identity types at different stages of their career and how these identities can be modified if necessary. Finally, Farrell highlights the usefulness of regular discussions in helping teachers avoid the isolation of classroom teaching and reflect on their identities for more effective professional development.

Morton and Gray (2010) explored the development of identity and personal practical knowledge on the part of six student teachers who participated in a part-time CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) course at a British university. Adopting situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and communities of practice (Wenger, 1998) as their theoretical lens, they analysed the transcripts of lesson-planning conferences, where the participants would talk through the lesson plans they had developed for their teaching practice. The sessions involved recurrent cycles of identifying challenges and looking for and evaluating solutions. The student teachers were observed to exercise a high degree of agency in initiating and contributing to the exchanges and had a great share in producing meanings many of which were incorporated into plans for action. Also, they actively used the technical terminology of TESOL to revisit concepts, which they discussed in their input sessions, in their reflections on teaching practice and to verbalise their more tacit understandings. The authors identified different speech acts performed by the student teachers in their meaning production, such as requesting information, making proposals for action, and speculating about what might happen

when they teach based on their lesson plans. They argued that these categories of action fostered the student teachers' exercise of agency and engagement in meaning production, imagination of how their lesson plans may work in the reality of teaching, and alignment with accepted practices of TESOL, which Wenger (1998) has presented as the three modes of identification. Based on these findings, the authors highlight the opportunities of a training course, even as short as a CELTA, for student teachers' meaning production and development of identity and personal practical knowledge.

In the context of Iran, Abednia (2012) explored the contributions of critical/transformational teacher education to seven EFL teachers' professional identity construction. In line with a Freirian persuasion of critical pedagogy, the author designed and implemented an undergraduate unit of L2 teaching methodology with a critical-dialogical approach. The data were generated through two interviews with each teacher prior to and following the unit, their reflective journals, recorded class discussions, and the author's own reflective journals. Three major changes were observed in the participants' identities. First, they were found to have shifted away from conformity to and romanticisation of dominant language teaching ideologies to critical autonomy. Their early tendency to conform to the status quo manifested itself in things like lack of willingness to critically examine institutional rules and instead choosing to obey them. Towards the end of the unit, they had developed a critical view of institutional policies and rules and actively took account of their own values in how they defined their professional responsibilities. The second shift was one from no orientation or an instrumentalist orientation of teaching to a critical and transformational approach. Early in the intervention, a few of the teachers said they had entered teaching for no particular reasons, and the rest were teaching mostly to earn a living and improve their own language skills. Growing critical of mainly financial motivations behind teaching, they later came to mention bringing about positive changes in society and raising students' self-awareness as their major reasons for continuing to teach. Finally, the teacher learners were reported to have distanced themselves from a linguistic and technical view of L2 education and moved towards an educational one. Initially some teachers emphasised language proficiency and knowledge of teaching techniques as keys to being a successful teacher and highlighted helping learners master the language content of their lessons as their major responsibility. Late in the unit, they attached considerable importance to teachers' ability to heighten learners' critical consciousness and establishing the relevance of classroom content to learners' real-life situations. The author also reported an inconsistent case who maintained an instrumentalist and conformist orientation to teaching.

Abednia concludes the study by emphasising the necessity of adopting a critical approach to teacher education, which would include creating opportunities for critical dialogue, in order to prepare teachers who can facilitate positive changes in the status quo.

The selected studies reported in this section illuminate important aspects of teachers' identity negotiation as they engage in collaboration with their peers, teacher educators, and mentors. Most show that teachers' identity formation is informed by what they bring to collaborative spaces in teacher education in terms of their backgrounds and prior beliefs, for example whether they come from a teaching background, what pedagogical beliefs and ideal identities they have, and what identities they are assigned to them in their teaching contexts. These studies also present a complex picture of the process of identity formation that teachers engage in through interactions with other stake-holders, including teacher educators, peers, and practicum mentors. They show that this process involves, among other things, negotiating the role of their peers' colleagues within a probably unequal power relationship (Dang, 2013), taking on multiple identities based on opportunities provided by mentors (E. R. Yuan, 2016), adopting different interactional styles to engage in meaning production, and active use of the technical terminology of TESOL in their dialogues (Morton & Gray, 2010).

Teacher Identity Formation through Engagement with Electronic Tools

As teacher education programs around the world are increasingly incorporating electronic components, the research literature also reflects a growing interest in investigating how such tools foster teacher development (e.g., Granberg, 2010; Milman & Kilbane, 2005). The researcher's review of the literature on L2 teacher identity negotiation also yielded a few studies with a similar direction. The two studies described below report on two different contexts of teacher education, graduate and undergraduate programs, in Australia and Hong Kong, and how teacher learners negotiate their identities as they engage with two different electronics tools, discussion forums and e-portfolios.

In Australia, Delahunty (2012) studied five student teachers' identity negotiation in an online graduate TESOL subject which focused on teaching English internationally. The analysis of the asynchronous discussion forums yielded a number of major findings. The introductory forums appeared to play a significant role in the participants' identity negotiation as they helped the participants to create rapport and a social presence. They could also establish multiple

identities “as teachers (or not), as travellers, and as becoming- TESOL-teachers” (p. 411). In another part of these forums, the teacher learners talked about their credentials which, the author argued, involved their initial positioning attempts in the cohort. This discussion facilitated the alignment of those who came from teaching backgrounds together as ‘teachers’. However, two of the participants who had not taught assigned a negative identity to themselves, as they equated a lack of teaching credentials with a lack of knowledge. The discussion forums also involved a focus on the cultural topic of travel and therefore enhanced the teacher learners’ engagement in negotiation of a traveller identity which they all shared. Sharing their hopes around travel, which a TESOL qualification could help come true, signalled initial stages of a sense of community being built in the cohort. What further fostered community building and negotiation of a collective TESOL teacher identity in this group was the forum where they unanimously disapproved of any practice of stereotyping by language teachers. The dynamics of identity negotiation observed through these findings led the author to conclude, “any professional identity would include an intricate combination of professional and personal elements influenced by cultural and historical contexts. Awareness of these factors is critical for tertiary educators” (p. 417).

Trent and Shroff (2013) report on six Chinese undergraduate students’ identity work as they engaged with an electronic portfolio during a teaching practicum. In the Hong Kong higher education institution where this study was situated, this was the first time that the use of an e-portfolio was incorporated into teacher education. Therefore, this tool was considered to be a shift from a paper-based version of teaching portfolios to one of electronic with multimedia facilities. Three interviews were conducted with each participant across the practicum exploring their experiences of using the e-portfolio. The participants saw the e-portfolio as a teacher development tool which helped them with the shaping of such identities as ‘up-to-date teacher’ and ‘modern teacher’ distancing themselves from identity types like ‘low technology teacher’ and ‘traditional Hong Kong teacher’. The interviews also showed that the use of the e-portfolio had improved their self-confidence. It had also served as a community-building platform, in that it had fostered their interactions with their supervisors and teaching context and afforded them multiple opportunities to share ideas and experiences with others. Interpreting the findings from a Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) perspective, the authors argued that the e-portfolio had fostered the participants’ engagement with their classmates and full-time teachers in practicum schools, imagination work regarding other teachers’ challenges in Hong Kong schools, and negotiating alignment of their teaching

practices with institutional requirements. As conducive as these experiences were to their identity formation, this process was limited by them setting themselves apart from some in-service teachers in the practicum schools through a modern teacher-traditional teacher binary. While promoting the use of e-portfolios as a teacher identity development tool, the authors also highlighted the importance of challenging dichotomies like the one mentioned above through helping pre-service and in-service teachers appreciate the relevance and significance of each other for their identity formation.

The reviewed studies show that electronic tools of teacher education foster identity formation in several ways. They create rapport, boost teachers' self-confidence, and serve as a community-building platform as they facilitate teachers' sharing of ideas and experiences and recognising their commonalities. The supportive and collegial atmosphere of electronic communication enables teachers to negotiate multiple identities related to the topics covered, such as traveller-teacher of TESOL (Delahunty, 2012), and the electronic nature of the communication tool, like modern teacher (Trent & Shroff, 2013). Both studies also expose the likely challenges teachers may encounter in the process of identity formation. Delahunty (2012) shows how teachers who lack teaching credentials may assign a negative identity to themselves in their online discussions. Trent and Shroff (2013) report that, in their construction of a modern and up-to-date teacher identity, their participants otherwise in-service teachers as traditional and low-technology.

Teacher Identity Formation through Research Engagement

Teacher engagement with research has been promoted as an effective tool for ongoing professional development and teacher empowerment (e.g., Borg, 2009; Lankshear & Knobel, 2005; Loughran, 2010). As an important dimension of professional development, teacher identity formation has also been recently investigated in a few studies on L2 teachers' engagement with research. In fact, the two papers reported in the following paragraphs were the only studies the researcher found with this focus, both conducted by the same author and in the same context, pre-service education in Hong Kong. Their difference lies in the fact that the findings in Trent (2012) are based on three interviews conducted with each teacher learner capturing their experience with their research projects throughout the whole process, while Trent (2010c) reports on one interview with each participant following their completion of research projects.

Trent (2012) reports on six preservice English language teachers' experiences with a compulsory research project during the final year of a BEd from a teacher identity perspective. This project requires student teachers to build on research proposals they have submitted in a previous unit, collect and analyse data, and write a 4000-word report. Most collect data from the placement schools where they complete their practicum. Three interviews were conducted with each of the six participants who reflected on their research experiences and the possibility of future research engagement. The participants mostly presented positive evaluations of the identity positions 'researcher' and 'teacher' and their relations. They saw being a researcher as helping their teaching through enriching their understanding of students and the classroom, keeping them up-to-date, and improving their problem-solving capabilities. The data, however, showed that the participants did not always consider themselves as researchers. Constructing an 'us and them' dichotomy, some used the term 'they' to refer to researchers outside the perceived community of teachers, who were 'us', with 'they' (researchers) put in the position of helping 'us' (teachers). Also, both prior to their engagement in their research projects and throughout the process, many participants highlighted the challenges in taking up a 'teacher-researcher' role. Positioning themselves as 'student teachers', some focused on the power relations in the practicum which would hinder their adoption of a researcher role. There was also a focus on the difficulty of assuming a researcher identity while working as full-time teachers. Yet, some participants proposed that teachers working together as researchers within a supportive school atmosphere may help address this difficulty. From a Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) perspective, the author highlights the impacts on identity construction of the participants' direct engagement with research, their attempts to align themselves with the requirements of both the research project and the practicum, and their imagination work regarding how to help learners with their language development, which was stimulated by their research findings. The challenges of meeting their research and practicum requirements limited their assuming the dual identities of 'researcher' and 'full-time teacher'. Some, however, believed they could assume a teacher-researcher identity through working together within a supportive school atmosphere. The author recommends "encourage[ing] student teachers to explore their research perceptions and experiences from the perspective of teacher identity" (p. 158) to better prepare "for the likely identity conflicts mentioned above.

Trent (2010c) studied how six preservice English language teachers' engagement with an action research project during the final year of a BEd informed their identity formation. The research was aimed at improving students' skills to analyse and refine their own teaching

practice and their understanding of interconnections between action research and teaching EFL. After completing their projects, the participants were interviewed on their perceptions of their research experience. The analysis showed that the action research project had helped them revisit their beliefs about research and how it relates to teaching and learning. While most used to see research as lacking connections with teaching, their engagement with action research enabled them to identify the benefits of research to their development as teachers. The action research project had helped them analyse and experiment with different teaching and learning approaches they had been presented with in the teacher education classes. Therefore, they could develop a critical understanding of how useful and feasible these approaches were in the reality of classroom teaching and the extent to which they could incorporate them into their teaching in the future. This understanding helped them adopt a more realistic view of their ability to transform L2 education in Hong Kong schools, a goal which they had committed themselves to achieving prior to their engagement in the action research project. They were also able to recognise the areas in which the language education system in Hong Kong needed to change. Adopting a Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) perspective, the researcher argued that the participants' identity formation was informed by their direct engagement with the action research project, the resultant imagination work around what changes need to be made in EFL education in Hong Kong, and their attempts at aligning their teaching practice with contemporary theories of L2 teaching promoted in their university classes. Lamenting that "some teacher education programs promote unitary views of teaching and learning, resulting in graduate teachers who seek certainty and harmony in their journey to 'becoming teachers'" (p. 166), the author concludes that action research can enable student teachers to appreciate the role of imperfection and uncertainty in their identity development.

Both studies show that the teacher learners' negotiating a teacher-researcher identity as they identified the benefits of research to different aspects of their teaching, including understanding students and problem-solving. Research engagement also helped them examine how useful pedagogical approaches presented to them in university classes were to their classroom teaching and how likely they were to bring about changes in Hong Kong schools. The studies presented some limitations on the participants' their adoption of a researcher role. These were their concurrent 'student teacher' status in the practicum schools, the prospect of working to a tight schedule as 'full-time' teachers, and considering researchers and teachers as belonging to separate communities. Yet, the teachers in Trent (2012) believed that collaborative research

within a supportive school atmosphere would enable them to maintain a dual teacher-researcher role.

Identity Formation as Relating to Teaching Different Language Skills

Among the major roles of a L2 teacher is to facilitate learners' development of different language skills. The researcher's review of the literature yielded three studies specifically focusing on L2 teacher learners' identity negotiation as relating to the teaching of pronunciation, reading, and writing in the contexts of Australia, UAE, and Hong Kong.

Burri et al. (2017) explored 15 teachers' identity construction as they attended a postgraduate unit on teaching pronunciation, which focused on issues related to mainstream pronunciation instruction as well as those arising from critical and sociocultural views, such as the importance of intelligibility and including non-native varieties of English in L2 instruction. Questionnaires, focus groups, interviews, and lecture observations constituted the data. Most of the NNSs gradually came to imagine themselves as competent pronunciation teachers as they acquired a belief in their pedagogical ability and their native-speaking peers also recognised their competence. Their engagement in the unit through reading the professional literature, investment in the assessment tasks, and engagement with teaching practice further fostered their negotiating the identity of legitimate pronunciation instructors. Alignment with the unit content through showing personal interest in the content and emotional response to some of it also facilitated their identity development. However, some teachers struggled with the content emotionally. For example, a teacher with a strong Pakistani accent, which was an important part of her identity, struggled with the notion of correct pronunciation. The authors also discussed the data in light of how attending the unit contributed to the teachers' cognition, in terms of their knowledge, perceptions, and beliefs as relating to teaching pronunciation, as well as how their cognition growth and identity development informed each other. This discussion is beyond the scope of the present review. The authors concluded by attaching importance to taking into account the intertwined nature of teacher cognition and teacher identity in teacher education.

Gardiner-Hyland (2014b) studied how 16 second-year BEd Emirati female student teachers' participation in a subject on teaching reading with a social constructivist approach and the experience of teaching practice informed the development of their EFL reading teacher

identities. The data sources consisted of focus group interviews, online discussions, and observation of the participants' teaching practice. The analysis showed that, as a result of participating in this subject, the participants developed an interest in adopting a constructivist approach to reading instruction in their teaching. They were also observed to incorporate many constructivist reading strategies into their teaching practice, including shared reading, library week events, and school visits. They also aspired to become change agents through shifting away from their past teachers' ways of reading instruction and moving towards more learner-centred approaches and creating a more positive reading culture. The author identified two challenges in their identity negotiation process. One was their constructing a dichotomous binary contrasting being a traditional teacher who teaches reading using teacher-fronted and behaviourist methods with being a progressive teacher who, among other things, uses interactive methods of teaching reading, develops a love of reading, and caters to differentiated abilities. Also, the identity work of the participants who were not as willing as their peers to take up a constructivist approach to reading instruction was impacted by their encounter with the reality of the EFL classroom. Experiencing challenges in the way of teaching reading using constructivist strategies led them to fall back into behaviourist, survival-oriented teaching methods. Their more confident peers, however, took more risks with their teaching and integrated constructivist and behaviourist methods to teach reading. In light of these findings, the author highlighted the importance of providing teachers with professional development opportunities, like access to reading resources and reading workshops, to their identity negotiation as teachers of EFL reading.

The other study the researcher found as focusing on teacher identity negotiation in connection with teaching a specific language skill was Lee (2013). 28 teachers attended a master's unit on teaching writing at a Hong Kong university. The unit had a task-based orientation, involved critical analysis of conventional writing practices and their underlying assumptions, and presented writing as integrated with other language skills. The lecturer, who was the researcher, also created a blog and encouraged the teachers to post comments. Four Cantonese-speaking participants from the cohort took part in the study. Each was interviewed two months after they completed the unit and again a year after the first interview. The interviews together with their classroom research reports were analysed from an Activity Theory perspective. The shifts in how they conceptualised their roles as teachers of writing were from a testing orientation to a teaching one characterised by a genre approach and provision of instructional scaffolding, from a language-focused view to one with a strong focus on different aspects of writing and its

connections with reading, and from a teacher-dominated approach to one which prioritises student engagement and peer review. The participants had also come to position themselves as change agents, introducing new practices in the school contexts where they were working and becoming facilitators of other writing teachers in their workplace. Yet, their transformative approach was challenged by their colleagues' mindsets and dominant institutional views of writing. Another factor influencing the teachers' identity negotiation was classroom realities, like large class size and time limitations. The author concludes the paper by proposing that teacher educators should strive to raise teachers' awareness of the multi-faceted nature of their identities, factors that impact on them, ways in which they can develop identities which are less vulnerable to external threats, and strategies to cope with the conflicting aspects of their teaching practice in the workplace.

All of these studies discuss contributions of presenting teacher learners with constructivist approaches to teaching language skills to their identity construction. They report teachers' developing views of teaching in line with the promoted approaches. The teachers in Burri et al. (2017) developed an increasing sense of competent pronunciation teachers who could teach pronunciation effectively and also focus on intelligibility and non-native English varieties. The teachers in Gardiner-Hyland (2014b) and Lee (2013) aspired to become agents of change. Yet, their pursuit of this goal was challenged by the undesirable realities of classroom teaching and the more traditional views of teaching skills advocated by their colleagues and their workplaces at large. In the case of Gardiner-Hyland's (2014b) teachers, what further hindered their adoption of a constructivist approach was the essentialist belief that this approach and the more traditional approaches are mutually exclusive. The teachers who were more self-confident and more willing to pursue a constructivist approach succeeded in integrating constructivist and behaviourist theories in their teaching. Since, unlike the participants in Gardiner-Hyland (2014b) and Lee (2013), those in Burri et al. (2017) were studying in an English-speaking context, they had the unique advantage of having native-speaking peers whose recognition of their capabilities contributed to their identity development.

Non-English-speaking Teachers' Identity Formation in English-speaking Contexts

Many of the studies reported in the previous categories have investigated non-English-speaking teachers' identity negotiation. Those reported in the present category have the unique feature

of specifically focusing on how these teachers' identity construction is informed by their experience of participating in a teacher education program in an English-speaking context. As with many of the previous categories, the researcher did not find more than a few studies with such a feature. Four are reported here. Three report on teachers' identity formation as they work towards a master's degree and one reports on preservice teachers. The first study is on a Vietnamese teacher studying in Australia, two focus on Chinese teachers studying in Canada and the US, and the last one reports on a Korean teacher and a Hong Kong Chinese teacher studying in two Australian universities.

Kong (2014) investigated the process of identity negotiation of a Vietnamese teacher of English who was pursuing a master's degree in TESOL at an Australian university. Three interviews, email correspondence, and informal conversations constituted the data of the study. The participant's identity formation was informed by her simultaneous membership in multiple communities, namely a highly-regarded lecturer of English in her home country, a student of a graduate course of TESOL and English learner in Australia, and a friend to others in the two contexts. As an English learner and a master's degree student, she was initially challenged by the unfamiliar Western style of academic writing, but after a while she came to prefer this style to the Vietnamese writing style. What further strengthened her sense of membership in the Australian academic context was her increased confidence in contributing to classroom discussions. Yet, she was aware of limitations she would face in her home country to practice her newly developed writing and interaction styles. Another identity shift she experienced was in her understanding of the 'lecturer' position. Her comparisons between her lecturers in the Australian university and those in Vietnam, including herself, led her to identify differences in institutional requirements in terms of academic degrees and publications. Furthermore, while one of her goals in coming to Australia was to develop native-like competency in English, her focus was redirected to improving her communication skills as a result of her interactions with others in academic and social contexts. Such interactions also helped her become more culturally sensitive. Yet, she consciously tried to maintain her own Vietnamese lifestyle by investing most of her time in socialising with her fellow Vietnamese and Asian friends. These findings showed different types of shifts in the teacher's identity, which were a result of her encounters with the new academic and sociocultural context of Australia. At the same time, she was found to maintain her Vietnamese social and cultural identities. She also considered the necessity of maintaining some aspects of the academic identity desired in Vietnam while practicing the type of academic identity she developed in Australia.

Ilieva (2010) studied how 20 Chinese teacher learners negotiated their identities as they engaged with the discourses of TESOL presented in a master's degree in a Canadian university. Using post-structural and sociocultural theories of identity, the author analysed the participants' portfolios in which they had summarised their learning in the teacher education program. The teacher learners were found to have adopted several of the authoritative discourses promoted in the program, such as sociocultural theories of learning and critical approaches to education. The findings also suggested that the participants had also gone beyond mere adoption of some these discourses and had reappropriated them in light of their understanding of their own local contexts. For example, their engagement with the discourse of empowerment in the program had fostered their negotiating the identity of teachers as change agents, an identity which they believed was important for them to assume in the 'centralised' context of education in China. Yet, the same local understanding had helped them identify the challenges in fully practicing some of the discourses, like the communicative approach to L2 education, and considering how they could incorporate some aspects of these discourses in their professional practice. An implication that the author presents based on these findings is that teacher education programs should present pedagogical discourses so as to meaningfully engage with international students' local discourses. This, the author argues, fosters students' active negotiation of their professional identities in light of their local needs and contexts.

As part of a larger qualitative inquiry of five East Asian teachers' experiences prior to and during a master's program in the US, G. Park (2012) analysed one of the participants' electronic autobiographical narratives, electronic journal entries, and unstructured individual interviews to capture the process of her identity negotiation. Before entering the master's program, the participant's learner identity was strong because of her brilliant performance in the test-oriented system of English education in China and her undergraduate studies in a Chinese university. Facing a different conception of the legitimate owner and user of English in the US, she began to compare her language fluency with native speakers', which caused disillusionment with her previous language achievements. Consequently, she embarked on improving her English in order to sound like native speakers, which, coupled with others' positive feedback, helped her regain her confidence. Also, a supportive Japanese mentor teacher helped her overcome her negative perceptions of her academic language abilities as an ESL teacher. Yet, being witness to the mentor's hard work to show her own ability to teach ESL, she was threatened by the pressure NNS teachers had to withstand to establish a teaching

career. The author's major conclusion was that adopting an emic perspective can shed light on NNS teachers' inner worlds and help develop and modify the content of teacher education.

H. T. M. Nguyen and Sheridan (2016) explored the experiences of two (Korean and Hong Kong Chinese) preservice teachers with LOTE backgrounds during their practicums in two Australian universities. Data consisted of post teaching interviews and follow-up interviews at the conclusion of their practicums. The identity formation experience of each of the participants was discussed separately. In the case of the first preservice teacher, the supportive and collaborative environment of both practicum schools and positive relationship with her mentors, other practicum teachers, the school teachers many of whom similarly had LOTE backgrounds and accented English, students, and other stakeholders created multiple opportunities for her to develop her teacher identity. She developed a positive attitude to teacher collaboration and constructed a caring teacher identity. While her lack of confidence in her English skills impacted her identity negotiation, she saw her Asian background as facilitating her rapport with her students. Yet, this participant's previous schooling experience in her home country resulted in her adopting a teacher-centred style of teaching. The second participant had entered the teacher education program with strong beliefs about "the importance of modelling acceptance and tolerance toward other cultures in her classroom and the value of language as a learning area" (p. 42). Her first practicum facilitated a productive process of identity development as it involved close interactions with the staff and her feeling included and welcomed. However, the second practicum presented her with several challenges. Working with a casual replacement teacher as her mentor who was from a different subject area, she often felt isolated and in need of support. Discipline problems in the classroom, her fear of making language mistakes, and the other teachers' lack of willingness to share resources and time further impacted her identity formation. Based on the conclusion that "preservice teachers' cultural and educational backgrounds affect the dynamics of the quality of their identity formation" (p. 46), the authors highlight the importance of "those involved in the LBOTE preservice teachers' learning process, such as teacher mentors and university supervisors, to be able to recognize and allow for these differences to provide effective support" (pp. 46-47).

The first two studies suggest that non-English-speaking teachers' learning to teach in English-speaking contexts involves a process of adopting pedagogical views promoted in the west, examining how well they suit the local contexts of their home countries, and reappropriating

them in light of this analysis. Kong's (2014) in-depth focus on a single participant provides the additional insight into the complex interconnections between teachers' sociocultural identities and their willingness to maintain them while experiencing integration into a western culture. This study and Park's (2012) also show the dynamic process NNS teachers go through to establish themselves as legitimate users of English. In the case of Kong's teacher, this involved a shift away from a focus on developing native-like proficiency to a focus on improving communication skills while, in the case of Park's participant, a maintained focus on language proficiency reinforced by significant others' feedback boosted her confidence in her linguistic skills. In Nguyen and Sheridan's (2016) study, interacting with school teachers from LOTE backgrounds who had accented English positively impacted the first participant's identity formation. However, the other participant's fear of making language mistakes stayed with her limiting her identity development as she did not receive any support from those involved in the practicum placements in overcoming this fear.

Critical Analysis

The above groups of studies showcase how complex, diverse, and extensive the research on L2 teacher identity construction in teacher education is. They show the dynamics of identity negotiation to be informed by teacher learners' personal characteristics and pursuits and their engagement with different aspects of teacher education and different stake-holders within various sociocultural contexts. The remarkable rate at which we are witnessing an increase in studies on L2 teacher identity formation since 2010 suggests that the current decade is, to say the least, the prime of this research area, if not just an early sign of an exponential increase in relevant research.

Given the fledgling nature of this area, it is easy to identify gaps in the research literature on L2 teacher identity. As mentioned early in the chapter, most of the studies have been published since 2010. Thus, it could be simply said there are many aspects of teacher education that have not been investigated in terms of how teachers' engagement with them informs their identity formation. It could be added that even the studied areas merit further research because there is so much to learn about them that the limited existing publications cannot seem to do them justice. Reference could also be made to the easy fact that no quantitative research has been conducted in this area. Such a 'gap-hunting' approach, though convenient, may amount to a discourse not necessarily committed to empowering the community of researchers who have

invested in this area, a discourse which is mainly concerned with what research has ‘not yet’ achieved, with the reviewer, the present researcher, serving to enlighten the community as to what needs to be focused on from now on. Instead, the present researcher would like to conduct his critical appraisal of the literature with a ‘potential-seeking’ aspiration. This would enable him to celebrate the achieved and highlight the potential that these research achievements suggest as existing, emerging, and worth exploring. In fact, the considerable variety in the foci, theoretical approaches to identity formation, types of teacher education programs, and contexts featuring the reviewed studies is a testament to the enormous potential yet to be recognised for further L2 teacher identity research. If we are impressed by the variety already reflected in the published studies, then more is sure to come, since the more questions we find answers to, the (many) more questions arise (or cans of worms, for that matter, open), needing more complex answers. Therefore, the present researcher would specifically elaborate on potential areas of research which he has also begun to address in this dissertation.

The categories identified above of studies on teacher identity negotiation in teacher education suggest researchers’ admirable attempts to explore the opportunities provided by teacher education programs for teacher identity negotiation. Some of these studies have investigated how teacher learners’ general engagement with teacher education programs informed their identity formation. In other words, these studies explored the contributions to teacher identity development of teacher education programs in their entirety rather than of any selected aspects of the programs. The other studies have been conducted with an intended focus on specific components of teacher education programs, such as practicum, research engagement, group meetings, and online discussions.

Of all components of teacher education, practicum has received most attention. The high number of studies described in the relevant category and several other studies which, while subsumed into other groups, are situated in practicum show the importance rightfully attached to this component as a rich space for identity negotiation. If anything, this extensive focus on practicum should be celebrated. Yet, one cannot help noticing the limited attention paid to other components of teacher education programs, especially coursework which, together with practicum, constitutes the general structure of a typical teacher education program. A small number of the reviewed studies focused on this component. Gardiner-Hyland (2014b) and Lee (2013), for example, explored how presenting teacher learners with constructivist pedagogical approaches in theoretical units may inform their identity negotiation. Their findings highlight

teacher learners' experience with coursework as a significant space for identity formation. Thus, one could conclude that this teacher education component, in which student teachers spend most of their time learning to teach, merits further research from an identity perspective.

A close look at the methodological choices made in these studies may help us identify further potential for future research. Studies like Gardiner-Hyland (2014b) and Lee (2013) have a cross-sectional design. This design has enabled the researchers to explore the process of identity formation across long timescales: the duration of an entire unit as in Gardiner-Hyland (2014b) and a time period spanning from the end of a unit to above a year afterward as in Lee (2013). This macro-analytical approach provides the tools to capture evolutionary patterns of identity negotiation (Klimstra et al., 2010). In fact, this approach has been adopted in the majority of the reviewed studies across the categories discussed above. Yet, a micro-analytical approach enables us to explore teacher learners' in-the-moment identity experiences in shorter timescales (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011), like in a conversation between teacher learners or during their engagement with a class activity. One of the few studies with a substantial micro-analysis is Morton and Gray (2010) which explores pre-service L2 teachers' professional identity construction as they engage in the moment-by-moment negotiation of meanings in lesson planning conversations. These observations highlight the need for more research with a micro-analytical approach to teacher identity construction.

Inspired by Klimstra et al. (2010), the researcher would like to take this methodological discussion a step further and argue for the importance of combining macro-analysis and micro-analysis. Identity research which integrates analyses of identity experiences within short timescales and across longer timescales would provide a particularly helpful lens through which to capture simultaneously the dynamicity and consistency of the teacher identity formation process. The above review suggests that the only study combining these two analytical approaches is the single case study done by Henry (2016), which was reported in the practicum category. This combined approach enabled the author to identify similar, constant identity shifts in all captured timescales, which led him to conclude that identity transformations are simultaneously dynamic and predictably consistent, that "they take the form of a stable dynamical pattern" (p. 301). The depth and rigour in Henry's (2016) case study show the great potential which a combination of micro-analysis and macro-analysis can afford, hence another path to expand the boundaries of L2 teacher identity research.

In terms of the types of teacher education programs investigated, most of the reviewed studies have focused on pre-service education (e.g., Gardiner-Hyland, 2014b; Trent, 2013; Yayli, 2012; R. Yuan & Lee, 2014). The significance of pre-service programs is beyond question, and therefore the extensive focus these programs have received is completely justifiable. A limited number of the studies have also focused on graduate teacher education programs (e.g., Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Lee, 2013). While a crude comparison between pre-service and graduate programs may lead one to consider the former generally more important than the latter, the potential place of the latter in L2 teacher identity research can be argued on several grounds some of which are elaborated here. First, the relevant studies reviewed in this chapter highlight significant ways in which teacher learners negotiate their identities. Identity changes reported in these studies are by no means less substantial or complex than those reported in pre-service teachers. In addition, learning to teach is not just about participating in an initial teacher education program. It is a career-long (Mitchell & Mitchell, 2005; Mockler, 2011) and life-long (Korthagen, 2004) journey in which identity never stops changing. This journey includes, in the case of many teachers, doing a graduate degree, which provides several opportunities for teachers to renegotiate their identities, as again reflected in the studies reviewed in this chapter. Furthermore, there are many mainstream teachers who aspire to become teachers of a L2, for whom a graduate degree usually provides entry into this new teaching area. Doing one such degree involves a significant experience of identity reconstruction, in that teachers undergo a transition from subject areas which they had originally invested themselves in and defined themselves as teachers of ESL with all unique roles and responsibilities it assigns to teachers. Even in the case of teachers who, after completing a graduate degree in TESOL, choose to stay in their original subject areas, the new experience of identity construction enables them to be better teachers for students with LOTE backgrounds who are put in mainstream classes. The high rate of immigration around the world, especially in countries like Australia, Canada, and US, has meant that these teachers get many such students, which necessitates them taking on a 'linguistically responsive teacher identity' (Martin & Strom, 2016). These arguments underscore the need for further research on L2 teacher identity formation in the context of graduate teacher education.

Another potential area of research on L2 teachers' identity negotiation in teacher education is one focused on their 'language analyst' role. A historical look through the advancements of L2 teacher education as a field shows attempts over the last four decades to highlight the importance of this role. Shaw (1979), for example, emphasised the importance of incorporating

the study of language into L2 teacher education. Almost a decade later, Edge (1988) argued that, along with a focus on ‘language user’ and ‘language teacher’ roles of trainees, teacher education should also address their role as ‘language analysts’ who are “able to talk about the language itself, to analyse it, [and] to understand how it works” (p. 10). This role has received enormous attention in the literature on teacher language awareness (TLA), which has treated it as a form of knowledge teachers need to have to teach effectively (e.g., Andrews, 2001, 2007a, 2007b; Thornbury, 1997). The studies reviewed in this chapter show that, as extensively as the ‘language teacher’ role of teacher learners has been recognised, their ‘language analyst’ role has received little attention. Even the few studies which include this focus report teachers’ little attention to their language analysis role. In Farrell (2011), for example, the only role that his participants reflected on in their group meetings as partly related to language analysis was being “Knowledgeable about teaching and subject matter” (Farrell, 2011, p. 57). This role was among the least frequently mentioned by the participants. Another relevant study, which was included in the above review, is Antonek et al. (1997) which examined two L2 student teachers’ professional identity construction in a post-baccalaureate, professional year program. Analysis of the participants’ portfolios showed that a focus to their own target language use in the classroom was “noticeably absent” (p. 22). These observations speak to the limited attention paid to this aspect of a language teacher’s role by identity researchers and teachers. Therefore, any studies on this dimension of a teacher’s identity would be among the early attempts to explore how teacher learners negotiate their language analyst role as they engage in learning to teach, and how teacher education programs foster their negotiation of this identity aspect.

The present dissertation to be discussed in detail in the rest of the chapters is an attempt to address the abovementioned potential areas. It is situated in a graduate course of TESOL, integrates a micro-analysis of classroom conversations between the teacher educator and teacher learners with a macro-analysis of early- and late-course interviews with teacher learners, and explores the potential of the course for teacher learners’ negotiation of their language analyst role. Although classroom conversations have been explored in three studies in this dissertation, the selective nature of the conversation analyses limits the adequacy of these studies in reflecting the potential of the course in its entirety for fostering teacher identity negotiation. To address this limitation, the researcher analysed the documents related to the course to further explore its potential and limitations regarding teacher identity formation. Figure 1 below provides a schematic representation of the multiple empirical phases of the present thesis.

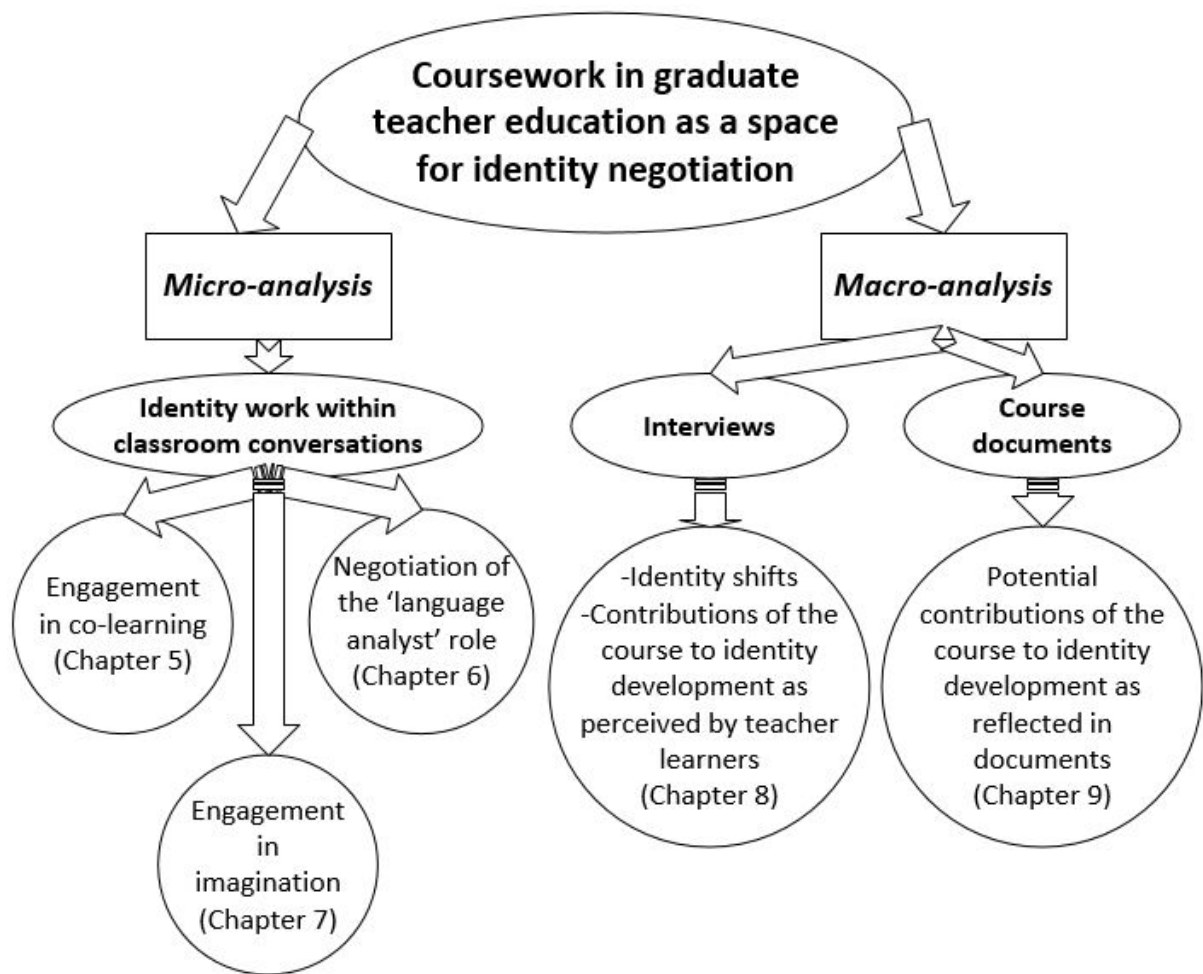


Figure 1. Empirical phases of the thesis

The following chapter, Chapter 3, presents the conceptual lens adopted in the present study. Similar to Chapter 2, Chapter 3 is a literature review. However, while Chapter 2 was intended to establish the scholarship contributed by L2 teacher identity research and highlight some of the gaps in this research which the present study addresses, Chapter 3 is aimed at presenting a detailed account of ‘Communities of Practice’ (Wenger, 1998) which is the conceptual framework informing the study, although in the form of a literature review. This chapter is presented in the format of a journal article. Therefore, it starts with an abstract, includes an initial focus on teacher identity in teacher education, the key focus of this thesis, and communities of practice, which is the theoretical lens of the study. Then, it explains the methodology adopted to conduct the literature review, followed by an in-depth discussion of each aspect of teacher education as a community practice.

CHAPTER 3

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON TEACHER EDUCATION AS A COMMUNITY PRACTICE

Abstract

From a Communities of Practice (CoP) (Wenger, 1998) perspective, learning happens through individuals' engagement in the social process of negotiating meanings, and identity construction is one of its key dimensions. The researcher reviewed empirical and theoretical pieces in which major learning concepts in CoP have been drawn upon to foster teacher learning and identity formation. In this paper, the researcher integrates the reviewed studies into a theoretically-informed and empirically-enriched discussion of these concepts. This enables him to discuss the process and likely outcomes of teacher education as a community practice in terms of teacher growth and identity development.

Introduction

Different approaches to teacher education have been documented since teaching came to be recognised as a profession and educating teachers became an integral part of teacher learning. The earliest documented trend which has been present in different forms since at least the beginning of the last century is positivist/behaviouristic (Kliebard, 1973). This approach adopts a knowledge-transmission orientation to teacher preparation where skills, competencies, and instructional techniques assumed to be related to student learning are dictated to teachers (Zeichner, 1983). Reconceptualising teacher learning as a process of inquiry and personal growth resulted in the emergence of the constructivist/reflective approach which emphasises teacher reflection, situated understanding, and creativity (Mann, 2005). A further shift in teacher education theory and practice has been an increasing focus on the social and collaborative nature of learning to teach. In this approach, "there is a commitment to reciprocity and reciprocal learning relationships and a deepening participatory process" (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008, p. 1803).

Different social learning theories have informed this approach to teacher education, such as sociocultural theory (e.g., K. E. Johnson, 2009; K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2016; Vélez-

Rendón, 2010), activity theory (e.g., Dang, 2013; Eames, 2016), and Communities of Practice (CoP) (e.g., Trent, 2010c; J. Williams, 2013). All these theories consider identity construction a key element of the process of learning to teach (H. T. Nguyen, 2008). CoP, as “one of the most influential concepts to have emerged within the social sciences during recent years” (Hughes, Jewson, & Unwin, 2007, p. 1), is the focus of the current piece. As explained in further detail below, this perspective was chosen because any teacher education program could be regarded as a community in which teacher learners draw upon a shared repertoire of tools, ways of interacting, and jargon to participate in the joint practice of learning teaching. Also, CoP conceptualises identity formation along three modes of identification, namely engagement, imagination, and alignment, which provide a helpful lens for the current review. This paper is a report on a narrative review the researcher conducted of empirical and theoretical pieces in which these concepts have been drawn upon to foster teacher learning and identity formation. This review was intended to help address the following questions:

1. What does it mean, in educational terms, to approach teacher education as a community practice and therefore as a space for identity work?
2. What are the possible teacher learning and identity formation outcomes of adopting a CoP approach to teacher education?

Before the review, the researcher will briefly discuss the concepts of teacher identity and CoP.

Teacher Identity in Teacher Education

Pennington and Richards (2016) define identity “in terms of the unique set of characteristics associated with a particular individual relative to the perceptions and characteristics of others” (p. 6), and argue that identity is informed by “values and beliefs about how people should conduct their lives and behave in front of others” (p. 7). In the context of education, teacher identity is reflected in a teacher's answers to questions like ‘how do I see my role as a teacher?’ and ‘what kind of teacher do I want to be?’ (Korthagen, 2004, p. 81).

A major feature of identity is its dynamic nature. While deterministic views of identity, which are promoted in essentialist theories of social reproduction, consider identity to be unitary, static, and internally coherent, social constructivists conceive of identity as shifting, socially negotiated, in conflict, and in constant motion:

...identity is not a fixed attribute of a person, but a relational phenomenon. Identity development occurs in an intersubjective field and can be best characterized as an ongoing process, a process of interpreting oneself as a certain kind of person and being recognized as such in a given context (Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 108).

Teacher identity has been shown to have significant effects on key aspects of teacher performance, such as decision making (Bullough, 1997), creativity and autonomy (Singh & Richards, 2006), teaching quality (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996), and efficiency in coping with unfavourable working conditions (M. Moore & Hofman, 1988). It was also mentioned in the previous section that identity formation is a key dimension of teacher learning. These highlight the importance of teacher education as informing teacher identity formation (Singh & Richards, 2006). Defining learning largely in terms of identity formation, CoP is introduced next.

Communities of Practice

CoP has its origins in *situated learning theory* (Lave & Wenger, 1991), which posits that learning happens through individuals' engagement in the social process of negotiating meanings, with *meaning* broadly referring to everyday life experiences (Wenger, 1998). Negotiation of meaning involves two fundamental processes of *participation* and *reification*. The former refers to the experience of community membership and involvement in social activities, and the latter refers to the process of giving form to our experiences and the products of this process.

Participation not only informs what we do but also shapes who we are. Thus, learning is essentially a process of identity construction (Wenger, 1998). In other words, "learning is a way of being in the social world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 23) and involves "change of persons" (p. 50). In addition, CoP conceptualises learning in terms of active participation and membership in social communities rather than as an entirely individual task of information processing. Therefore, the focus is on "individuals as social beings" (Hughes et al., 2007, p. 3), on the collective as the major unit of analysis (Fuller, 2007), and on the practice in which a community is involved as a social enterprise. In fact, Wenger (1998) defines *practice* as "doing in a historical and social context that gives structure and meaning to what we do" (p. 47) and characterised by *mutual engagement* of participants, negotiation of a *joint enterprise*, and development of a *shared repertoire*.

Defining learning in terms of identity development, Wenger (2010) presents three *modes of identification* that an individual experiences through membership in a community.

- 1) engagement - active involvement in mutual processes of negotiation of meaning
- 2) imagination - creating images of the world and seeing connections through time and space by extrapolating from our own experience
- 3) alignment - coordinating our energy and activities in order to fit within broader structures and contribute to broader enterprises (Wenger, 1998, pp. 173-174).

Wenger (1998, 2010) discusses at length what each of these modes involves and how they can be facilitated in a learning context, be it a workplace, an NGO, or a classroom, so that the context supports individuals' active involvement in construction of their identities.

Literature Review

Rationale

One of the reasons why a CoP perspective guides this review of the teacher education and teacher identity literature was that it conceptualises learning mainly in terms of identity construction. Another reason was that preservice and in-service teacher education programs are in many ways communities of practice. As mentioned above, the social practice a CoP is involved in is characterised by mutual engagement of participants, negotiation of a joint enterprise, and development of a shared repertoire. In a similar vein, a teacher education program is a community of teacher learners who are mutually engaged in negotiating the joint enterprise of learning to teach using a repertoire of theories, practices, and tools which facilitate their learning. Furthermore, a teacher education program can be characterised by many of the indicators of a CoP that Wenger (1998) has enumerated, such as “sustained mutual relationships”, “shared ways of engaging in doing things together”, “mutually defining identities”, “specific tools, representations, and other artifacts”, “jargon and shortcuts to communication”, and “certain styles recognised as displaying membership” (p. 125). Finally, an initial literature review showed that there is limited research on some aspects of teacher education which CoP considers significant in any educational practice. Adopting a CoP perspective in this review helped highlight the importance of these aspects. Therefore, while

like other reviews, the present one acknowledges empirical and conceptual works which have promoted teacher education as a community practice, it also highlights some of the under-researched aspects of this practice which CoP considers significant. The latter is most clearly reflected in sections where most of the discussion is of a conceptual nature and mainly based upon CoP references, while relevant ideas from the limited teacher education literature are also incorporated (see the ‘Content as reification’ section below for an example).

Methodology

To prepare a narrative literature review which is comprehensive, there was a need to account for those studies which were based on social learning theories other than COP but shared major concepts with it. To that end, a conceptual framework was developed of the key concepts of COP which, in turn, could be used to identify studies reflecting these from a wider range of theoretical perspectives (see Figure 2).

As the figure shows, the concept of reification in CoP translated into a focus on content, the ‘what’ of teacher education, in this review. In line with Wenger’s (1998) conceptualisation of reification, two subthemes were developed, namely redefining and negotiating content. Participation was taken as constituting the other overarching theme, guiding the focus on the ‘how’ of teacher education. As explained later, the researcher came to consider participation as encompassing the three identification modes of engagement, imagination, and alignment. In CoP, engagement is considered the most critical ingredient of the processes of learning and identity construction (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and it has been presented by Wenger (1998) as having multiple dimensions. To adequately address these dimensions, subthemes were developed for this mode of identification focusing on trust, mutuality, diversity of perspectives, membership in multiple communities, and boundary encounters. These themes and subthemes and any synonyms likely reflecting the same concepts were used in the search of the related teacher education literature in ERIC, Scopus, and Google Scholar. The search also included a consideration of the references cited in publications found in the database search.

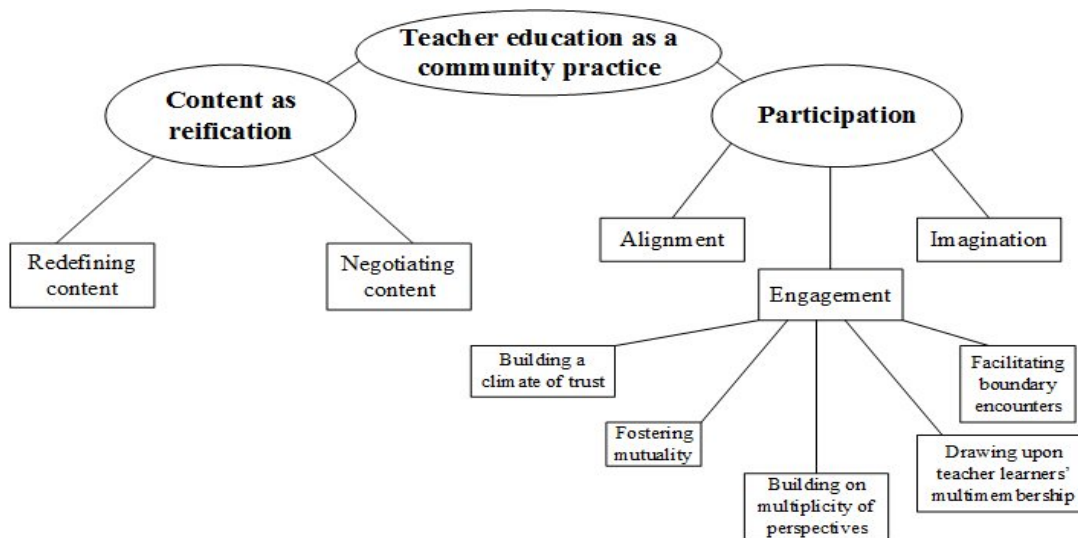


Figure 2. CoP-informed conceptual framework for literature review

Since the researcher was particularly interested in reviewing studies which had a focus on teacher identity construction, ‘teacher identity’ together with collocations, namely ‘development’, ‘formation’, ‘construction’, ‘negotiation’, and ‘work’ also informed the search. While studies on teacher identity were prioritised, studies which examined other aspects of teacher learning were also included, especially in sections where only few or no studies on teacher identity were located. Finally, studies which had used CoP only as an analytical tool to examine teacher learning and identity formation were excluded. In other words, only those reporting on teacher education programs which were ‘informed’ by CoP were reviewed. As mentioned earlier, the purpose was to review studies where a CoP perspective has been adopted to foster rather than study teacher learning.

Dimensions of Teacher Education as a Community Practice

Each part of this section introduces a key concept in CoP shown in Figure 2 and presents the relevant theoretical pieces and studies in teacher education. The first focus is on content, one of the most neglected components of teacher education in the literature.

Content as Reification

Most of the literature on negotiation of content and curriculum focuses on the typical classroom where a teacher teaches a particular skill or subject matter to a group of students. This line of research emphasises the significance and benefits of teachers' giving learners an opportunity to contribute to the classroom content (e.g., Breen & Littlejohn, 2000; D. F. Clarke, 1991; Hopkins, 2015). Very little, however, has been said about negotiating the content of teacher education with teacher learners. In fact, although constructivist and critical approaches to teacher education highlight the importance of providing room for teachers to actively contribute to the curriculum and classroom content (Crookes, 2013; Kumaravadivelu, 2003), there are few accounts of teachers themselves being given space within teacher education programs to make such contributions (e.g., Crookes & Lehner, 1998). This presents something of a paradox in that teachers are encouraged to give their students the liberty they themselves are deprived of as students of teacher education, where "[p]rofessional development often is ... done to or for teachers, rather than by or with them" (McCotter, 2001, p. 701).

It could be argued that if teachers are expected to teach in a negotiated manner, they need to be educated in a like manner (McKernan & Powers, 2000). However, to acknowledge this is only the first step with the greater concern being how it might be achieved. The concept of *reification* proposed by Wenger (1998) presents us with an alternative view of content, which goes beyond its conventional forms (e.g. textbooks and lectures), and how it can be negotiated and engaged with to facilitate teacher identity development.

Wenger (1998) uses the word *reification* to describe both the process of giving form to a meaning or experience and the product or created form itself. Some examples of reification are (formulation of) rules, (production of) tools, and (development of) classroom materials. In fact, reification can take diverse forms. In a classroom setting, reified forms of understanding can take such different forms as a book or an individual comment. Regarding the centrality of reification to learning as meaning negotiation, Wenger (1998, p. 58) observes, "We project our meanings into the world and then we perceive them as existing in the world, as having a reality of their own... In so doing we create points of focus around which the negotiation of meaning becomes organized". In this way, reification not only manifests or organises our thoughts and experiences, but additionally it shapes them, since "[h]aving a tool to perform an activity changes the nature of that activity" (Wenger, 1998, p. 59).

In support of his use of reification as referring to both the process and the product of reifying meanings, Wenger argues that “the process and the product always imply each other” (1998, p. 60) and presents two key propositions: a) reification does not necessarily occur in the stage of designing a practice as it can capture transient moments of engagement in practice too (as implied by the example of an individual comment above), and b) while a great portion of reification may come from experts outside the community, like books written by scholars, the members reappropriate it into their local practice so that it becomes meaningful to them. Also, since reification shapes our experiences and meanings, for a learning experience to be inclusive and negotiated and for all learners to share equitably in the shaping of their own and others’ meanings, conscious attempts should be made to facilitate their “access to the full reificative paraphernalia of practice” (Wenger, 1998, p. 184). These propositions have a number of implications for teacher education content in terms of how it might be redefined, negotiated, and engaged with. These will be discussed below together with the literature reporting on their implementation in teacher education.

Redefining content

Traditional models of teacher training tend to define content mainly as expert knowledge reified and transferred to trainees in the form of prescriptions externally defined and delineated in methodology books (Freeman, 2001; J. C. Richards & Farrell, 2005). From a CoP perspective, however, textbooks and teacher educators’ lectures are only some out of a wide range of content types. The reason why these forms of content, in particular, are most readily and typically identified as ‘knowledge’ is that they are produced by experts who are often given a privileged status of unquestionable credibility. A consequence of this stratification of expertise is that their ideas are usually trusted as adequate and universally applicable, and form the basis of teacher evaluation (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b).

In contrast, content redefined in terms of reification goes beyond these traditionally defined types and embraces a wider range of resources, such as practitioner oriented and produced content, which is not necessarily part of the published literature, and teacher learners’ own input. Some examples of the former are online blogs and forums of teachers (usually part of online teacher communities) (Hanson-Smith, 2006), teaching podcasts and videos, and practitioner journals. The latter include teacher learners’ reflective journals, sample lessons, video recordings of their own teaching practice, spoken classroom discussions, and written

online discussions in the environments provided by course management systems, such as chat tools for synchronous communication and threaded discussion boards allowing asynchronous communication.

Considering these as content is, in a sense, acknowledging practitioners' and teacher learners' meanings and experiences (de Sonneville, 2007) and their ownership of meanings negotiated in the course (Wenger, 1998). In other words, instead of assuming the so-called experts as masters and owners of expertise, which essentially puts practitioners in the category of novices who lack it, content as reified meanings encompasses teachers' lived experiences and theories-in-action (M. Williams & Burden, 1997). In this way, it helps narrow the theory-practice divide that transmission models of teacher education build on and reinforce (M. A. Clarke, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 2003, 2006b). In Lave and Wenger's (1991) words, it promotes "a decentred view of the master as pedagogue", that "mastery resides not in the master but in the organisation of the community of practice of which the master is part" (p. 94). Therefore, the legitimacy of meanings produced by a participant is not determined by their professional status (e.g., being a textbook author, a teacher educator, or an experienced science teacher now attending a TESOL course); rather, it is examined in light of how current and competent they are considered by the collective, a process Wenger refers to as "mutual evaluation" (1998, p. 235). The more current and competent the meanings produced by participants are perceived to be, the more likely they are to be adopted by the community. A major outcome of this is the participants' development of *an identity of participation* (Wenger, 1998). Incorporation of their input into teacher education content is a concrete manifestation of this adoption and, therefore, a catalyst for their identity development.

Negotiating content

The dynamic and inclusive conceptualisation of content presented above necessitates negotiation in the process of its development. Developing the content of teacher education without negotiation with teacher learners is tantamount to denying the significance of the experiences and understandings they bring to the course, depriving them of legitimate peripheral participation in their own professional development, and, consequently, reinforcing a knowledge transmission approach. The well-documented consequence of lack of negotiation in the knowledge transmission model of teacher education is a mismatch between its goals and teachers' needs (Knight, 2002) and inadequate transfer between the educational context and

workplace (Soden & Halliday, 2000), because an external view of teachers' needs determines what content should be presented to them (C. Day, 1999).

The negotiation of content and inclusion of teacher learners' voices in this process can be facilitated in a number of ways. At the design stage, flexibility needs to be provided to allow for their contribution to content. This flexibility can be achieved through establishing course procedures which explicitly acknowledge teacher learners' share in the production and selection of classroom content, developing guidelines which help them fulfil this role, and providing access to resources from which they can access content. Also, course policies should allow for teachers' produced content, such as their reflective journals and lesson plans, to become the focus of reflection and discussion in the classroom. An example of this taken from a Sociology of Education course in Finland saw teachers' agency acknowledged by their involvement in the selection of readings and the choices they had in developing an argumentative text from their own points of view (Moate & Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2014). Another example is teachers contributing to the content of a community of practice through suggesting texts for the group's reading agenda and presenting and discussing video clips of their classroom teaching in the meetings (Thomas, Wineburg, Grossman, Myhre, & Woolworth, 1998). Allowing teacher learners to make such contributions facilitates their identity construction through enhancing their sense of membership in the teacher education programs.

From a CoP perspective, negotiating content is not just about involving participants in decisions about materials. It also encompasses teacher learners' meaningful engagement with it. Teacher reflection tools, such as journal writing, action research and group discussions, enhance this meaningful engagement (Farrell, 2007) and facilitate teacher learners' conscious reflection on their professional role identities (Farrell, 2011; Hsiu-ting, 2008). Going beyond a mainstream view of reflection, critical approaches to teacher education explicitly advocate teacher learners' critical engagement with content. A possible framework proposed to guide this engagement is critical literacy. In fact, as with reification in CoP, 'text' in critical literacy goes beyond its conventional sense of something written. It includes everything serving as a "vehicle through which individuals communicate with one another using the codes and conventions of society" (E. Robinson & Robinson, 2003, p. 3) .

Enhancing teacher learners' critical literacy is argued to be possible in an atmosphere of support, respect, and critical dialogue (Fernandez-Balboa & Marshall, 1994) where willingness

and capacity to change are valued and encouraged (Woodcock, 2009). A critical literacy approach to teacher education has been reported to help teachers revisit their pedagogical visions (Woodcock, 2009) and professional identities (Abednia, 2012). In the latter, for example, the researcher reported major shifts in English language teacher learners' identities, namely from conformity to and romanticisation of dominant ideologies to critical autonomy, from an instrumentalist orientation of teaching to a transformative one, and from a linguistic and technical view of teaching English to a socio-educational approach. Another example is the study by Dozier, Johnston, and Rogers (2006) who observed that critical teacher education facilitated the participants' developing the identity of critical literacy models for their students.

As significant as negotiation of and critical engagement with content are, these aspects do not fully account for the potential of teacher education for fostering teacher development and identity construction. As mentioned in the introduction, CoP argues that the process of negotiation of meaning involves a combination of reification and participation. Although the discussion of content as reification in this section included certain aspects of participation, a more explicit focus on the participative aspect of meaning negotiation is in order.

Participation

Critiques of CoP have questioned the clarity of the concept of participation as defined and used by Wenger. For example, it has been argued that Wenger has used participation and practice interchangeably (Handley, Sturdy, Fincham, & Clark, 2006) and has not been clear as to the distinction between participation and mutual engagement (Storberg-Walker, 2008). Consequently, researchers are presented with difficulties in operationalising CoP. To help resolve the conceptual difficulty and vagueness of participation, the researcher has conceptualised it in terms of the three modes of identification (i.e., engagement, imagination, and alignment). Participation is the social experience of negotiating meaning in terms of community membership and, therefore, a space for identity development. Engagement, imagination, and alignment are also modes of identity formation facilitated by participation in meaning negotiation. In fact, Wenger used to refer to them as modes of belonging (Wenger, 1998), emphasising how a focus on each of them fosters community membership or, in Lave and Wenger's (1991) words, legitimate participation. Furthermore, each of these modes highlights one aspect of participation in social activities, namely direct engagement with the immediate community of practice and directly accessible communities, participation in

imagined communities, and coordination of our practices and energies to fit within broader communities as legitimate participants. This understanding leads the present researcher to view engagement, imagination, and alignment as three avenues for teacher education to facilitate teacher learners' participation in the process of learning to teach and contribute to their identity development. The way Wenger conceptualises participation verifies the legitimacy of this view:

Participation here refers not just to local events of engagement in certain activities with certain people, but to a more encompassing process of being active participants in the *practices* of social communities and *constructing identities* in relation to these communities. Participating in a playground clique or in a work team, for instance, is both a kind of action and a form of belonging. Such participation shapes not only what we do, but also who we are and how we interpret what we do (Wenger, 1998, p. 3).

This section discusses these modes from a CoP perspective together with the insights that the teacher education literature offers regarding teacher learning in terms of these modes.

Engagement

Lave and Wenger (1991) conceptualise learning as situated within a community of practice to emphasise that every practice human beings are involved in is essentially social and that learning happens as a result of engagement in that practice (Cox, 2005). Therefore, they consider engagement as the most critical ingredient of the social fabric of learning and identity construction. Wenger (1998) defines engagement as active involvement in mutual processes of negotiating meaning and argues that it does not happen automatically; rather, it needs to be consciously planned. Similarly, Dewey argues:

Community life does not organize itself in an enduring way purely spontaneously. It requires thought and planning ahead. The educator is responsible for a knowledge of individuals and for a knowledge of subject-matter that will enable activities to be selected which lend themselves to social organization, an organization in which all individuals have an opportunity to contribute something, and in which the activities in which all participate are the chief carrier of control (Dewey, 1938 [1997], p. 56).

Based on this line of thinking, Moate and Ruohotie-Lyhty (2014) conclude that a crucial responsibility of teacher education is to provide a community-based environment that supports

the development of relationships between members, educational communities, theory, and practice. Different ways in which this environment is created are as follows.

Building a climate of trust

A prerequisite to mutual engagement in the process of learning to teach is a culture of trust. Given the considerable emphasis on the social nature of learning and identity formation in CoP, the concept of trust goes beyond its personal sense (as in trusting someone with our personal information) and encompasses trust that the partnerships within the community promote learning as the members have different experiences enabling them to make unique but relevant contributions to practice (Wenger, 2010). In-service teachers have already experienced teaching in different contexts, and, depending on the length and quality of their involvement in the profession, some have more experience than others. In pre-service programs, although participants have not practiced as teachers, they do have relevant experience gained through apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) and engagement in other types of social practice which are not commonly considered as educational yet involve learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, to conduct teacher education as a community practice means to trust teacher learners' capacity to contribute to their own and peers' learning and to factor this capacity into the planning and implementation of pre- and in-service programs.

Trust has been a minor focus in some studies of teacher education. For example, Johannessen (2015) reported on a CoP consisting of nine Christian religion education teachers and two researchers who conducted a collaborative action research project. Interpersonal trust and solidarity were among the features of the CoP found to be conducive to the participants' critical reflection and professional identity construction. Englert and Tarrant (1995) studied a professional learning community in which three special education teachers and seven university researchers collaborated to improve literacy instruction for students with disabilities. Trust in the teachers' experience and insight manifested itself in the space they were given to contribute to curriculum development. This experience of engagement fostered their identity formation through strengthening their sense of ownership over the curriculum. Yildirim (2008) created a CoP which involved weekly meetings with three primary teachers of English to young learners and reflective discussions based on selected readings. Perceived lack of a hierarchical structure and jealousy generated a sense of safety, trust, and confidence in each other on the part of the teachers. This atmosphere facilitated their learning and taking on new identities

informed by new knowledge and skills. Other studies have also shown that a climate of trust increases participants' willingness to share knowledge, experiment, innovate, and take risks and, therefore, develop a high level of mutual understanding (C. M. Johnson, 2001; Joanne Roberts, 2006).

Fostering mutuality

Closely related to trust is mutuality of engagement. Wenger (1998) has argued that for engagement to be a productive process of learning and identity construction, it must be mutual in the sense that participants contribute to each other's meaning making. He believes engagement is mutual when meanings produced by a member are adopted by the rest and, therefore, contribute to the learning of the community. The researcher would argue, however, that for mutual engagement to occur, a community member's meanings need to be recognised and valued as relevant and worth serious consideration, but not necessarily adopted. In the context of teacher education, this means that teacher learners' ideas and experiences should form as much the basis of collaborative reflection and critical dialogue in teacher education as does the content of textbooks and lectures. de Sonneville (2007) refers to this as 'acknowledgement' and defines it as "giving them [teachers] the space to articulate their position without judgement and validating their perception of their own experience" (p. 56). Wenger (1998) believes that the experience of mutuality of engagement is at the core of identity formation as it brings life to our social selves, and lack of it results in participants' marginality, alienation, and development of an identity of non-participation. Moreover, identity construction is an essentially social process of making sense of one's own place in a community: "We become who we are by being able to play a part in the relations of engagement that constitute our community" (Wenger, 1998, p. 152).

Increasing emphasis on mutual engagement in teacher education has manifested itself in the increasing advocacy of teacher collaboration as part of teachers' professional development. Different forms of teacher collaboration have been shown to foster mutuality and, as a result, teacher professional development and identity formation. Some of these are professional learning communities (Vescio, Ross, & Adams, 2008), paired practicum placements (Dang, 2013), co-teaching (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010), critical friends (Farrell, 2007; Franzak, 2002), and participation in communities of practice as part of pre-service (Sim, 2006) and in-service (Thomas et al., 1998; Verplaetse, Ferraro, & Anderberg, 2012) education.

While many of these forms of collaboration foster peer interactions between teacher learners, mutuality can be extended to the relationship between teacher learners and other parties involved in teacher education and development. Thomas et al. (1998), for example, reported that in a community of practice where experienced, novice and student teachers of history and English, a special education teacher, and university experts (the authors), mutuality manifested itself in all members' willingness "to draw on collective understandings that emerged through shared discourse" (p. 27). Regarding interactions between preservice teachers and supervisory teachers during professional experiences, Le Cornu and Ewing (2008) reported deliberate use of the terms 'mentor teacher', 'peer mentor', and 'tertiary mentor' to refer to supervisory teachers in their attempt to reconceptualise these experiences around the notion of learning communities. They explained that this change in nomenclature was made to facilitate a shift in supervisory teachers' role towards more collegiality, reciprocity, and engagement.

The above discussion and empirical evidence show the importance of maximising mutuality of teacher learner' engagement in the process of learning to teach. A major challenge, however, in fostering collaboration in teacher education is large class sizes and limited available time. This issue can be partly resolved through incorporating electronic means of collaboration, such as twitter (Kim & Cavas, 2013), Google Sites (Chen, 2012) and blogs (Byington, 2011), and online course management systems like blackboard (Clay, Silverman, & Fischer, 2012). These virtual tools enhance mutuality as they do not require participants to conform to behavioural norms established in the traditional classroom setting (C. M. Johnson, 2001). In addition, they increase mutual access in terms of time and space (Wenger, 1998).

The safe atmosphere of mutuality created in online collaborative spaces facilitates teachers' identity construction. J. Anderson et al. (2013) report that blogging in a pre-service elementary teacher education program afforded opportunities for the participants to both identify similarities between their own views and those of the other participants and the wider community, and take positions different from the collective stance. In this way, these online communities of practice fostered development of the collective and individual aspects of the participants' identities. Another example is Hanuscin, Cheng, Rebello, Sinha, and Muslu (2014) who observed that blogging helped science teachers try on the identity of teacher-leaders as they reflected on implementing a new freshman physics curriculum.

Building on multiplicity of perspectives

As mentioned in the previous section, mutuality does not entail adherence to produced meanings. This is because mutual relationships can sometimes be conflictual rather than harmonious (Wenger, 1998). Moreover, requiring adherence and conformity, usually to meanings produced by experts, suppresses teacher learners' reflection and creativity (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Earlier it was also argued that redefining content as reification takes it beyond expert knowledge, encompasses meanings produced by teacher learners as equally legitimate, and considers both as potentially falsifiable. Therefore, it promotes critical engagement with content as acknowledgement of its relevance and potential validity (see the discussion about adoption in 'Fostering mutuality'). In this type of critical examination of produced meanings, their complexities and ambiguities, together with the multiplicity of the participants' understandings, surface. CoP does not consider these mismatched understandings as problems to be solved. Rather, it regards them as a stimulus for in-depth reflection on ideas and experiences presented by the members, critical analysis of unexamined assumptions, and, in turn, the raising of teacher learners' critical consciousness (Wenger, 1998). Teacher learners may not always share this view and instead see differences as problematic, as did the participants in Leonard's (2014) study for example. Three high school teachers and seven college professors collaborated in the form of two communities of practice with the aim of preparing the high school teachers to teach in college. Leonard (2014) reported that some of the participants considered differences in experience and style as suggesting inferiority and a challenge to their identity. Consequently, they avoided discussing their views freely in the meetings. Wineburg and Grossman (1998) similarly observed that the teachers participating in a CoP interpreted disagreements as instances of interpersonal conflict. Later, however, the participants came to associate disagreements with differences in their teaching beliefs and built on those differences for critical reflection on their beliefs.

An atmosphere of critical dialogue in teacher education enables teacher learners to appreciate the significance of diversity of perspectives and build on them to learn rather than consider them as problematic. This atmosphere encourages participants to acknowledge and respect multiple and mismatched understandings, utilise them as unique opportunities for looking at the world from different perspectives, and avoid insisting on a single perspective as the most valid. Arguing against the assumption that pre-service teachers are essentially equipped with the skills of critical dialogue, in a conceptual piece Marchel (2007) presents a model for

teaching these skills in teacher education programs. In her model, she presents four steps, namely explaining the concept and purposes of critical dialogue, discussing the stumbling blocks (e.g., dependence on intuition and the rush to give advice), modelling critical dialogue, and facilitating guided practice. In a preservice elementary teacher education course, Depalma (2010) created a dialogical atmosphere where multiple voices were invited, and disagreements, uncertainties, and authentic questions were valued. The online discussions showed that the participants actively respected and acknowledged each other's views, re-examined their own views, and identified similarities with those with whom they would disagree. Critical friendship can also contribute to teachers' appreciation of different perspectives, as it "encourages talking with, questioning, and even confronting, the trusted other, in order to examine planning for teaching, implementation, and its evaluation (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p. 41). Research shows that critical friendship encourages teachers to acknowledge differences between local contexts of teaching (Franzak, 2002) and appreciate alternative perspectives on, and methods of, instruction and evaluation (Farrell, 2007). A problem-posing approach similarly enables student teachers to appreciate diversity. In a conceptual piece, Houser (2007) proposes a framework of problem-posing teacher education consisting of three phases: articulation of concerns, examination of connections, and consideration of alternative possibilities. He argues that helping teacher learners to reflect on their concerns and identify their connections to wider social, political, and cultural contexts enables them to explore and develop alternative solutions to the recognised concerns and problems in light of contextual factors and, as a result, "join the larger conversation" (Houser, 2007, p. 45).

Drawing upon teacher learners' multimembership

A recurring theme in the discussion so far has been that for teacher education to serve as a space for teacher identity construction, experiences that teacher learners gain through involvement in different social activities should be incorporated into content as points of focus around which to negotiate meanings. From a CoP perspective, an individual simultaneously belongs to several communities, such as family, workplace, professional societies, academic institutions, political associations, and different social networks, and their involvement in the social activities of each community at a given time is more or less informed by their membership in all the rest and the experience they gain from those memberships. Therefore, their identity is 'a nexus of multimembership' (Wenger, 1998, 2010). This means experiences and meanings teacher learners bring to the teacher education program from the multiple

communities to which they belong should be acknowledged. This can immediately make sense in the context of in-service education, as the participants are already involved in the practice of teaching. It is no less important, however, to acknowledge and draw upon student teachers' multimembership in pre-service programs because of their apprenticeship of observation and membership in communities other than a teaching workplace.

Values, roles, and accountabilities vary across the multiple communities teacher learners belong to, including teacher education. These differences cause tensions as they negotiate their membership in teacher education and the wider professional community. Therefore, to fully acknowledge teacher learners' identity as a nexus of multimembership, teacher education should help them reconcile those tensions and construct "identity as reconciliation" (Wenger, 1998, p. 159), rather than suppress or fail to address them, as may happen in teacher training with a transmission orientation.

The significance of acknowledging teacher learners' multimembership and striving towards reconciling the inherent tensions in their identity formation has been highlighted in several studies. Niesz (2010) reports how taking part in a teacher cohort where the participants' identities as members of other communities were acknowledged helped them achieve "identity congruence" (p. 42) and facilitated their development of a collective identity. Studies by J. Williams (2010) and Nelson and Temples (2011) also found that recognition of the knowledge and expertise that teacher learners gain as members of other communities and relevant academic and social support create a space conducive to participants' identity construction, and lack of this support may lead to their marginalisation and development of an identity of nonparticipation. Fejes and Köpsén (2014) have similarly highlighted the significance of providing academic support in vocational in-service teacher education in helping teachers maintain a balance between their teacher and occupational identities. Finally, in initial teacher education, Griffiths (2002) found that for mature students who are mothers to be able to transfer their domestic and parental skills to teaching, systematic attempts should be made to create links between their experiences and teaching. Overall, acknowledging teacher learners' concerns, incorporating the (professional) biographies they have developed in other communities, and addressing tensions arising from differences between those communities and teacher education is likely to foster their meaningful engagement in the process of learning to teach and their identity formation (Mayotte, 2003; J. Williams, 2010).

Facilitating boundary encounters

For teacher education to further contribute to teacher learners' development of identity as a nexus of multimembership and authentic engagement in the process of learning to teach, it should take the learning experience beyond the boundaries of the course and foster interaction with other communities or, in Wenger's terms, 'boundary encounters' (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015; Wenger, 1998, 2000). These encounters may involve inviting external experts from the same or related areas to the teacher education course to participate in discussions related to their areas of expertise. Other examples are partnerships with similar communities (e.g., other teacher education courses in the same or other educational settings), joint events (e.g., seminars and panels), and the practicum component of teacher education which is a major means of connecting academe and industry.

Boundary encounters contribute to expansiveness which Wenger (2000) believes to be a major quality of a healthy identity:

A healthy identity will not be exclusively locally defined. It will involve multimembership and cross multiple boundaries. It will seek a wide range of experiences and be open to new possibilities. It will identify with broad communities that lie beyond direct participation (p. 240).

An explicit focus on expansiveness takes learning beyond the competence defined within the boundaries of a teacher education course and helps teacher learners become knowledgeable in the sense of developing an understanding of how their community-bound competence fits in the wider landscapes of practice (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015). Practicum, as mentioned earlier, is a typical boundary encounter as it connects student teachers' academic and workplace-based learning and fosters interactions between them and other parties involved in a placement. From among the countless studies which have explored how this professional experience contributes to teacher preparation, a few with a focus on teacher identity are reported here.

Baecher and Jewkes (2014) reported on benefits of face-to-face and online collaboration between early childhood education and second language teacher candidates in one section of the practicum each group was attending in their respective teacher preparation programs. The candidates' collaborative reflection on video records of teaching early childhood English language learners stimulated collective inquiry. It also fostered their identity construction in

that it helped them appreciate the significance of conscious attention to young learners' language development and contributions of cross-disciplinary collaboration to their pedagogical skills. Harlow and Cobb (2014a) reported on how an extended practicum experience in a redeveloped initial teacher education program fostered the participants' identity development in the first semester of the degree. A practicum component was incorporated into the program from the outset, where the participants were placed in pairs with associate teachers to directly engage in classroom teaching one day a week. Also some lectures were developed into in-school tutorials run collaboratively by university lecturers and school's associate lecturers. The authentic experience of engagement with classroom teaching and enhanced meaning making helped the student teachers develop a sense of belonging to the school community, gain confidence in their teaching skills, and transition from a student to a teacher identity. In a study of paired-placements, Trent (2014) explored how interactions between English as a second language student teachers, school-based teachers, and school authorities informed the student teachers' developing identity. The student teachers' participation in joint activities, peer acknowledgement, shared focus on their common histories and futures, and school authorities' positioning them as supporting teachers had positive impacts on their identities. However, the student teachers' distancing themselves from school teachers imposed limitations on their identity negotiation.

A number of studies have explored other types of boundary encounters. Moate and Ruohotie-Lyhty (2014) reported on three boundary initiatives incorporated into a Sociology of Education course. The initiatives involved the students' exchanging ideas with immigrants in the town, teaching primary students voluntarily, and taking photographs representing diversity in their surroundings and sharing them on Facebook with an American student group who also did the same thing followed by a Skype discussion. They observed that these initiatives contributed to the students' multicultural understanding, engagement in a multicultural community, and sensitivity to diversity respectively. They concluded that engaging teacher learners in boundary encounters is conducive to "strengthening connections between who they are (identity), what they do and can do (agency) and with whom they are engaging (community)" (Moate & Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2014, p. 260). Wilson, Bradbury, and McGlasson (2015) reported on contributions of service-learning to preservice elementary teachers' science identities. The experience engaged the student teachers in different activities ranging from building a trail in a local forest, through constructing a school garden with students, to teaching enquiry-based science activities to students and their families. This experience informed the student teachers'

science identities through enabling them to identify its relevance to their personal lives, to see themselves and others as users of science content knowledge and contributors to the environment and others, and to develop a positive view of science and enquiry-based science teaching. Similarly focusing on service-learning, Jovanović and Filipović (2013) studied how the identities of Serbian preservice teachers of Spanish were informed through participation in two community engagement initiatives. These initiatives were teaching extracurricular courses of Spanish to grade-school students in rural areas and conducting Spanish language workshops in two high schools. The preservice teachers' collaboration in curriculum development and teaching and the rapport created between them and their students fostered their identity formation. They developed an understanding of the complex relationship between the processes of learning and teaching, the impact of sociocultural and political factors on their teaching and their students' learning, and the importance of their role in designing and implementing foreign language instruction programs.

As reported in the studies above, boundary encounters can be facilitated in several ways, like practicum placements and service-learning. These encounters foster teacher growth in such ways as strengthening their sense of belonging to communities they interact with and fostering their identity negotiation as relating to their professional roles and subject matters they teach.

Imagination

The final two sections of engagement went beyond the boundaries of the teacher education course and highlighted the significance of teacher learners' engagement in the wider community for their professional growth. Identity construction, however, is not merely a matter of direct engagement in community practice. Rather, it also entails imagination:

Identification depends on the kind of picture of the world and of ourselves we can build. It depends on the connections we can envision across history and across the social landscape. Through these connections, identification expands through time and space, and our identities take on new dimensions (Wenger, 1998, p. 194).

In Greene's (2000) words, imagination is not fantasy or wishful thinking; rather, "of all our cognitive powers, imagination is the one that permits us to give credence to alternative realities. It allows us to break with the taken-for-granted, to set aside the familiar distinctions and definitions" (p. 3). Therefore, unlike engagement which does not necessarily entail conscious

attention to identity formation, imagination paves the way for our reflection on who we are (or not), where we come from, who we could be, and where we can go (Wenger, 1998). Reflection on where we can go highlights another significant aspect of imagination in that it stimulates anticipatory reflection and the imagining of a possible future (Conway, 2001) and, as a result, contributes to our transformative potential and creativity (Egan, 2005). Therefore, incorporating a pedagogy of imagination into teacher education encourages teacher learners to adopt a pedagogy of possibility in their own teaching practice and to serve as intellectuals committed to personal and social transformation (Freire, 1972; Giroux, 1988).

Wenger believes imagination has three main aspects, all of which should be supported in an educational program in order to foster identity formation. The first aspect is *orientation* which is about developing a general view of the landscape (i.e., the wider community) and our place within in. Second, *reflection* is about taking a fresh look at ourselves and our surroundings, and becoming aware of different ways in which phenomena can be construed. Finally, *exploration* is about not taking things for granted, examining possibilities, creating new trajectories, and reinventing the self and the world. In other words, facilitating imagination in these terms helps us construct our identities in the form of expanding our understanding of the world, improving our self-awareness, and creating (Wenger, 1998).

Studies in the context of teacher education show that stimulating these aspects of imagination through different tools, ranging from reflective journal writing (Cartwright & Noone, 2006), lesson study groups (Dudley, 2013), and action research (Chan, 2013) to films (Fontaine, 2010) and public art (Hirsch, 2012), contributes to teacher learning and identity formation. Dudley (2013) studied how primary teachers' imagination in lesson study groups helped them refine their pedagogical practice. It was observed that the process of imagining, observing, analysing, and re-imagining student learning helped teachers enhance student learning, co-construct new knowledge, and internalise the new pedagogical practice knowledge. Chan (2013) studied how imagination can contribute to in-service teachers' development of action research proposals. She observed that imagination could be usefully integrated in all stages of the development process. The teachers could develop mental images about students and classrooms, draw mind maps, take the imagined learners' role to write letters to imaginary teachers, and imagine the possible future classroom where the solutions they had developed would be implemented. She found that imagination helped the teachers understand the multiplicity and uniqueness of children's perspectives. E. Moore and Dooly (2010) found evidence of the positive effects of

imagination in a study of plurilingual group interaction in a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) teacher education course in Spain. They explored how participants simultaneously negotiated membership in the immediate community of teacher learners using Spanish and the imagined community of primary-school science teachers through English. They concluded that acknowledging teacher learners' plurilingual repertoires facilitated the participants' alignment to the imagined community of primary school science teachers and motivated them to develop their pedagogical skills in the teacher education course. Morton and Gray (2010) also explored identity formation in terms of negotiation of community membership in the context of second language teacher education. Analysis of student teachers' conversations in lesson planning conferences reflected their engagement in imagination as they presented proposals for action and reflected on possible impacts of these actions in the reality of teaching. These opportunities for meaning production facilitated the participants' negotiating membership in the immediate community of the teacher education classroom and the wider community of second language teachers.

Some studies have explored teacher imagination beyond mainstream classroom instruction. Cartwright and Noone (2006) report on how critical reflective writing in a pre-service teacher education course created space for the student teachers' critical imagination beyond their current mainstream views. Engagement in critical imagination helped the student teachers explore alternative possibilities and broaden their conceptions of education. Bolotin Joseph (2003) ran two seminars with MA Education students promoting moral imagination which she conceptualised in terms of perception, rationality, reflection, emotion, and caring for self. The participants developed a more imaginative and holistic view of their moral roles. They saw that each pupil is unique (perception), moral action must involve systemic treatment of injustice (rationality), they should question their own beliefs and actions (reflection), they should nurture an emotional connection with their students (emotion), and they should care about themselves in this process (caring for self).

Finally, a group of studies have focused on challenging aspects of teacher imagination. Theories teachers espouse in their imagination work have been found to not always accurately reflect their theories in action. Guz and Tetiurka's (2013) interviews with a group of second language teacher learners suggested that they were capable of identifying pedagogical strategies which were developmentally appropriate for primary-level learners. The participants' teaching practice, however, revealed misconceptions about these learners (e.g.,

children are able to understand abstract concepts and analyse language forms). Encounters with realities of teaching have been reported to strongly impact on the imagined identities teacher learners develop in teacher education programs. The teacher learners in Xu's (2013) study had developed the identities of "language expert, learning facilitator, [and] spiritual guide" at the end of their practicum. During the first four years of teaching, however, these shifted towards "language attrition sufferer, routine performer, [and] problem analyzer" (p. 572). Perseverance and agency helped one teacher maintain her "learning facilitator" identity. Limited experiences of teaching practice available within teacher education may also limit teachers' imagining identities beyond their assigned roles. Trent (2012) reports on how this happened as his participants fulfilled a compulsory research project while participating in their practicum. Finding it difficult to manage these two components of the teacher education program, simultaneously, they took on the identity of 'full-time teacher' and avoided imagining themselves as 'teacher-researchers'.

As the studies reported above suggest, fostering imagination in teacher education courses helps teacher learners develop a sense of membership in the immediate community of the course and the wider community of teachers working in different settings. It also facilitates their knowledge construction and negotiation of various roles, including critical and moral responsibilities. The studies also show that teachers may not implement in their teaching practice the theories and roles they espouse in their imagination. This some of these studies show to be a consequence of challenges they face in the reality of teaching.

Alignment

While imagination helps a CoP to push its boundaries and facilitates its interaction with imagined communities, alignment helps the CoP members to realise their imaginations through facilitating coordination of their practices and energies to fit within broader communities. Therefore, it magnifies their contribution to the growth of the immediate community to which they belong as well as the landscape of which this immediate community is a part (Wenger, 1998). Understood as such, alignment implies a two-way process of community members' aligning themselves with the dynamics dominating the landscape as well as demanding alignment with their own meanings and experiences. For members to be able to transform the landscape, they should minimally align themselves with it in the early stages of their involvement in it. More precisely, they should first become critically aware of its values,

policies, and procedures. This critical understanding helps them foster their peripheral legitimate participation across the landscape and qualify as knowledgeable members in the landscape's terms. It also helps them identify the resources available in the landscape that they can draw upon to develop autonomy. Members' legitimacy and awareness of the landscape's potential set the stage for their contribution to transformation of the landscape (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015; Wenger, 1998).

Another reason why alignment should be regarded as two-way is that CoP does not consider the structure of the community and the wider landscape as pre-given. Rather, it regards structure in a community as "an emerging property of interacting practices" (Wenger, 1998, p. 289), a continually recreated product of emergent community practices. Therefore, it avoids conceptualising the structure as merely the product of macro-actors (e.g., policy-makers) imposed on micro-actors (e.g., teachers), but, rather, as the outcome of contributions to meaning-negotiation of all actors, whose size "is precisely one of the things at stake in their struggles" (Fox, 2000, p. 862). In fact, it avoids the Cartesian person/world dualism and, instead, considers community members as "persons-in-activity" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 50) or "person[s]-in-the-world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 52). Therefore, individual members aligning themselves with the structure involves their acknowledgement of all past and present members' shared enterprise of negotiating meanings. Such acknowledgement is a precondition for contributing to meaning-negotiation and transformation of the community's practice. This view of structure makes the proposition of alignment as a two-way process more plausible.

The teacher education literature sometimes lacks a balanced focus on teacher accountability and autonomy, stressing one to the exclusion of the other. To start with, the scholarship on curricular alignment emphasises teachers' accountability to policies to the point of often entirely failing to acknowledge teachers' share in decision-making (e.g., Herman & Webb, 2007; Paik et al., 2011; Porter, Smithson, Blank, & Zeidner, 2007). Polikoff (2013), for example, emphasises the importance of education research and policy exclusively in terms of how they can help with 'implementation', rather than refinement, of Common Core Standards in the USA. Similarly uncritical of professional standards, L. W. Anderson (2002) goes as far as to say "if what they [teachers] are teaching is neither aligned with the state standards or the state assessments, then *their teaching is in vain* [emphasis added]. This is the educational equivalent of a tree falling in the forest with no one around" (p. 259).

An extensive literature is growing out of dissatisfaction with the impact of this curricular determinism on teacher agency, but quite paradoxically this body of research and theorisation also tends to deny teachers' agency, although in a different way. In their focus on the interplay between teachers and the wider institutional context, critics contributing to this body of literature often present teachers as helpless victims of the system-led discourse, or as operatives easily manipulated by policies and standards. Hayes (2001), for example, argues that the direct involvement of the UK government in education policy is leading to the emergence of "a new breed of teachers...characterised by a willingness to comply with the government's wishes and concentrate wholly on raising pupils' examination results" (p. 43). Similarly underestimating teachers' agency, Ball (2003) believes that this governmental control requires teachers "to set aside personal beliefs and commitments and live an existence of calculation", and concludes that "[t]he new performative worker is a promiscuous self, an enterprising self, with a passion for excellence" (p. 215), as defined in governmental terms. A similar picture is portrayed by Delandshere and Petrosky (2004) of teachers' situation in the USA, where "an ideology of 'no choice' and 'inevitability' is ... leading to passive implementation of standards-based curricula and assessment...further transforming teachers into professional bureaucrats who execute teaching rather than construct and transform it" (p. 12). Some of the scholarly writings in this critical literature, however, actively acknowledge teachers' agency through elevating their position to that of transformative intellectuals and cultural workers who contribute to human emancipation (e.g., Freire, 1972, 2005; Giroux, 1988). Yet, they often fail to acknowledge the significance of teachers' initial partial alignment with the established curriculum as a prerequisite for their legitimate participation and a catalyst for their contribution to its transformation. Consequently, they are criticised for making impossible demands on teachers without providing them the means to meet them (Akbari, 2008), thereby, establishing a repressive structure of their own (Ellsworth, 1989).

Our review of the teacher education literature did yield a number of studies which have adopted the view of alignment as a two-way process and focused on the interplay between teacher agency and the established structure. Jon Roberts and Graham (2008) explored how a group of student teachers fostered their self-directed development in the hierarchical climate of schooling in UK. They found that early in their placement the participants tried to fit in not to assimilate norms but to attain some autonomy in order to develop a professional identity of their own, a strategy that the authors called 'tactical compliance'. In US, some studies have focused on how teachers appropriate standards set by National Board certification (NBC).

These studies show that while meeting the NBC standards remains a major aim of candidates, the process of NBC fosters teachers' collegial support and active interaction (S. Park, Oliver, Johnson, Graham, & Oppong, 2007). Also, teachers incorporate aspects of the National Board practices into their teaching to varying degrees in an attempt to reconcile their identities as new members of the National Board community with their membership in other communities such as the schools where they work (Coskie & Place, 2008). In the context of secondary education in Canada, Schweisfurth (2006) observed that some teachers were able to identify opportunities within curricular policies and use the support of other teachers and a teacher education program in order to justify their own methods of teaching, while the rest considered the curriculum too restrictive for them to be creative. S. Robinson (2012) observed that, despite control mechanisms, teachers in a primary school in Australia were able to negotiate their agency in an atmosphere of collegial support through a combination of adopting and adapting requirements, "interpreting and re-shaping them into acceptable teaching practices and implementing them in a form which fitted with the philosophy of the school" (p. 243). The last two studies show that a spirit of collegiality is highly conducive to going beyond alignment as mere compliance and enabling teachers to transform the structure in place. This reemphasises the significance of a trusting, mutual, and dialogical culture in teacher education which was discussed in the section related to engagement.

Conclusion

This paper drew upon the literature on teacher education and CoP to explore what teacher education as a community practice may involve (the first question) and how it could contribute to teacher learning and identity development (the second question).

The review showed that the content of teacher education approached as a community practice is not limited to expert-produced content; rather, it encompasses reified forms of different stake-holders' lived experiences, including practitioner content and teacher learners' own input. Furthermore, content is not transferred to teacher learners in the form of pre-packaged information to regulate their identities; rather, it is negotiated with them and critically engaged with in order to facilitate teachers' identity work. The review also showed that teacher education as a community practice fosters teacher learners' active participation in the process of learning to teach and identity development through three major modes. Engagement involves teacher learners', and other stake-holders', developing trust in individuals' and the

community's potential for facilitating learning, mutual contribution to meaning making, building on diversity of perspectives, drawing upon teacher learners' multimembership, and facilitating boundary encounters. Imagination involves participants' reflection upon their (future) classroom teaching practice and their place in the wider community of teachers. Finally, alignment is practiced as a two-way process of teacher learners' aligning themselves with the dynamics dominating the educational system and their demanding alignment with their own meanings and experiences. The reviewed studies report on various teacher education tools and initiatives which can foster the above aspects. These include teacher learners' contribution to course materials, action research, reflective journal writing, lesson study groups, virtual collaboration, service-learning, practicum (including paired-placements), critical friendship, critical literacy, professional learning communities, and communities of practice.

Regarding the possible outcomes of conducting teacher education as a community practice, this literature review yielded various findings relating to several aspects of teacher growth. Teacher learners are reported to develop a more in-depth understanding of cultural diversity, the impact of sociocultural and political factors on their teaching and their students' learning, the complex relationship between the processes of learning and teaching, the multiplicity of learners' perspectives, and alternative teaching perspectives and methods. In the teacher education CoP, they identify similarities and differences between their own views and others', re-examine their views, develop pedagogical skills, internalise new pedagogical practice knowledge, and enhance student learning. Building on their own sense of agency and the support of other teachers and teacher education, they identify opportunities within curricular policies for self-directed development.

While all of these aspects are somehow or another connected to teacher identity, many of the reviewed studies also explicitly report on contributions of practicing teacher education as a community practice to teacher identity development. One such contribution is fostering teacher learners' transition from a student to a teacher identity through strengthening their sense of membership in the immediate community of the teacher education classroom, the school community, and the wider community of teachers working in different settings. Another one is facilitating reconciliation of teacher learners' membership in multiple communities, which may help them develop collective and individual aspects of their identities and achieve identity congruence. Other examples are growth in teacher learners' confidence in their teaching skills and autonomy, strengthening of their sense of agency, leadership, and ownership over curricula

and instructional programs, and developing the identity of a teacher with critical and moral roles.

Also emerging from the review are two major groups of factors which limit teacher learners' identity negotiation, namely teacher-related and contextual factors. As for the former, teachers sometimes interpret disagreements and differences in experience and style as instances of interpersonal conflict and a challenge to their identity. In addition, they may distance themselves from other parties they interact with as part of a teacher education program, like school teachers. This negatively impacts on their sense of belonging to relevant communities. Furthermore, their espoused theories constituting their imagined identities may differ from their theories in action reflected in their identities in practice.

The reported contextual factors affecting teacher learners' identity construction mainly revolve around realities of the teaching context. Some of these factors are restrictive curricula, lack of academic and social support, and limited time for implementing alternative teaching strategies and self-development. The reported consequences of these constraints include teacher learners' marginalisation and development of an identity of nonparticipation, shifting away from constructivist conceptions of teaching promoted in teacher education and towards institutionally assigned roles, and coming to consider the identity of 'full-time teacher' as exclusive of that of 'teacher-researcher'.

Since this review was narrative rather than systematic, there are studies not acknowledged here. However, attempts were made to incorporate those which are most relevant to the focus of the review. This enabled the researcher to identify some of the under-researched aspects of teacher education conceptualised as a community practice. For example, the limited number of studies focused on in the section of content suggests that it is a largely neglected topic in teacher education research. Not much has been written on negotiating content in teacher education programs and its contributions to teacher learning and identity formation. Nor has there been adequate research on teacher learners' critical engagement with expert-produced content and the possible outcomes of this engagement regarding teacher development and identity work. Viewing alignment as a two-way process where teacher agency and the established structure are in a dynamic interplay also highlighted another gap. While a number of studies having adopted this view were located, many were also found which presented teachers either as

passive victims with no agency to draw upon or transformative intellectuals who can liberate the world without even minimal alignment to the established order.

This review provided a big-picture perspective about how teacher education as a community practice operates, what are its possible outcomes in terms of teacher growth and identity development, and what limitations may hinder achievement of these outcomes. It also highlighted some under-researched areas to address in future research on teacher education which is informed by social learning theories like CoP.

As stated in the 'Connective Statement' preceding the Chapter, communities of practice serves as the theoretical framework of the present dissertation. Therefore, the key concepts related to this learning theory which were focused on throughout this chapter and schematically represented in Figure 2 (p. 52) inform the conceptual treatment of the findings in each of the empirical chapters (5-9) and also form the basis for integrating the separate sets of findings in a final discussion (Chapter 10).

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the context of the study, the participants, the data sources, and the data collection and analysis procedures are explained.

Context of the Study

As discussed in the ‘Critical Analysis’ section of Chapter 2, graduate courses of teacher education constitute one of the relatively neglected contexts in L2 teacher identity research. To address this gap, this research project is situated in a TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education (referred to as the TESOL Grad Cert hereafter), conducted at a university in Perth, Western Australia. The TESOL Grad Cert is a year-long, part-time course and consists of four units, namely Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Teaching ESL Skills, and ESL Teaching Methodology (pseudonyms). Two units are offered every semester. Each was taught in 12 weekly three-hour sessions, each combining the lecture and the tutorial components. The structure of the course allows students to select one unit from other areas of specialisation (e.g., Literacy Education, Educational Leadership, or Learning Difficulties) in consultation with the course coordinator. To enter the TESOL Grad Cert, applicants are required to have a Bachelor of Education, or a three-year undergraduate degree together with a Graduate Diploma of Education or equivalents. The university also encourages applicants who have Bachelor level degrees in fields unrelated to teaching to apply as special entry may be considered for them. Students in the TESOL Grad Cert can take four additional units related to research and assessment and receive a Master of Education. This particular graduate course was selected because of its convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher and the willingness expressed by the teacher educator to provide the researcher adequate support during data collection.

Participants and Research Materials

One phase of this research project was the analysis of conversations in the teacher education classroom to explore teacher learners’ in-the-moment identity experiences. In this phase, teacher learners were not treated individually but rather as a cohort of participants who co-accomplished classroom conversations together with the lecturer. Thus, a brief description of the lecturer and the entire cohort is given here.

The only lecturer of the course, who selected Winston as his pseudonym, has English as his first language, and is in his mid-40s. He has studied a number of languages such as French and Spanish and has taught ESL overseas and in Australia. At the time of the study, Winston was doing a PhD in Linguistics at a different university in Perth and also running a podcast on issues in linguistics.

The make-up of the cohort varied across the units because, as mentioned above, teacher learners could select a unit from other areas of specialisation. Also, some teacher learners did not take all of the units during the one-year period of data collection. An average of 14 students (2 male and 12 female), with an age range of late 20s to late 50s, attended the TESOL Grad Cert. Most identified themselves as Australian but not of an indigenous origin, and four were from other countries, namely Germany, England, Spain, and Indonesia. Most had teaching experience in primary and/or secondary education in different areas such as music, literacy, history, and dance. The cohort also included an IELTS instructor and a volunteer ESL teacher.

While all of the teacher learners gave their consent to be observed as they participated in the lectures and for their conversations to be audio- and video-recorded, seven agreed to be interviewed. See Table 1 below for their background. In the case of the participants who had recently received their teaching degrees, the year is included.

Table 1. Interviewees' backgrounds (CELTA=Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults; TAFE= Technical and Further Education)

| Pseudonym | Nationality | Teaching qualification | Teaching background | Teaching experience during the study |
|------------------|--------------------|---|--|--|
| Barry | Australian | Graduate Diploma of Education in 2012 | 15 years Youth and children's minister | Kindergarten to Year 7 Literacy, sports, mathematics, art, and music Primary and secondary schools |
| Denise | Australian | Bachelor degree; double major in 'Theatre and | 15 years Full-time English teacher English and Drama | Five mainstream English classes |

| | | | | |
|----------|------------|---|--|---|
| | | Creative Writing' and 'Literature, Language and Culture' Diploma of Education | Mainstream English: Year 10 and 11 Specialist English: Language Support, Aboriginal Transitions Has worked with children with ESL needs | and one English Transition class |
| Elaine | British | Graduate Diploma of Education in 2010 | 3 years Relief teaching Kindergarten to Year 7 Music, sports, general classroom One-year contract in a special education school in 2012 | Special needs two days a week Relief teaching |
| Gloria | Australian | Three-year Diploma of Teaching at Teachers' College CELTA | None | Volunteer teaching of ESL to refugees at a community centre |
| Jill | Australian | Diploma in Physical Education | 25 years Physical Education and Dance Relief teaching in an intensive English centre in a primary school for the last two years | Relief teaching of ESL to 4- to 7-year-old children |
| Madalina | German | Bachelor in Latin and History A two-year teaching degree in Teachers' College in Germany | 10 years Latin and History high school teacher in Germany 2 years Volunteer teaching of ESL at TAFE | Volunteer teaching of ESL at TAFE |
| Sally | Australian | Diploma of Education | One and a half years Relief teaching Kindergarten to Year 7 Mathematics, sports, music, health, special needs | Same |

In addition to classroom conversations and interviews, all of the documents related to the four units in the TESOL Grad Cert were used as a data source. The documents consisted of unit outlines, lecture slides, tutorial activities, tutorial preps, assignments, and, in the case of Linguistics and Sociolinguistics, final exams. Tutorial preps were short worksheets which

teacher learners were required to complete before most sessions to prepare for classroom discussions and reflections on the related readings.

Data Collection

The researcher observed three sessions of each of the units, early, in the middle, and late in the semester. Two sessions were audio recorded, and only one session was video recorded for less obtrusion and a higher likelihood of the participants giving consent to being observed. As explained above, the TESOL Grad Cert is a one-year degree; therefore, it took a year to collect the observation data. A total of eight sessions were audio recorded (around 20 hours), and four sessions were video recorded (around 10 hours). In the interview phase of the study, the researcher used a modified version of the interview framework he had developed in a previous study of L2 teacher identity (Abednia, 2012, pp. 714-716) based on Kelchtermans's (1993) conceptualisation of 'professional self'. Kelchtermans's original framework consisted of five dimensions, namely self-image, self-esteem, job motivation, task perception, and future perspective. Abednia (2012) enriched and updated this framework using other available conceptualisations of teacher identity, such as Bolívar and Domingo's (2006) retrospective identity and prospective identity and Buzzelli and Johnston's (2002) claimed vs. assigned identity. Family and career background and a section on the emotional aspect of teacher identity (Zembylas, 2005) were added. Also, self-esteem was replaced by self-efficacy given the importance attached to this construct in teacher education and the extensive research on this topic (Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). For the purpose of the present research project, a section focusing on teacher learners' perceptions of and expectations from the TESOL Grad Cert was added. The interview questions were examined in terms of how well they took account of the current context of research and participants. This resulted in minor rewording and reorganisation of some of the questions. Two slightly different versions of the interview framework were developed for collecting data early and late in the course. While the early-course version included the family and career background section, this was removed from the late-course version (see Appendix A). The early-course version of the interview was used in the piloting phase, where two students participating in the course in the semester before data collection was scheduled to be conducted were interviewed. Based on these two interviews, a few further changes were made in some of the interview items and their organisation for more clarity and coherence. As seven teacher learners agreed to the interview, 14 interviews were conducted, which lasted between

00:45 to 01:45 minutes. The interviews were transcribed verbatim and returned to the interviewees for member checking purposes. The researcher received no revisions or additional explanations from them. The documents related to the four units were provided by the lecturer.

Data Analysis

Classroom Conversations

The classroom observation data were analysed using a combination of Conversation Analysis (CA) (Sacks, 1992; ten Have, 2007), Fairclough's (2003) three-dimensional discourse analytic framework, his co-operative and egalitarian template for dialogue (Fairclough, 1999), and Zimmerman's (1998) proposal for identity categories at work in talk-in-interaction (i.e., discourse, situated, & transportable identities). Details are provided in the relevant sections of Chapters 5, 6, and 7, which report on the classroom conversations. These tools were used in varied combinations depending on how useful they were for the purpose of analysing each set of conversations focused on in these qualitative studies.

Interviews

The interviews were analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis, a widely used procedure to analyse interview data (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Braun, Clarke, & Rance, 2014), has been used in numerous studies on L2 teacher identity also reviewed in Chapter 2 (e.g., Farrell, 2011; Gardiner-Hyland, 2014; Ha, 2007; Ilieva, 2010; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Kiely & Ashkam, 2012; Kong, 2014; Lee, 2013; Nguyen & Sheridan, 2016; Pinho & Andrade, 2014; Velez-Rendón, 2010). The six-step guide to performing thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006) was drawn upon. The steps are as follows:

- Familiarising oneself with data: The researcher iteratively read the transcripts of each participant's early- and late-course interviews, noting down initial ideas regarding how they identified themselves as teachers at each of the two stages, how their identities may have shifted, and how conducive they had found the course to their development.
- Initial coding: The researcher systematically coded the potentially significant and salient features of the data. He did not commit himself to a specific unit of analysis and, thus, considered linguistic structures of varied types and lengths (i.e., single words, phrases, sentences, sets of sentences, and paragraphs) as potentially expressive of a

concept, perception, or idea. Phrases like “very basic” and “very shallow” that a participant used in an early-course interview to describe his knowledge of teaching and a sentence like “I don't have very well-developed pedagogical principles” from this participant were coded as ‘limited self-confidence’. Lexical items like “fresher”, “more recent”, and “more progressive” that the same participant used in the second interview to describe his knowledge of teaching were given the code ‘increased self-confidence’.

- Searching for themes: The researcher classified initial codes into potential themes. For instance, the sample coded excerpts reported in the previous step, together with similar codes from other parts of this participant’s interviews and the other participants’ data, showed that some aspects of the participants’ identities, including their confidence in their teaching knowledge and skills, may have undergone meaningful changes.
- Reviewing and refining themes: The researcher examined the developed themes in relation to the coded excerpts and the whole dataset. Regarding the potential theme related to changes in the participants’ identities, for example, the researcher’s comparison of the coded data across the interviews verified his earlier finding, but it also shed light on variations between the participants in terms of whether they attributed their identity shifts to participation in the TESOL Grad Cert or engagement with teaching outside of the course.
- Defining themes: The researcher conducted further analysis of the themes to refine their specifics and the overall story they told together. For instance, while the abovementioned analyses yielded the theme ‘A Growth in Self-confidence’, a different set of codes yielded the theme ‘No Significant Evidence of Identity Shifts’. These themes, together with the other developed themes, informed and enriched the overall story to report of the participants’ identity development through the TESOL Grad Cert and the related benefits and limitations of the course.
- Producing the report: selecting vivid excerpts from the data, enriching the analysis using the relevant literature, and producing a report.

As mentioned in ‘Data Collection’, other than the ‘family and career background’ section of the interview framework, which provided background information about the participants, the other major sections of the interview were the identity components and the part focusing on the participants’ perceptions of the TESOL Grad Cert. Regarding how the thematic analysis

steps were gone through in analysing the participants' answers to the identity-focused questions and those about the course, a brief focus to the findings reported in Chapter 8 is in order here. The findings show that an increase in some participants' self-confidence was the only meaningful identity shift that the analysis yielded, with no noticeable changes seen in the other aspects of their identities. Therefore, except for the evidence of changes in self-confidence, the rest of the identity data did not lead to the development of any meaningful themes, other than the general conclusion that no changes were identified. Thus, the identity findings are reported under the two general thematic headings: 'A Growth in Self-confidence' and 'No Significant Evidence of Identity Shifts', where similarities observed in the participants' answers to questions related to the other identity aspects across the two interviews are reported. The data related to the participants' perceptions of the TESOL Grad Cert, however, yielded more varied themes, namely 'Perceived strengths of the TESOL Grad Cert', 'Winston as a model', 'Perceived contributions of the TESOL Grad Cert to the TLs' development', and 'Perceived limitations of the TESOL Grad Cert', each including a number of subthemes.

Course Documents

The analysis of the course documents was informed by a 'directed content analysis' approach (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). In this approach, existing theory or prior research directs data analysis through providing initial coding categories (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999). The directions taken in analysing the documents of the four units in the TESOL Grad Cert were motivated by insights offered in the TESOL teacher education literature and the findings of other phases of the current study, namely the classroom conversations and the interviews. Thus, to explain the directed nature of the content analysis conducted of the documents, a brief focus on the findings of some of the chapters and relevant ideas from the literature is inevitable here.

As explained earlier, the course was comprised of four units: 'Linguistics' and 'Sociolinguistics', which were language-focused, and 'ESL teaching methodology' and 'Teaching ESL skills', which featured a pedagogical orientation. In Edge's (1988) terms, the first two addressed the 'language analyst' domain and the other two units featured a focus on the 'language teacher' domain of English language teaching.

Analysis of the documents of the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units was conducted specifically to explore instances of a pedagogical focus which may have been integrated into

their overall language analytical approach. This direction was informed by insights gained from the literature and other phases of the current study. Attaching great importance to integrating the 'language analyst' and 'language teacher' domains in TESOL teacher education, the literature has highlighted the failure of many teacher education programs in this regard. The literature reports this situation to be often a consequence of treating language-focused components the way they are addressed within courses of linguistics rather than as part of an applied linguistic/TESOL program (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Govardhan, Nayar, & Sheorey, 1999; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; LaFond & Dogancay-Aktuna, 2009). Chapter 6 which reports on the analysis of selected classroom conversations on the nature of language and language use suggests a similar situation in the TESOL Grad Cert. Mostly happening in the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units, these conversations are discussed to lack a focus on how the linguistic knowledge constructed in the exchanges can be applied in teaching practice. In other words, there appears to be a lack of connection between the 'language analyst' and 'language teacher' domains of ESL instruction. Therefore, the documents of these two units were investigated for any evidence of a focus on the 'language teacher' domain of English language teaching within the overall focus on the 'language analyst' domain in these two units.

Document analysis of the 'ESL teaching methodology' and 'Teaching ESL skills' units was conducted to examine their potential for facilitating engagement with teaching practice. As with the analysis of the documents of the other two units, the direction taken in this analysis was also informed by relevant findings reported in the literature and those yielded by other components of the current study. The literature on L2 teacher identity, as reported in Chapters 2 and 3, highlights the crucial role of engagement with teaching practice in fostering teacher identity formation (e.g., Henry, 2016; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Trent, 2010). Chapter 8 similarly yields a finding from the interviews relevant to the issue of a teaching practice focus in the course although mostly through negative evidence. The analysis of the interviews shows the major limitations of the course to be the perceived absence of practical elements and the participants' highly positive perceptions of the learning experience they gained through the assignments, which were among the most practical components of the course. Therefore, the documents of the 'ESL teaching methodology' and 'Teaching ESL skills' units were investigated in terms of facilitating engagement with teaching practice.

Following the procedure discussed by Hsieh and Shannon (2005) for directed content analysis, the researcher read all of the documents related to the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units to

identify and categorise all instances of a pedagogical focus in their overall language analytical approach and collated the relevant excerpts from the documents into a separate file. Given that the documents were of different types, they were analysed in the separate categories of unit outlines, lecture slides, tutorial activities and tutorial preps, and assignments and final examinations. Since this level of analysis yielded only limited evidence of integrating a pedagogical focus in each of these categories, no subcategories were developed within the mentioned document types nor did any macro categories emerge across these groups of documents. A similar procedure was followed to analyse the documents related to the 'ESL teaching methodology' and 'Teaching ESL skills' units. Since the lecture slides yielded relatively extensive instances of engagement with teaching, this document type was further categorised into 'presentations', 'discussions', and 'tasks', with tasks also including relevant evidence from tutorial activities and tutorial preps.

In Chapter 8, the findings related to each pair of units are reported through exemplars and descriptive evidence, followed by summary sections and a final discussion integrating insights from all of the units.

Ethical Considerations

In compliance with the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research, all of the students participating in the TESOL Grad Cert were provided with an information letter explaining the aim of the research project and that participation in the project would involve participation in two interviews, member checking of the interview transcripts if available, and having their participation in three sessions in each unit audio- and video-recorded. The potential participants were provided two participation alternatives: consenting to being observed only or taking part in the interviews in addition to the observations. The letter also included information regarding procedures to ensure complete confidentiality and anonymity and the contact information of the researcher and his thesis supervisors in case they had any questions to ask or concerns to share. In addition, it was made clear in the information letters that there were no risks associated with participating in this research, and the only inconveniences involved would be the time taken for the interviews and member checking and the presence of the researcher, a digital voice recorder, and a video camera for observations. Finally, it was explained in the information letters that participation in the research was voluntary and they could withdraw at any time with no penalty involved. Two information

letters and their corresponding consent forms were given to them so that they could indicate whether they were interested in being observed only or in also being interviewed. An information letter and a consent form were also given to the lecturer. The participants signed the consent forms and returned them to the researcher (see Appendices B, C, & D).

In the following three chapters (i.e., 5, 6 & 7), conversations happening in the TESOL Grad Cert are explored in terms of their potential for fostering teacher identity negotiation. These chapters are presented in the format of journal articles. Therefore, each starts with an abstract and includes the sections of a typical empirical paper, namely introduction/literature review, research methodology, findings, discussion, and conclusions. The following chapter, Chapter 5, reports on the interactional dynamics of two example exchanges in which the teacher learners critically examine the teacher educator's ideas within a dialogical atmosphere and, thus, engage in identity negotiation around the notion of co-learning.

CHAPTER 5

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS STUDY 1: DIALOGUE IN TESOL TEACHER EDUCATION—A SPACE FOR IDENTITY WORK

Abstract

Numerous studies have explored teachers' identity negotiation as they engage in different types of teacher education practice. However, there is a paucity of published research on how conversations in teacher education classrooms facilitate identity work. Two sample dialogues in a TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education in Australia were analysed using Conversation Analysis. The participants enacted a *co-learner* identity, with the teacher educator also serving as a *co-learning facilitator*. They negotiated these identities within an atmosphere of trust, mutuality, diversity of perspectives, and recognition of their membership in multiple communities.

Introduction

The area of TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of other Languages) teacher education has witnessed a growing literature on the place of teacher professional identity in teacher development and performance over the last two decades (e.g., M. Clarke, 2008; Varghese et al., 2005). Professional identity, which is a teacher's response to such questions as 'how do I see my role as a teacher?' and 'what kind of teacher do I want to be?' (Korthagen, 2004, p. 81) is a dynamic, socially negotiated, and shifting construct (Barrett, 2008; Norton, 1997). From a sociocultural perspective, identity formation is a key aspect of the process of learning to teach (H. T. Nguyen, 2008). Adopting this perspective, many researchers have explored teacher professional identity development in TESOL teacher education.

Some have studied how promotion of constructivist and critical approaches to TESOL may inform teachers' identity development. Abednia (2012), for example, reported that an undergraduate TESOL unit of critical teacher education facilitated a shift in teacher learners (TLs) from a conformist, instrumentalist, and language-bound view of TESOL to a critical,

socially-informed and transformative one. In a graduate TESOL writing unit, Lee (2013) observed TLs' shift from an evaluative, language-focused, and teacher-dominated orientation to an educative, social, and collaborative approach to teaching writing.

Some other studies have explored tensions between the types of identities promoted in university courses and those assigned to TLs in practicum. At university, the traditional, lecture-based view of teaching many TLs have developed throughout their schooling is challenged and instead teaching in a creative, imaginative, interactive, and learner-centred manner is promoted. In practicum, however, they are often expected to revert to the traditional style: to follow textbooks, transmit language information in a teacher-centred manner, and teach to the test (He & Lin, 2013; Trent, 2010b). Also limiting teachers' identity development are conflicts they sometimes have with their supporting teachers who may take an adversarial approach to them (Trent, 2013) or view them as having deficiencies (Santoro, 1997). Yet, some teachers are reported to be able to exercise agency in integrating, to varying degrees, the professional roles they find desirable into their practicum teaching experience (Gardiner-Hyland, 2014a; He & Lin, 2013; Trent, 2013).

Another group of studies have specifically examined the potential of collaboration in teacher education programs for identity development. Farrell (2011) observed that collaborative reflection in group meetings helped his experienced teacher participants reflect on different types of roles ranging from those assigned to them (e.g., vendor & entertainer) to those they individually created and negotiated (e.g., collaborator & learner). This reflective practice also raised their awareness of how these identities are shaped and by whom, and how they should be reconstructed. Trent and Shroff (2013) reported that engagement with an electronic portfolio encouraged undergraduate student teachers to distance themselves from a 'traditional' and 'low-technology' teacher identity to one of 'up-to-date' and 'modern' teacher. Finally, Pinho and Andrade (2014) studied the identity formation of a language teacher who participated in a professional development community focused on plurilingual education. Collaborative learning improved the participant's understanding of how to foster plurilingualism at school. She also became aware of how her identity formation was interconnected with her interactions with the school and people working there.

This brief review of the literature highlights contributions of different aspects of TESOL teacher education to teacher identity formation. One aspect of teacher education on which there

seems to be a paucity of published research is conversations teacher candidates have with each other and the teacher educator within the teacher education classroom. Given the connections identified between dialogue and identity in the literature of teacher development (e.g., Parr & Chan, 2015) and psychology (e.g., Ligorio, 2010), this gap needs to be addressed. In fact, the only study the researcher identified as having this focus is Morton and Gray (2010) which reports on the construction of pre-service TESOL teachers' professional identities within lesson planning conferences. Adopting a Communities of Practice perspective (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), the authors found that the participants' identity construction was fostered in different ways, such as having a significant share in the production of meanings and having their proposals positively evaluated and adopted by the teacher educators.

As a further step to explore teacher professional identity formation within dialogues in the teacher education classroom, this study reports on a micro-analysis of conversations in a graduate course of TESOL and the types of professional identity enacted in these conversations. Then, it draws upon Communities of Practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) to discuss how the interactional dynamics in the exchanges facilitate the TLs' identity work. The reason why a Communities of Practice perspective was adopted was that almost by definition any teacher education course could be considered a community where TLs are engaged in the joint practice of learning to teach using a shared repertoire of tools, jargon, and ways of engaging. Also, Communities of Practice conceptualises learning in terms of identity construction which is facilitated through legitimate participation in the process of negotiating meaning (i.e., everyday experience of living). It defines learning as "a way of being in the social world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 23), a process of developing an "identity of participation" (Wenger, 1998, p. 56) in or belonging to a community. Therefore, from a Communities of Practice viewpoint, being acknowledged as a legitimate member of a community (here the TESOL Grad Cert) who can contribute to its practice (here learning to teach) is reflective of an individual's authentic engagement in identity development.

In the next section, the context of the study and the methodology are explained, followed by an analysis of selected classroom conversations and discussion of the findings using Communities of Practice as the theoretical lens.

Study

Setting and Participants

The present study is situated in a TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education (referred to as the TESOL Grad Cert hereafter), conducted at a university in Perth, Western Australia. In the one-year TESOL Grad Cert, four units are offered, namely Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Teaching ESL Skills, and ESL Teaching Methodology (pseudonyms). The make-up of the class varied across the units because the TLs could select a unit from other areas of specialisation, such as Literacy Education or Educational Leadership. Also, some were attending one and some two units during the two semesters across which the course was observed. An average of 14 students (2 male and 12 female), with an age range of late 20s to late 50s attended the course. Most were local, and four were from other countries, namely Germany, England, Spain, and Indonesia. Most had teaching experience in primary and/or secondary education in different areas such as music, literacy, history, and dance. The cohort also included an IELTS instructor and a volunteer ESL teacher. The lecturer, who selected Winston as his pseudonym, is an American in his mid-40s and has been living in Australia for 20 years. He has studied a number of languages such as French and Spanish and has taught ESL in USA and Australia. At the time of the study, Winston was doing a PhD in Linguistics at a different university in Perth and also running a podcast on issues in linguistics.

Data Collection and Transcription

For the purpose of this study, the researcher observed three sessions of each of the units, audio recording two and video recording one for less obtrusion and a higher likelihood of the participants giving consent to being observed. Each session lasted around 3 hours. To make sense of the recorded exchanges, Conversation Analysis (CA) (Sacks, 1992; ten Have, 2007) was used since it focuses on how participants perceive what they and the other parties are doing in talk-in-interaction and, therefore, helps develop an *emic* understanding of the interactive construction of human interchanges (Mazeland, 2006). Compared to established approaches in social sciences, CA emphasises capturing naturally occurring interactions, facilitates close engagement with them as it draws on detailed renderings of interactional dynamics, and, therefore, enables researchers to explore the subtle ways in which people participate in interactions (ten Have, 2007). Additionally, CA provides a framework for analysing identity negotiation in conversation (e.g., Antaki, 2013).

In order to familiarise himself with the data, the researcher started by developing an inventory of the content of the data, called a 'content log' in CA (Goodwin, 1993; ten Have, 2007). He did so by listening to the audio and video recordings and taking notes of any salient events and phases in the teacher education classroom. The resultant content log consisted of Winston's lectures, dialogues between him and the TLs, the TLs' group activities, and his explanations about assignments and assessments. For the purpose of the present paper, the researcher focused on the second category because of the regular occurrence of dialogues in each observed session, the perceived depth of interactions between Winston and the participants in the dialogues compared to the other categories in the content log, and connections between dialogue and identity recognised in the literature of psychology (e.g., Ligorio, 2010) and teacher development (e.g., Parr & Chan, 2015).

In the second round of data exploration, summary descriptions of the dialogues were made with some basic transcription of the most salient parts of each (the key sequences and turns). In many of the exchanges, the interlocutors were observed to engage with and problematise each other's ideas and arguments. Some of these involved critical evaluation of ideas presented by Winston. The researcher found these particularly interesting in terms of teacher identity construction because within the wider transmission discourse of education (Sachs, 2001), these dialogues instantiate the identity of teachers as transformative intellectuals who are capable of collaborative reflection and agentic action (Giroux, 1988; Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

In order to select representative exchanges for detailed transcription and micro-analysis in the present paper, the researcher went through all of the recorded exchanges where the TLs questioned ideas presented by Winston in order to identify general patterns of interaction and any cases which reflected dynamics different from the emerging pattern. To do so, more transcription details were added to the exchanges to facilitate single-case analysis and cross-case comparisons in terms of four organisational features, namely turn-taking organisation, sequence organisation, repair organisation, and the organisation of turn-design (ten Have, 2007). This analysis reflected Winston's consistently dialogical approach to the TLs' critical comments. More precisely, all of the exchanges were characterised by his proactive invitation of counterarguments, active listenership, and acknowledgment of the TLs' contributions. Finally, two relatively long exchanges were selected for rigorous analysis and discussion in the present paper as they included most of the observations made in the rest of exchanges in this

category which would speak to their dialogical atmosphere. Also they had been video recorded, hence providing richer data for analysis.

The transcripts of the two exchanges were improved in a number of rounds. An initial corrective listening was conducted based on the audio recordings which had a higher sound quality to ensure the participants' utterances were transcribed accurately and verbatim, including all intelligible interjections. At the next round, features of speech production were added, following CA transcription conventions (Jefferson, 2004) (see Appendix E). Finally, relevant visual details were added in the form of line-to-line descriptions.

Data Analysis

The first stage of the analysis of the transcribed exchanges involved a turn-by-turn exploration of the dynamics of the participants' interactions in terms of the abovementioned four organisational features (ten Have, 2007). As mentioned above, research has shown connections between dialogue and teacher identity formation (e.g., Parr & Chan, 2015). To examine how well the analysed exchanges characterise dialogical interaction, they were then evaluated against Fairclough's (1999) co-operative and egalitarian template for dialogue. This template promotes recognition of all participants' right to take turns, use turns to fulfil different functions (e.g., asking questions, showing disagreement, etc.), speak without interruption, select and change the content of the dialogue, and offer analyses or interpretations. Winston's attempts to create a dialogical atmosphere as such were explored in terms of what functions he fulfilled in his own turns. To decide if a function was 'fulfilled', the researcher drew upon Antaki's (2013) argument that, for a person to have an identity is for their share in conversation to have interactional consequences, or, in other words, impact on what participants do next. Therefore, how the TLs responded to him were also explored, hence "bringing to light members' own analyses" (D. Day, 2013, p. 1050).

To establish connections between the particularities of talk focused on in these steps and the participants' identity work, the three categories of identity that Zimmerman (1998) has proposed as involved in verbal interaction were used:

- *discourse identities* assumed by individuals on a moment by moment basis (e.g., questioner),

- *situated identities* relevant to particular situations “brought into being and sustained by participants engaging in activities and respecting agendas that display an orientation to, and an alignment of, particular identity sets” (p. 90) (e.g., student and teacher),
- *transportable identities* potentially relevant across all situations (e.g., man and woman) and some of them may be made directly relevant to a particular interaction.

The functions that the above analysis showed as fulfilled in each turn were considered as the participants’ discourse identities. Therefore, the participants’ situated identities were explored through searching for roles they mostly oriented to in these functions/discourse identities. The excerpts were also analysed to identify any transportable identities at work on the part of Winston and the TLs.

In the following section, the transcribed exchanges and the first stage of their analysis are presented.

Conversation Analysis

Exchange 1. “What can we get from body language?”

In a whole-class discussion about the capabilities and tools human beings have which help them communicate successfully, a teacher learner (TL1) mentions ‘body language’. Winston’s response marks the start of the following exchange.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Winston (2.0) Yea::h you know (.) body language <u>does</u> tell you some things |
| 2 | ((pause)) You know, OK. I’m gonna say this |
| 3 | personally I think body language is oversold, (.) |
| 4 | I don’t think that body language is that important. |
| 5 | ((pause)) |
| 6 | And if it were:: (.) we wouldn’t be able to talk on the phone |
| 7 | (2.0) |
| 8 | TL1 OK, [yeah, true, |

9 Winston [Objections? (.)

10 What can we get from body language,? (3.0)

11 (*So far, Winston's gaze is directed at the whole class*)

12 TL2 Feelings and intentions.

13 Winston We could get feelings off of someone, (.) we could read facial expressions,

14 That's true, [I give you that. (.)

15 [*(Winston points at TL2)*]

16 What else can we get from<

17 TL3 Eye contact

18 Winston Yea:h, [what does eye contact tell us?

19 [*(Winston leans forward)*]

20 TL3 If you are [listening, how interested you are,

21 [*(Winston does different eye contacts as miming gestures to*

22 *acknowledge TL3's point that they convey different messages)*]

23 TL4 If you're believing someone, (.) you know, (.) the confidence or=

24 TL3 =Yeah, [rolling eyes back

25 Winston [Hmm

26 [*(Winston nods)*]

27 [Ahh

28 [*(Winston nods)*]

29 TL2 Disconnection

30 Winston Connection, sometimes, if (.) somebody's-if you tell somebody (.)

31 how he gets to a place, and then (.) they like (.) do this,

32 (*Winston frowns slightly and stares at an imaginary addressee*)

33 you know that they didn't get it (.) and you should try again. (.) So y↑eah (.)

34 I think that (.) the body language serves mostly as (.) traffic directors (.) like

35 it tells us whose turn it is to speak, (.) and (.) what we should do next. >not<

36 [maybe (.) necessarily as much meaning in there as the words that we use

37 [*(Winston tilts his head sideways)*]

38 [but certainly has got a lot of meaning to it

39 [*(Winston nods fast and leans forward)*]

40 TL1 Sort of like texting. (.) You can take a text completely the wrong way.

41 Winston Oh, yea:h, un[less

42 TL1 [because you're not seeing that person face to face.=

43 TL3 =and hearing their tone=

44 TL1 = and [knowing what they actually [mean

45 Winston [Hmm [Hmm

46 [(*Winston nods*)) [(*Winston nods*))

47 Winston [Unless they s-

48 [(*Winston raises his left hand to draw attention to what he is going to say*))

49 TL2 -so [doesn't that mean that body language plays a more important role in

50 [(*Winston points the index finger of his left hand at TL2*))

51 [(*Winston shifts the direction of his gaze from the whole class to TL2*))

52 communication than (.) perhaps (.) we just (.) indicated before??

53 Winston ↑Well [perhaps.

54 [(*Winston leans forwards and towards TL2*))

55 [In fact you know (.) we have to stick in >facey< things (.) in our texts

56 [(*Winston looks at the whole class*))

57 so [that somebody will get the right idea

58 TL3 [Hmm

59 TL3 Yeah

60 Winston So I guess it must be important t-

61 TL5 -because sarcasm is (.) difficult [(*pause*)) in texts

62 Winston [hhh

63 how many Facebook comments have been misunderstood because of being
sarcastic,

64 TLs Hmm

65 Winston and in fact what you see is that people are doing a slash ↑s (.) nowadays,

66 TL6 Ahh (.) what does that mean,?

67 Winston That means ((*pause*))

68 TLs ()

69 ((*Some TLs answer TL6's question*))

70 Winston It's an HTML tag, it is closing off sarcasm, like the thing that I just said

71 was sarcasm. ((*pause*))

72 So you see a slash s, and that means (.) that was sarcastic.

73 TL7 [Ahh, what I was just thinking of ahm when teaching performing arts to (),

74 [[(*Winston moves his head forward and establishes direct eye contact with*
TL7)]
75 one teaches mime (.) and students with capacity can actually tell a whole
76 story with mime. So any human being can actually use body language to
77 (.) express almost ever-everything but again it comes back to verbal skills
78 [with every mode of communication, doesn't it,?
79 [[(*Winston nods and maintains direct eye contact*)]
80 that's what I was thinking.
81 ((*Winston nods faster, raises his eyebrows, with his eyes widening,*
82 *and maintains the forward-orientation of his head*)]
83 Winston I agree (.) and with that (.) I think we should take a break...

In response to TL1 who mentions body language, Winston prefaces his second-pair part with an extended turn which starts with a relatively long pause (1) (numbers in brackets represent the numbers of the transcript lines). In terms of turn design, his questioning of the perceived significance of body language is a dispreferred alternative. Therefore, the pause may be serving as a face-saving act in that it helps him avoid reacting immediately and, consequently, sharply, especially given that his assertion is genuine, as suggested by the visual data and confirmed by him in a follow-up conversation. Following the pause, his prolongation of the vowel in 'yeah' is the first verbal marker of his hesitation in agreeing with TL1's opinion, yet suggesting a minimally positive orientation to it. This is followed by the overture of 'you know' and an initial acknowledgement of the overall logic of TL1's position, highlighted with an emphatic 'does'. A second pause and its following overtures ('you know' and 'I'm gonna say this'), framing ('OK'), and mini-pause at line 2, all serving as hesitation phenomena, are meant to prevent his incipient disagreement from being face-threatening. The other face-enhancing measure he takes when he actually expresses his disagreement is presenting his position as a personal opinion (3-4) using the modal adverb 'personally', the stance markers 'I think' and 'I don't think', and the hedge 'that' in 'that important'. His reasoning through the example of telephone conversation (6) shows he proactively puts himself in a position of accountability. Despite TL1's initial agreement with his opinion (8), Winston goes on to encourage the TLs to present counterarguments through elicitation questions (9 & 10). 'Objections?' (9) suggests that Winston is open to opposing opinions. He goes on to reword his question, however,

probably to mitigate the perceived face-threatening potential of the TLs' responses. From a recipient design perspective, this helps him with achievement of reciprocity, which duly occurs in the rich multiparty exchange following his question. During the whole excerpt so far Winston's gaze is directed at the whole class, thereby treating TL1's idea as *a* rather than *her* position. In terms of recipient design, this gaze direction shows that he does not wish to designate TL1 as the direct addressee of his critical, thus dispreferred, comment on body language; instead, he puts the question to the whole group for further reflection and discussion.

The TLs take the space offered and respond to his elicitations (9, 10, & 16) at lines 12 and 17. He gives them greater participation rights through elaboration on TL2's response (13) and verbal (14) and embodied (15) acknowledgment of its validity. Also, he acknowledges TL3's input (17) through a probing question (18) accompanied with a forward leaning posture (19). TL3 goes on to elaborate on her response (20) which is met with Winston's embodied acknowledgement (21-22). TL4 and TL2 join TL3 in providing further details (23 & 29 respectively), with TL3 acknowledging TL4's 'If you're believing someone' (23) in return through an approving 'yeah' and the example of 'rolling eyes back' (24). Winston acknowledges these contributions to co-construction of knowledge through receipt tokens 'Hmm' (25) and 'Ahh' (27), nods (26-28), and echoing (30).

Winston's extended turn from 31 to 39 starts with a more elaborate acknowledgement of the TLs' input through an example (31-33). Then, he narrows down the scope of body language to the specific role of 'traffic directors', qualified by the modal phrase 'I think' (34), and elaborates (35). He similarly modalises his subsequent suggestion that body language does not convey as much meaning as verbal language linguistically (36: 'not maybe necessarily'), orally (36: two mini-pauses, putting stress on 'may' in 'maybe', and speeding up 'not'), and visually (37). Also he quickly reacknowledges the importance of body language strongly using the modal adverb 'certainly', the quantifier 'a lot of' (38), and the accompanying body language (39).

Once Winston concludes his turn, TL1 self-selects to expand the exchange by providing more evidence using the example of 'texting' (40, 42 & 44), which TL3 also contributes to (43). Winston acknowledges this unsolicited input using the receipt tokens 'oh', 'yeah' (41), and 'hmm' (45) as well as nods (46). He also starts to contribute to it at two points (41 & 47). However, in the first case TL1 keeps the floor to argue her position (42), and in the second case

TL2 self-selects to cut in and launch an interim concluding remark, revisiting the earlier arguments made by Winston (49). Regarding the latter, Winston's embodied eagerness to give the floor is worth noting. While he initially raises his hand to draw the TLs' attention to his own input (48), once TL2 starts her turn, he redirects his index finger to her (50) and shifts his gaze direction from the whole class to her (51).

In light of the arguments presented in support of body language (12-29 & 40-44), TL2 suggests that Winston's earlier, and maybe even his refined (34), position tends to downgrade its importance (49 & 52) and implicitly advises Winston repair his opinion. She uses several face-enhancing tools, namely a question form to express her opinion, the hedge 'perhaps', the generic 'we', and micro-pauses towards the end of her turn. Winston, in return, welcomes her point by echoing her 'perhaps' reinforced by his eye contact and forward leaning posture (53-54). These measures soften the impact of his *well*-prefaced turn which might suggest minimal resistance to withdrawing from his earlier position (Heritage, 2015).

Then, he elaborates on the limited nature of texting mentioned by TL1 (40) and completes his previous incomplete turns (41 & 47) at lines 55 and 57, acknowledged by some of the TLs (58 & 59). He launches a conclusion to his turn (60) but TL5 self-selects to cut in and contribute to the exchange on texting (61). Her contribution is acknowledged by Winston (62, 63 & 65) and further discussed (66-72). Afterwards, TL7 launches an extended turn drawing upon 'mime' to highlight the significance of body language (73-80). Winston acknowledges her contribution through eye contact, nods, and different facial and bodily expressions which suggest his interest and sustained attention (74, 79, 81, & 82). Finally, he explicitly shows his agreement with TL7's argument and offers a break, which marks the end of this multiparty exchange.

Exchange 2. "Do we think in pictures?"

Winston starts a lecture on verbal communication. The title of the first slide is "What happens when we speak?" with two cartoon faces and a cinema representing a conversation between two friends one suggesting the other go to a movie.

- 1 Winston Let's say you got an idea in your mind, ((pause)) Umm (.) and you wanna
- 2 go to a movie with a friend, you wan-you wanna <suggest> that. ((pause))

3 now that's-I don't know if this is how thoughts are represented
4 ((Winston points at the pictures of the cartoon faces and the cinema))
5 I suspect probably no:t
6 ((pause))
7 Do we think in pictures?
8 TL1 So:me of us do,?=
9 Winston =°Yeah°, [°maybe°,? °any prob?°,<
10 [[(Winston slightly tilts his head sideways and flashes a curious
11 look through wearing a smile and raising his eyebrows, with his eyes
12 widening. He gradually shifts his gaze direction from TL1 to the class))
13 TL2 If you don't have a language, you do,
14 Winston Oh.
15 ((pause))
16 Who doesn't have a language?
17 TL2 Someone born deaf,?
18 Winston There have been people who have been born with extreme perceptual
19 problems,or deafness, or whatever, andaaa yea:h ((pause)) they neVERR get
20 (.) language but these are rare cases=
21 TL2 =[I just read a really interesting book and the whole book was °about this°.
22 [[(TL2 redirects her gaze from Winston to some of the TLs and then again
23 ((TL2 gradually lowers her head and looks at her notebook on the desk
purposelessly))
24 Winston Was it about feral children,?
25 TL2 No, it was about a man-a boy who was born ((pause)) deaf,=
26 Winston =OK,=
27 TL2 =and how he could communicate by drawing pictures
28 Winston OK,
29 ((Winston maintains his gaze direction at TL2))
30 TL2 It was interesting because it was ((pause)) he ((pause))
31 I mean you realise that he's only seeing pictures (.)
32 He's only seeing ((pause)) things that have no labels or ((pause))
33 Winston And it's hard to think about abstract things while you can (.) do these things
in pictures.

34 TL2 Well in this book you know I don't know if it was based on facts or not but
35 umm ((pause)) to com-he didn-he couldn't communicate feelings and
emotions and stuff.

36 Winston Aha?

37 TL2 He, it was sort of like, it implied that (.) you know if your [brow went down
38 TL3 [yea::h
39 TL2 or then that must mean (.) something is gonna happen to me that maybe isn't
very nice

40 Winston Hmm

41 TL2 and he didn't know it was like (.) they're feeling anger.

42 Winston Uh

43 TL2 So all of the pictures were like just ((pause)) pictures, all he was seeing was
just (.) pictures

44 Winston ↑O↑K

45 TL2 It was [interesting

46 TL4 [I just watched this week the film *Walk about* (.) it's an old film (.)

47 TL5 Yeah=

48 TL4 =and it was fascinating watching how these two white children meet an
Aboriginal boy and

49 how they don't understand one another and how they try to create new
communication.

50 and the child the little boy is more intuitive towards () than the older girl

51 Winston Hmm

52 TL4 It's quite fascinating (.) but they use their hands to try and get their thoughts
across.

53 Winston Ah

54 TL4 because they didn't have common words

55 Winston It is funny because [name] mentioned this on this week's episode of [name]
56 that eee (.) he knew more than >I did about this one<, umm it seems that
57 forrrr (.) many Aboriginal languages ((pause))
58 in place of a taboo word.

59 [TL6's name]Do you know about this?

60 ((Winston gestures to TL6 and establishes mutual gaze))

61 TL6 Yea:h yeah

62 Winston [What- what do you know about this,? Because

63 TL6 -Umm ((pause)) you know (.) like (.) pointing with the chin,? (.) means over there,?

64 ((Two TLs who have their backs to TL6 turn around to see her and the

65 sample gesture she is explaining))

66 Winston Ahh, alright

67 TL6 But you notice if you watch it ((pause)) Aboriginal people, you'll see the signs

68 Winston OK,

69 TL6 But you might not pick it up if you just (.)

70 Winston If you don't=

71 TL6 =if you know what I mean,

72 Winston Haa

73 TL6 When my husband and I lived up there with our children in Halls Creek we

74 noticed little signs and then we started to use them

75 Winston Ahhh. ha ha that's cool,?

76 Ahh actually (.) -this week show was about pointing (.) specifically (.)

77 and how it's (.) the first kind of communication that babies do.

78 ((Winston maintains his eye contact with TL6 and nods))

79 ((TL6 mirrors Winston's nodding))

80 [Umm-it's likely that we think in pictures, or in words, maybe a little bit of both, ...

81 (((Winston redirects his gaze at the whole class))

In an extended turn (1-2), Winston establishes the context of the lecture by talking about an imaginary situation where someone suggests going to a movie with their friend. Starting with the prefatory epistemic disclaimer 'I don't know', he raises doubts about the assumption of thinking in pictures underlying his illustration of the two interlocutors' thoughts (3). Then, he makes a negative assertion the truth of which he does not commit to, as suggested by his use of the subjectively marked modality 'I suspect' and the modal adverb 'probably' and prolonging the vowel /ɒ/ in 'not' (5) and as also confirmed by him in a follow-up conversation.

After this presequence, he invites comments through launching the whole-class question ‘Do we think in pictures?’ (7).

TL1 responds positively but displays uncertainty through modalisation manifested in prolongation of /ʌ/ in ‘some’ and the rising intonation at the end of her turn (8). Winston acknowledges her input with a positive response and maintains her reservation in his own modalised turn (9-11). His gaze redirected to the whole class indicates his invitation for more comments from the TLs (12). Already leaning back in her chair, TL2 frames a stronger response to Winston’s question using the conditional structure ‘If you don’t have a language, you do’. She strongly commits herself using the non-modalised verb ‘do’ in the main clause. *Oh*-prefacing his turn (14) and pausing afterwards (15), Winston problematises TL2’s point in terms of it being an uncommon observation, as it turns out at line 20. Yet, he proceeds to invite her to explain her response (16), which she does (17). Subsequently, Winston acknowledges her response through elaboration (18 & 19) to make his reference to the rarity of TL2’s point in the rest of his turn (20) less face-threatening. Yet, his earlier dispreferred news receipt *oh* (14), the evaluative statement ‘these are *rare* cases’ (prefaced with ‘but’), and the falling intonation, which also suggests his preference for closing this exchange, show Winston’s value assumptions regarding TL2’s point: that he does not consider it common and, therefore, worth further discussion.

As a post-expansion, however, TL2 self-selects to mention a book in support of her argument (21) gazing at her classmates and then at Winston (22). She does not intend to further elaborate as she has a falling intonation at the end and looks down at her notebook on the desk afterwards (23). Winston, however, shows interest in knowing more about TL2’s experience (24), counteracting any possible face damage caused at line 20. TL2 responds to his question-like guess with a direct ‘no’, relates what she said at line 23 back to her mention of deaf people (17) and performs a telling till line 45. Her detailed account of the book and perceived interesting nature of its content (21, 30, & 45) are acknowledged by Winston along the way in the form of receipt tokens like ‘OK’ (26, 28, 44) and ‘aha’ (36), insert-expansion (33), and eye contact with her throughout. Some of the TLs also acknowledge her input through the receipt token ‘yeah’ (38), intermittent nods, and sustained eye contact.

Once TL2 finishes her telling, TL4 self-selects to launch her own, expanding the discussion from pictures to using hands for communication based on a movie she has recently watched

(46-54). Similar to TL2, she also considers her own experience with the movie '(quite) fascinating' (48 & 52) and in return receives acknowledgements from a classmate and Winston in the form of receipt tokens 'yeah', 'OK', and 'ah' (47, 51 & 53). Using the overture 'it's funny', Winston acknowledges TL4's contribution more fully by picking up on the Aboriginal character in the movie she mentions to talk about a similar focus in that week's episode of his podcast (55-58).

Knowing that TL6, a non-Indigenous Australian, used to have some involvement with Aboriginal people, Winston nominates her and invites her to share more details in this regard. His request for TL6's contribution starts with a presequence in the form of an adjacency pair of his yes/no question 'Do you know about this?' (59) and her positive response (61). Then Winston asks the more direct question 'what do you know about this?' (62) which TL6 answers along lines 63-74. Demonstrating active listening, Winston acknowledges her contribution (63-74) through receipt tokens (66, 68, & 72) and a collaborative completion (70). As with TL2 and TL4, most of the other TLs maintain their gaze at TL6, with two turning around to see the Aboriginal gesture she is discussing (64-65). At the end of her contribution, TL6 receives a more extended acknowledgement from Winston (75). As with TL4, he picks up on her example of 'pointing' and relates it to that week's episode of his podcast (76 & 77). Both TL6 and Winston also acknowledge each other by nodding (78 & 79). Finally, Winston signals the closure of the exchange through producing a general summary (80) and simultaneously redirecting his gaze towards the whole class (81).

Dialogicality of Interaction

As mentioned in Data Analysis, the dialogicality of the exchanges was explored using Fairclough's (1999) co-operative and egalitarian template. In this section, the researcher first outlines Winston's attempts to conduct teacher education in a dialogical manner. In order to show how successful his attempts are in this regard, an account of the TLs' side of the story is given subsequently.

Winston facilitates the exchanges in a number of ways. In both excerpts, he encourages co-construction of knowledge through presenting his own opinions in a highly modalised manner to establish a dialogical atmosphere (1: 1-6; 2: 1-6) and then inviting comments through inferential and probing questions (1: 9-10; 2: 7). He acknowledges the TLs' contributions in

various ways. Verbally, these include receipt tokens (e.g., 1: 27; 2: 26), echoing (e.g., 1: 53; 2: 44), expressing agreement (e.g., 1: 14, 83), elaboration (e.g., 1: 31-33; 2: 18-19), addition (e.g., 2: 55-58), emphasis (e.g., 1: 38), further probing (e.g., 2: 24), and emotionally positive feedback (e.g., 'that's cool' at 2: 75). His embodied acknowledgements of their input include nods (e.g., 1: 26-28; 2: 77), eye contact (e.g., 1: 53-54; 2: 25-44), and forward leaning postures (e.g., 1: 19, 39, 54).

Winston's assessments of the TLs' contributions are non-judgmental, usually positive, and produced in the form of a contribution to collective construction of meaning (1: 34-36). He incorporates face work into his potentially dispreferred assessments through acknowledging the logic of the TLs' contributions (1: 1; 2: 18), using hesitation markers (e.g., 1: 1-4), and treating the presented opinions without attributing them to a particular participant (1: 11).

While a lecturer, Winston positions himself as a curious explorer and learner throughout the observed knowledge exchanges. He asks genuine questions from the TLs (e.g., 1: 10; 2: 7), couches his own contributions in the form of personal ideas (e.g., 1: 3-4; 2: 5), and expresses his curiosity (2: 10-11). Also on one occasion he nominates a TL whose lived experience he considers pertinent to the knowledge exchange and encourages her to share it (2: 62). In terms of his placement in the room, he tends to stand or sit in the TLs' vicinity. When sitting, he usually sits on a student chair rather than the chair designated for lecturers. Finally, although Winston is interrupted on some occasions (e.g., 1: 41-42, 47-49), he does not interrupt the TLs, no matter the length of their turns.

The TLs, in turn, are observed to be actively engaged in the process of sharing ideas and constructing knowledge together, partly in response to Winston's attempts to establish a dialogical atmosphere and partly as a result of them proactively choosing to make space for themselves. Some of the extended turns are responses to Winston's questions (e.g., 1: 12 & 17; 2: 8, 13, 17). The rest seem to be the outcome of them self-selecting to contribute to the discussions as they are not immediately preceded by any prompts by Winston (e.g., 1: 40, 49, 61; 2: 21, 46, 75-78). The multiparty nature of both exchanges shows that in all of these contributions, the TLs, together with Winston as a co-participant, are involved in a collaborative process of sharing ideas and experiences.

Another significant observation in both excerpts is the TLs' contribution to the content and flow of the excerpts. This is manifested in the numerous counterarguments and counterexamples they present in response to the perspectives Winston puts forward at the beginning of the excerpts, Winston's acknowledgement of the validity of their contributions on various occasions, and his proactive contribution to their critical analysis (e.g., 1: 55-57, 63, 70-72; 2: 55-58, 75-77). Furthermore, the TLs feel safe to present counterarguments, which is a potentially face-threatening act, as they comfortably express their divergent views. Similarly speaking to the dialogical atmosphere of the class is Winston's doing more face work for his dispreferred turns than the TLs do for their own.

Finally, the TLs are observed to treat each other as co-participants and support each other's share in the collaborative negotiation of meaning. There are numerous instances of verbal and embodied acknowledgement of peer input, such as nods, eye contact, and mostly unintelligible verbal acknowledgements from around the classroom, a few of which have been included in the transcripts (e.g., 2: 38 & 47, 64-65). In light of this summary, one could argue that the interactions between Winston and the TLs constitute dialogue which "allows people's voice to develop and be heard" (Kohl, 1984, p. 111) and helps "transform social relations in the classroom" (Shor & Freire, 1987, p. 98). Contributions of this dialogical space to teacher identity work is focused on in the following section.

Identities in Interaction

As mentioned above, Zimmerman's (1998) framework was used to identify the kinds of identity enacted in the above reported exchanges. The search for roles that the participants mostly oriented to in their discourse identities yielded two situated identities, namely *co-learner* and *co-learning facilitator*. Negotiation of these situated identities was further fostered by Winston and the TLs enacting the transportable identity of *persons* sharing their personal ideas and speaking as themselves, rather than as the lecturer and students.

Doing Being Co-learners

The above analysis suggests that in most of the functions fulfilled by the TLs, they are mainly involved in collaborative reflection and learning, hence orienting to the situated identity of *co-learners*. These functions, or discourse identities, are self-selecting to contribute to the

discussions, sharing their opinions in response to Winston's invitations, challenging his ideas, presenting counterexamples and counterarguments, producing long turns, and acknowledging Winston's and their peers' contributions. Winston is also observed to fulfil a similar set of discourse identities, such as sharing his ideas as a co-participant, explaining the reasons behind his arguments, expressing his willingness for them to be questioned, listening actively to the TLs, and acknowledging their contributions.

Winston is the "institutionally defined instructor" (Keppler & Luckmann, 1991, p. 145) who, at some stages of a typical lecture, fulfils the inevitable role of a knowledge disseminator, with the TLs mainly serving as information recipients. However, the recurrence of the abovementioned discourse identities in Winston's and the TLs' turns and the alignment of these identities as reflected in the high degree of collaboration in accomplishing the exchanges show that the TLs also get to serve as "situationally selected "teachers" (Keppler & Luckmann, 1991, p. 145). Therefore, 'co-learner' temporarily becomes a more relevant, situated, identity for both the TLs and Winston.

Modelling of the 'Co-learner and Co-learning Facilitator' Teacher Role

Winston serving as a learner among the TLs enables him to present them with a model of teaching as co-learning. A related way in which Winston may have contributed to the TLs' identity work is through modelling the role of a teacher as a *co-learning facilitator*. This situated identity manifests itself in a number of discourse identities that he fulfils, namely

- Posing questions
- Inviting the TLs to challenge his ideas
- Encouraging them to share their different views and experiences
- Acknowledging their contributions
- Providing dispreferred feedback in a face-enhancing manner
- Contributing to democratic turn allocation
- Fulfilling the inevitable role of the classroom manager through bringing the exchanges to an end when he feels intersubjectivity has been achieved and now they should focus on a different topic.

These elements constitute a professional identity which prioritises teaching in a negotiated and dialogical manner. Experiencing learning with this educational approach is an implicit but powerful apprenticeship for the TLs. Winston's enactment of the situated identity of co-learner and co-learning facilitator contributes to the consequentiality of the TLs' turns as they inform, to a large extent, the following turns, the general structure of the interactions, and their content. This experience of legitimate participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) can be considered a continuation of their *apprenticeship of observation* (Lortie, 1975), since in this course they are on the student's side of the desk. Therefore, even if previously schooled into a more didactic educational system, this experience of learning as mutual engagement in negotiating ideas and experiences may help them revisit their professional identity and adopt a more negotiated and social constructivist conception of teaching and learning (Smith, 2001). The recurrence of the interactional patterns identified in the above exchanges in several other conversations in the TESOL Grad Cert suggests that the TLs are likely to maintain this educational approach beyond the confines of the teacher education classroom and in their future engagement in the wider TESOL community in teaching and other capacities. Looking at teacher education classroom interactions from this perspective highlights the significance of educating teachers the same way they are expected to teach, also called *modelling* (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006).

Doing Being Persons

What further enriches the interactional resources in the above exchanges for identity work is Winston and the TLs making their transportable identities relevant to the conversations. In his self-disclosure at the outset of the first excerpt, while operating as a lecturer, Winston also offers himself as a 'person' who has his own views of how effective body language is in human communication ("*personally* I think body language is oversold", 3, emphasis added). Consciously phrasing his turn in a highly modalised and face-enhancing manner makes his transportable identity as a person relevant to the exchange. This relevance is further established by him adopting a non-technical style of argumentation in the rest of his turn. His argument that if body language were important, "we wouldn't be able to talk on the phone", shows a reasoning which is more lay than academic and linguistic. This way of talking gives the exchange a more conversational than institutional flavour and, as a result, reinforces its authenticity (K. Richards, 2006). Winston is similarly being a person in the second excerpt,

although here he does not commit himself as strongly to the proposition he presents (5), hence him quickly posing it as a question to the class (6).

How the TLs play their own part in the exchanges suggests that they are similarly genuine and “speak as themselves” (Ushioda, 2011, p. 17), regardless of the inherently hierarchical nature of a typical teacher education program. The TLs’ doing being persons manifests itself in them sharing their personal ideas and real-life observations and experiences throughout the exchanges. Winston and the TLs offering themselves and treating each other as persons with their own legitimate worldviews rather than as the lecturer and students foster authenticity in their interactions and, therefore, reinforce their enactment of the situated identity of co-learners.

Discussion: Identity Work as a Community Practice

Communities of Practice views learning as a process of identity construction which is fostered through legitimate participation in meaning negotiation (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). The above analyses suggest that the TLs serve and are treated as legitimate participants in meaning negotiation because there is a high degree of mutuality, an appreciation for diversity of perspectives, acknowledgement of the TLs’ membership in communities beyond the course, and a climate of trust in the exchanges. Wenger (1998, 2010) considers each of these as conducive to identity development; therefore, each is briefly discussed here.

Mutuality in the interactions between the TLs and Winston is manifested in their equal access to the situated identity of co-learners. The legitimacy of the meanings they produce is not determined by their professional status; rather, it is examined in light of how valid their meanings are considered by the collective. Therefore, the TLs’ ideas contribute as much to the process of learning as do Winston’s. This mutual access to contribution to the knowledge being constructed strengthens their sense of membership in the professional community of TESOL, since “we become who we are by being able to play a part in the relations of engagement that constitute our community” (Wenger, 1998, p. 152). In other words, the TLs are treated as legitimate participants (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in the collaborative process of meaning negotiation and, therefore, expertise is distributed among the community members (Wenger, 1998). This finding is in line with Morton and Gray’s (2010) finding that opportunity to produce meanings served as a space for teacher learners’ identity work.

The myriad instances of acknowledgement encourage a multiplicity of perspectives since they create space for the TLs' divergent understandings to receive recognition and validation without being judged (de Sonnevile, 2007). This atmosphere of polyphonic dialogue (Depalma, 2010) encourages them to appreciate, build on, and contribute to diversity of perspectives. Therefore, engaging with different views contributes to their collaboration in the form of *critical friendship* (Farrell, 2007; Franzak, 2002), as it "encourages talking with, questioning, and even confronting, the trusted other" (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p. 41). It changes the teacher education course into a space where mismatched understandings are regarded as a basis for critical reflection and collaborative negotiation of meaning rather than problems to be resolved. In doing so, this diversity constitutes an additional catalyst for identity development (Wenger, 1998).

Also conducive to identity work is recognition of the TLs' membership in communities beyond the TESOL Grad Cert. Wenger (1998) explains development of "identity as nexus of multimembership" in terms of a process in which "we define who we are by the ways we reconcile our various forms of membership into one identity" (p. 149). The TLs' exposure to views which differ from their own stimulates their drawing upon experiences they have gained in other spheres of life. In reaction to Winston's underestimation of body language, they use their experience of interaction in the wider society to highlight the significance of eye contact, the limited nature of texting in conveying concepts, such as sarcasm, and the communicative power of mime. In response to Winston's question about whether we think in pictures, they share the insights they have gained from reading books, watching movies, and interacting with Aboriginal people. Bringing all these experiences from their multiple memberships into the classroom discourse helps with achievement of "identity congruence" (Niesz, 2010, p. 42). In other words, it helps prevent tensions which would arise if the TLs did not have the opportunity to evaluate the legitimacy of the ideas presented by Winston against their own experience as members of other social communities. Such tensions have been reported to result in TLs' marginalization, if they are not resolved (Nelson & Temples, 2011). The different ways in which Winston fosters this process were reported above. Similar observations were made by Morton and Gray (2010) of the participant teacher educators in their study who facilitated TLs' participation in several ways, such as positive evaluation of their contributions and request for elaboration.

Finally, a climate of trust enriches the identity resources of the exchanges. The TLs have each other's and Winston's trust (Wenger, 1998, 2010) to share ideas and experiences which are worth reflection and allocation of classroom time. Many of their turns are particularly long and all acknowledged somehow or another. Also, Winston's attempts to create and maintain a dialogical atmosphere show his trust in the potential of the classroom interactions to promote learning, or, in Wenger's (2010) terms, his "trust in the learning capability of a partnership" (p. 194). The several instances of peer acknowledgement suggest that the TLs also share this trust, which research shows to increase the participants' willingness to share knowledge and take risks and help them gain a higher level of intersubjectivity (e.g., C. M. Johnson, 2001; Joanne Roberts, 2006).

Winston's self-revelations early in the excerpts, however, may compromise the TLs' trust in his legitimacy as a lecturer who is expected to know about and acknowledge the research related to body language and visual thinking. Although he is being a 'person' when making those comments, he constantly has the institutional identity of a lecturer operating in the background, hence the possibility of his remarks impacting on the TLs' trust in him as a model and, consequently, their identity work. This said, his dialogical approach to and active acknowledgment of the TLs' counterexamples and counterarguments is likely to mitigate this possible impact. Also, given the oral discourse of the conversations, the TLs may not expect Winston to exercise a lot of lexical precision when he remarks that body language is not "that important". Given his weaker commitment to the truth of his statement about thinking in pictures ("I suspect probably no:t"), this expectation might be even lower.

Concluding Remarks

The above micro-analysis of teacher education dialogues sheds light on how teacher education can foster identity work in the moment-by-moment experience of meaning negotiation in an atmosphere of mutuality, diversity of perspectives, recognition of participants' multimembership, and trust. Despite the wider instrumentalist and transmission-oriented discourse of educational policy which assigns to teachers an identity of conformity to expert knowledge and performativity (Ball, 2003; Hayes, 2001; Sachs, 2001), critical dialogues facilitate TLs' engagement in the process of collaborative reflection and construction of knowledge as 'co-learners'. Particularly, the experience of exercising agency in questioning

expert opinion is likely to enable TLs to claim an identity of legitimate participation or, in other words, gain an increasing sense of belonging and contributing to their professional community.

This paper has hopefully highlighted the wealth of insight into teacher identity work that micro-analysis of dialogues in the teacher education classroom provides. The value of this analytical approach would suggest, then, that it could be further used to address the paucity of research into how TLs negotiate their identities during conversations in the teacher education classroom.

Chapter 5 reported on the interactional dynamics of two example exchanges in which the teacher learners critically examine the teacher educator's ideas within a dialogical atmosphere and, thus, engage in identity negotiation around the notion of co-learning. This chapter specifically focused on the dynamics of classroom exchanges and treated the topics addressed in the exchanges as points of departure only rather than its major foci. Chapter 6, however, reports on a set of conversations which share a focus on the topic of language use and studies them in terms of how they inform teacher learners' identity negotiation as relating to their 'language analyst' role. This chapter is presented in the format of a journal article.

CHAPTER 6

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS STUDY 2: TEACHER IDENTITY NEGOTIATION AS RELATING TO LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

Abstract

Teacher Language Awareness (TLA) has been treated mainly as teacher knowledge and sporadically, if at all, linked to identity. The present study addresses this gap by exploring how teacher learners enrolled in a second language teacher education program engage in negotiating their professional identities in classroom conversations focused on language and language use. The researcher used Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis to explore the content and interactional dynamics in selected conversations. He also drew upon Zimmerman's (1998) identities in talk and Communities of Practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) to examine how the exchanges inform the participants' identity work. These analyses show that while the classroom conversations facilitated the participants' identity construction in several ways, they also imposed some constraints on this process.

Introduction

Teacher Language Awareness

Around four decades ago, scholars like Shaw (1979) emphasised the importance of incorporating the study of language into second language (L2) teacher education. This was followed by others such as Edge (1988) who argued that teacher education should focus not only on 'language user' and 'language teacher' roles of trainees but also on their role as 'language analysts' who are "able to talk about the language itself, to analyse it, [and] to understand how it works" (p. 10). This ability is now widely referred to as teacher language awareness (TLA), which Thornbury (1997) defined as "the knowledge that teachers have of the underlying systems of the language that enables them to teach effectively" (p. x). The literature suggests that TLA contributes to how teachers fulfil pedagogical tasks such as preparing lessons, developing and evaluating materials, providing different types of input, handling learner confusion, and assessing learning (Andrews, 1999, 2001; Wright & Bolitho,

1993). Given the significance of TLA to effective teaching, some studies have focused on raising this awareness in L2 teacher education and reported its contribution to teachers' effective use of L2 in the classroom (e.g., explaining difficult words to learners and using L2 for classroom management) (Tüzel & Akcan, 2009), appreciation of different varieties of English (Pedrazzini, 2015), understanding of the situated and user-driven nature of grammar (Svalberg, 2015), and better understanding of benefits of cognitive linguistics for teaching L2 vocabulary (Gießler, 2012).

Since TLA is intended to foster classroom teaching and learning (Wright, 2002; Wright & Bolitho, 1993), it is necessary to focus on both declarative and procedural aspects of it. Andrews (2007a) observes that most of the available materials on TLA focus on the declarative dimension (e.g., Bolitho & Tomlinson, 1995; Wright, 1994) and only some attend to both (e.g., Arndt, Harvey, & Nuttall, 2000). He goes on to argue that even in the case of the latter, what matters is *how* these materials are used, hence the significance of teacher education in integrating the two dimensions of TLA. The teacher participants studied by Cots and Arnó (2005) were reported to fail to recognise connections between knowledge about language and the pedagogical dimensions of their professional roles. Popko (2005) similarly reported that his TESOL MA student participants seldom made direct use of their TLA in teaching ESL and attributed this to lack of integration between the language and teaching methodology components in teacher education.

Increasing attention to the procedural as well as declarative dimensions of TLA has resulted in a shift in its meaning from an exclusive 'subject-matter knowledge' focus, as reflected in Thornbury's definition, to one encompassing teachers' "overall sensitivity to language" (Wright, 2002, p. 115), their language teaching beliefs (Andrews & McNeill, 2005), and their 'personal, practical knowledge' (Andrews, 2007b). This conceptual expansion also suggests an increasing acknowledgement of individual teachers' histories, experiences, and views about teaching. In a similar spirit, the researcher argues here that research on TLA would also benefit from treating this construct in identity terms. In fact, in proposing his teacher education framework, Edge (1988) did talk about TLA along such lines in that he said teachers "need to be able to function as *analysts* of the language" (p. 10; emphasis is original). Bringing a focus on teacher identity into the research on TLA facilitates the conceptual expansion just mentioned since identity underlies teachers' beliefs (Korthagen, 2004) and personal practical

knowledge (Beijaard et al., 2004; Connelly & Clandinin, 1999), but, as shown below, has been neglected in the area of TLA.

Teacher Professional Identity

Teacher professional identity is a teacher's response to such questions as “how do I see my role as a teacher?” and “what kind of teacher do I want to be?” (Korthagen, 2004, p. 81). This response varies across time and place, hence the dynamic and socially negotiated nature of identity (Barrett, 2008; Norton, 1997). There is an increasing awareness of the central place of teacher identity in second language education (Jim Cummins, 2000; J Cummins, 2001) and teacher development and performance (e.g., Bullough, 1997; Clandinin & Connelly, 1996; M. Clarke, 2008; H. T. Nguyen, 2008; Varghese et al., 2005). This awareness has generated an interest in exploring how L2 teachers negotiate their identities in teacher education programs (Abednia, 2012; Antonek et al., 1997; Trent, 2011). Related studies have mostly focused on teachers' negotiation of identity as relating to the pedagogical aspects of teaching L2, such as balancing teacher authority and friendliness (Kanno & Stuart, 2011) and inspiring students to learn (Trent, 2011). Little attention has been paid to the language analysis aspect of L2 teacher professional identity. The few studies found which mentioned TLA as part of their focus on teacher identity have actually shown that L2 teachers themselves may pay similarly little attention to this aspect of their profession.

In the US, Antonek et al. (1997) examined two L2 student teachers' professional identity construction in a post-baccalaureate, professional year program. Analysis of the participants' portfolios showed their focus on a variety of issues, such as how to prepare students for assessments, what types of activities to use, and how to adjust instruction. However, issues related to their own language proficiency and target language use in the classroom were “noticeably absent” (p. 22), hence the authors' emphasis on promoting a focus on this aspect in teacher education programs. In Canada, Farrell (2011) studied three native speaker female teachers' reflections on their professional roles in 12 group meetings which he facilitated. The analysis yielded three major roles, namely teacher as manager (e.g., vendor and entertainer), teacher as acculturator (e.g., socialiser, social worker, and care provider) and teacher as professional (e.g., collaborator, learner, knowledgeable). ‘Knowledgeable’ which was defined as “Knowledgeable about teaching and subject matter” (Farrell, 2011, p. 57) in the analysis was the only category partly related to TLA and also one of the least frequently mentioned

roles in the data. In China, Xu (2013) explored changes in four female student teacher' identities from the end of their practicum to their fourth year of teaching. Interviews, reflective journals, and observations showed that at the end of the practicum the participants had developed the identities of "language expert, learning facilitator, [and] spiritual guide", which then shifted towards "language attrition sufferer, routine performer, [and] problem analyzer" (p. 572). The first identity type (i.e., 'language expert'/'language attrition sufferer') was the only identity with a language focus, which was, in fact, limited to the participants' perceived language proficiency and did not encompass language analysis.

These studies highlight the possibility that pre-service and serving teachers ignore, to varying extents, the language analysis aspect of their professional identity, and, thus, the significance of a major focus on this identity aspect in L2 teacher education programs. As also mentioned above, the limited number of these studies shows an inadequate treatment of TLA in L2 teacher identity research. As an early step to address these gaps, the researcher studied how conversations in a TESOL teacher education program in Australia may provide a space for L2 teachers' negotiation of their professional identities as relating to their 'language analyst' role.

The linguistic views focused on in classroom conversations and the dynamics of interaction inform teacher learners' identity negotiation. Therefore, the researcher started with a discourse analysis of conversations using Fairclough's (2003) three-dimensional framework (discourses, genres, & styles). Specifically, the researcher explored what discourses (views of language) are drawn upon and/promoted in the conversations, what generic structure dominates the conversations, and what interactional styles the participants adopt in the conversations. This analysis was then drawn upon to address the following research questions:

1. What types of identities relating to language analysis do L2 teachers negotiate in a teacher education program?
2. What are the possible opportunities available in such a program for teachers' negotiation of these identities?
3. What constraints may teacher education impose on this process?

Theoretical Framework

Since the theoretical framework of this study was developed based on the nature of the data, the rationale behind that choice should be explained first. To address the above research questions, the researcher focused on conversations within the teacher education classroom. Compared to data collection tools like interviews and portfolios, analysing teacher education conversations enables us to explore identities that teachers negotiate as they collectively engage in reflection about teaching issues (the focus of research question 1). In addition, these conversations are a typical part of teacher education programs. Therefore, analysing the interactional dynamics underlying them provides the additional lens into how teacher education fosters teacher identity formation (the focus of research questions 2 and 3). Finally, the literature of psychology (e.g., Ligorio, 2010) and teacher development (e.g., Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; Parr & Chan, 2015) have recognised strong connections between participation in dialogue and identity negotiation, hence the particular relevance of this data source to identity research.

Two theoretical lenses informed the analysis of identity negotiation in teacher education conversations. To explore the types of identities enacted in conversations (the focus of research question 1), the researcher drew upon Zimmerman's (1998) proposal for identity in talk-in-interaction. Zimmerman discusses three categories of identity at work in verbal interaction. The first category is *discourse identities* which are assumed by individuals on a moment by moment basis (e.g., presenter, questioner). *Situated identities* apply to particular situations "brought into being and sustained by participants engaging in activities and respecting agendas that display an orientation to, and an alignment of, particular identity sets" (p. 90) (e.g., student teacher and teacher educator). *Transportable identities* are identities which are potentially relevant everywhere (e.g., man and woman). In his refinement of Zimmerman's model, K. Richards (2006) problematises equating situated identities with given or 'default' identities "to which participants in talk would be *expected* to orient" (p. 60, emphasis added) in a given context (e.g., teacher and student in the context of classroom). He argues that doing so limits our analysis of talk and, instead, we should explore situated identities which are at work within a conversation and may not be necessarily institutionally assigned.

In the present study, the process of exploring the discourse identities assumed by the participants was directed by the premise that, for a person to have an identity is for their part

in the talk to have interactional consequences (i.e., to impact what participants do next) (Antaki, 2013), such as initiating a conversation, redirecting it, or creating a moment of reflection or realisation, manifested, for example, in the other participants' verbal or visual acknowledgement. As for the participants' situated identities, in line with K. Richards' (2006) proposed refinement, the researcher explored any patterns across the participants' discourse identities regardless of their default identities of 'teacher educator' and 'TLs' in order to better capture the interactional possibilities available in the excerpts. He also explored the transportable identities that the participants made relevant to the conversations.

To discuss how the dynamics of interaction in the conversations informed the participants' identity work (the focus of research questions 2 & 3), the excerpts were examined through the lens of Communities of Practice (CoP) (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). From a CoP perspective, learning is "a way of being in the social world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 23), a process of developing an "identity of participation" (Wenger, 1998, p. 56), or membership, in a community of practice. Learning as identity construction is facilitated by *engagement* in the process of negotiating meaning, *imagination* of the world by extrapolating from our own experience, and *alignment* with and contribution to broader structures (Wenger, 1998). This paper discusses how teacher education conversations foster or limit the teachers' identity work in these three modes.

Study

The context of this study is a TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education (TESOL Grad Cert hereafter), offered at a university in Perth, Western Australia. The one-year TESOL Grad Cert consists of four units, namely Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Teaching ESL Skills, and ESL Teaching Methodology (pseudonyms). After receiving the lecturer's (called Winston here) and the teacher learners' (TLs) informed consent, three three-hour sessions of each of the units were observed (one video recorded and two audio recorded, with field notes being taken).

The enrolled students varied across the units with an average 14 attending the classes from which data was collected. Their age range was between late 20s and late 50s. Most were female and local. Around a third were from other countries, such as Germany, England, Spain, and Indonesia, hence a few with Languages Other Than English (LOTE) backgrounds. Most of the

participants in the observed units were already teachers of different subject areas including science, dance, and ESL.

Using conversation analysis (CA) techniques (ten Have, 2007), the researcher started by developing an inventory of the content of the data, or ‘content log’ (Goodwin, 1993; ten Have, 2007) through listening to the audio recordings and viewing the video recordings and taking notes of any salient events. Classroom discussions, the TLs’ group activities, Winston’s lectures, and his explanations about assessments constituted the content log. As mentioned above, research in psychology (e.g., Ligorio, 2010) and teacher development (e.g., Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; Parr & Chan, 2015) has acknowledged connections between dialogue and identity negotiation. Therefore, the researcher further explored the content category of classroom discussions through making summary descriptions of the dialogues and basic transcription of their most salient parts (key sequences and turns). Through this process, a group of exchanges were identified as focused on the nature of language and language use, therefore, exemplifying how the TLs in the TESOL Grad Cert engaged in negotiating their identities as language analysts, language teachers, and language users within their conversations. More transcription details were added to these exchanges using CA transcription conventions (Jefferson, 2004) (see Appendix E) in order to facilitate single-case and cross-case analysis.

How the participants engaged in the selected exchanges and talked about language was informed by them adopting either of the two views of descriptivism and prescriptivism, with some of the selected exchanges becoming an explicit site of struggle between these two discourses. Therefore, conversation analysis was integrated into a wider discourse analytic framework to more effectively capture the dynamics and content of the exchanges. Fairclough’s (2003) three-dimensional discourse analytic framework (discourses, genres, & styles) was used to explore how language and language change were viewed (discourses), and how the participants enacted those discourses in their selection of genres and interactional styles. An example is the following adjacency triplet extracted from the first excerpt reported in Findings.

- 1 TL1 I see a lot of fishes nowadays.
- 2 Winston I guess you can have fishes, can’t you?

3 TL1 There seems to be more evidence of fishes in books and well I've seen it.

Drawing upon CA, we notice that TL1 self-selects to start a conversation about the use of *fishes* as the plural form of *fish*. Winston acknowledges her contribution through partial echoing. Since the parties are sharing their linguistic observations, the view of language at work is one of descriptivism (discourse). Since they are co-accomplishing the talk, their interaction is dialogical and has a high degree of power symmetry (genre). The discourse of descriptivism is further reinforced by both parties adopting an epistemic modality which is characterised by low to median commitment to truth (I guess, there seems, can't you?) and an evidential orientation (I see) (style).

In the following section, a CA-informed analysis of exchanges selected as representative of each theme which emerged from the first level of analysis is presented within Fairclough's framework. The numbers in brackets used in the conversation analysis reported in 4.1. represent the numbers of the transcript lines. In the rest of the article the numbers of the excerpts are also added in brackets (e.g., 1: 3 means Excerpt 1, Line 3). Also, in the interest of space limitations, the less relevant parts of the conversations have been replaced with summary descriptions or ellipses, and some of the small conversations where Winston does most of the talking have been summarised.

Findings

The TESOL Grad Cert Discourse

The discourse enacted in the reported classroom conversations mostly promotes a view of language consistent with descriptivism. Within this discourse, language is represented as having a dynamic nature and as composed of emerging and changing patterns rather than fixed rules. The discourse promotes a nonjudgmental, evidence-based, and, if evaluative, then appreciative position on language variations and questions Standard English as an ideal against which language varieties are measured on the grounds of existence. Finally, it encourages inductive analysis of the logic behind language patterns; yet it acknowledges that there are language phenomena, which are unpredictable and currently inexplicable. The following themes show how each of these aspects emerged in the classroom conversations.

Language changes.

Looking at language as a set of dynamic patterns rather than static rules is based on the premise that language change is a natural phenomenon (Walker, 2010). This premise informs all of the conversations about the nature of language and its use observed as part of this study. The following excerpt is an example of conversations where Winston and the TLs talk about patterns emerging in the use of English. The focus of the lecture is on regular and irregular morphemes and Winston gives the example of singular and plural use of *fish*. We enter the lecture where TL1 picks up on Winston's example and starts the following conversation.

Excerpt 1

- 1 TL1 But has that changed? I see a lot of fishes nowadays.
- 2 Winston I guess you can have fishes, can't you?
- 3 TL1 There seems to be more evidence of fishes in books and well I've seen it.
- 4 I mean [I might have used that in texting
- 5 TL2 [How about persons?
- 6 Winston So you've persons and person and people but then you can have persons-
- 7 TL2 -You see persons
- 8 TL1 You [do sometimes, yes
- 9 Winston [and you have peoples.
- 10 So clearly there is something very interesting going on. I am curious
- 11 ((Winston goes to his laptop and sits at the desk))
- 12 how can we look for exam- you made, you mentioned fish seems to be-
- 13 TL1 -It seems to have [changed I think
- 14 Winston [Fishes
- 15 TL1 In that thing that we looked at last week, what was that?
- 16 Winston What was that thing called?
- 17 TL3 Words and Phrases?
- 18 Winston I probably wouldn't use Words and Phrases. I'd probably use the Ngram
- 19 Viewer [because that's perfect for books.
- 20 TLs [Yeah/yes
- 21 ...
- 22 ((Winston opens Google Ngram Viewer))

- 23 Let's find out. Have I shown you the Ngram Viewer?
- 24 TLs Yes ((nodding))
- 25 Winston Yeah, OK, I must have. So let's take a look...
- 26 TL4 I also looked up *talk to something* and *speak to something*
- 27 Winston Oh, did you?
- 28 TL4 And it said that *talk to* is on the rise.
- 29 Winston How about that?,

Having already discussed language variation in the previous sessions, the TLs in this excerpt share examples of changes they have noticed in the use of English using their “linguistic radar” (Wright, 2002, p. 115). TL1 self-selects to start a conversation about the perceived recent increase in the use of *fishes* as the plural form of *fish* (1, 3-4). TL2 and TL4 also mention *persons* (5) and *talk to something* (26) respectively. TL1's proposal for action (15) reinforces the exploratory nature of this reflection. In addition to peer acknowledgement (e.g., 8), Winston acknowledges these contributions in different ways, such as expansion (6, 9), reacting to the mentioned changes positively (“...something very interesting going on”) (10), showing curiosity (10), embarking on exploring them (23) and showing interest in the TLs' explorations (27, 29). He also encourages them to reflect on the nature of language change (22-23). In addition, to promote their independence in language analysis (Borg, 1994), he engages them in deciding how to further probe instances of language change and what purposes different language corpora serve (12, 16, 18-19).

This exchange suggests a tendency on the part of Winston and the participants to treat emerging language patterns descriptively. Winston goes as far as to react to them positively (10 & 29). There is no mention of how English should (not) be used; rather, the participants in the conversation are simply talking about how it is used and how its use is changing.

Changes are fine.

Although language change is treated descriptively in numerous conversations observed as part of this study, on a number of occasions some of the TLs express prescriptivist, disapproving attitudes towards some language patterns. Winston, in response, promotes descriptivist alternatives through reasoning and examples. The following excerpt is an example of Winston

discouraging a prescriptivist approach and questioning the linguistic complaint tradition (Milroy & Milroy, 1999).

Excerpt 2

- 1 Winston Every generation is horrified by the language of the next generation. It's
2 something that we'd have to expect, that we should know about, but it's
3 not something that we should be unduly concerned about. And when we
4 complain about other generations, we need to realise that earlier
5 generations probably complained about us. That's just the way it goes.
- 6 TL1 I kind of agree but then if you have got a perfectly good way of saying
7 something, like agreement,
- 8 Winston Yep?
- 9 TL1 Now people are saying agreeance. Are we all in agreeance with this?
10 ((Winston laughs))
- 11 TL2 Ahhh
- 12 TL1 Are we just supposed to go oh, OK (.) [and let it happen?
13 (((Winston laughs))
- 14 Winston Well, to answer that, let me just read a few things from Bad English.
15 ((Winston picks up Bad English and reads complaints made in earlier
16 decades about now common uses of words like 'host', 'individual', and
17 'photo'.))
- 18 TLs Hmm

In his extended turn, Winston reminds the students that their own way of using their language is criticised by others (1-5). TL1 acknowledges Winston's remark relatively willingly (I kind of agree) but expresses her concern over practicing "unbounded descriptivism" (Finegan, 2000, p. 248) by mentioning *agreeance* as an example of a change unacceptable to her (6-7, 9, 12). In response, Winston takes a further awareness-raising measure and presents examples of recent usages of English deemed normal in TL1's generation but previously frowned upon (14-17). In this and similar conversations, it is as if Winston takes heed of Kliffer's (2007) argument that "even though prescriptivism is a nonstarter in linguistic research methods, it is a force to be reckoned with in the mentality of many if not most native speakers" (p. 329).

In addition to challenging the TLs' views, Winston also problematises prescriptivist scholars' opinions in order to provide further space for the TLs' reflection on the narrowness of prescriptivism. See Excerpt 3 for an example.

Excerpt 3

- 1 Winston ((Reading from the slide)) "If mere convenience is to justify such attempts
- 2 upon the idiom, you cannot stop till the language becomes, in a proper sense
- 3 of the word, corrupt." (Samuel Taylor Coleridge, 8 July 1832)
- 4 Do languages become corrupt? (3.0)
- 5 TL They change.
- 6 Winston Yea:h, I'm trying to think what it would mean for a language to become
- 7 corrupt and I just I can't I've got nothing.

In this excerpt, Winston provokes discussion of the moralistic treatment of language change (as language corruption) in the complaint tradition (Milroy & Milroy, 1999) (4), to which a TL responds by adopting the descriptivist term "change" (5). Winston acknowledges her contribution and indicates that he considers the notion of language corruption erroneous (6-7).

The discussion in the following excerpt is focused on an example of recent language use, which can provoke disapproval from those taking a prescriptivist view. A TL initiates the discussion after the class listens to a podcast by Winston in which he and a like-minded linguist guest reflect on why some are critical of "I am good" as a response to "How are you?"

Excerpt 4

- 1 TL1 Is that really grammatically (.) what if I said he (.) he's (.) good
- 2 Winston He's good
- 3 TL1 I'm talking about something, I'm watching someone playing tennis and I
- 4 say he is he's [good.
- 5 Winston [He's good.
- 6 TL1 Is that grammatically (.) wrong?
- 7 Winston Umm, well I don't know. How do you feel about it?

8 TL1 No, I think it's fine.

9 Winston Sounds fine.

10 TL1 So, why is I am good which he was just talking about isn't just (.)

11 Winston Because people are peeving and there is no reason for-

12 TL1 I thought this is grammatically

13 Winston If you say he plays tennis good,

14 TL1 No

15 Winston Now that sounds odd to me. Does it not sound odd to you?

16 TLs Yes, yeah, hm

17 Winston Yeah, because ...

18 ((They discuss the relevant grammar))

19 Winston I wish that like people would use their instincts?, that's because the

20 instincts that we have (1.0) reflect the patterns that we've absorbed and

21 the patterns that we know. And I wish that people would be more

22 de:::scriptive.

In response to TL1's question about the grammatical accuracy of "He's good" as meaning "He plays tennis well" (1, 6), Winston puts the question back to her and avoids adopting the terminology that she uses (i.e., Is that grammatically wrong?) to evaluate the appropriacy of "He's good". Instead he uses "feel" in his turn (7) which suggests an attempt on his part to shift the analysis initiated by TL1 from a prescriptivist, rule-based to a descriptivist, intuitive, pattern-informed orientation. TL1 welcomes this shift (8) and Winston partially echoes her response (9). In response to her further search for the logic behind questioning the appropriateness of "I am good", Winston more explicitly expresses his position that "there is no reason for" "peeving" (11). It is worth noting here that immediately before this whole excerpt, Winston launches an extended turn where he elaborates on the inadequacy of treating language in terms of logical rules:

Some people think that language obeys logical rules and if you don't obey the logical rules then you are doing it wrong. And I think what really happens is that we pick certain words and sort of put them in patterns and then (.) these patterns build up and we hear each other making patterns and it doesn't matter if they are logical. So if we hear it, we just assume that's the way it goes.

In order to further address TL1's question, at 13 Winston initiates a sequence where he admits that some language constructions do "sound odd" (15) and there are linguistic reasons for that (17-18). He concludes his turn by encouraging a treatment of language based on our instincts as they reflect common language patterns and introducing the term "descriptive" (19-22).

Changes may be counter-intuitive.

To further support a descriptivist approach to studying language, Winston exposes the limitations of intuitive judgments about why language changes against credible evidence. An example of such attempts on his part is Excerpt 5. This excerpt is from a lecture in the ESL Teaching Methodology unit focused on the importance of teachers' knowledge of language and involves a discussion about the phrases 'another thing coming' and 'another think coming'. Most of the TLs had previously argued in the Sociolinguistics unit that 'another thing coming' is the correct version.

Excerpt 5

- 1 Winston Some people say thing and some people say think, and I do have people
2 who say "ahh I hate people who say another think (.) coming'. It's so dumb.
3 Obviously it's another thing." And I thought what if that's true.
4 So guess what I did.
- 5 TL1 Ngram
- 6 Winston Yeah, I decided to hit the Ngram Viewer. Here we go, another thing
7 coming, another think coming.
8 ((Winston searches for *another thing coming* and *another think coming* on
9 Google Ngram Viewer))
10 OK, so the first thing I did was I looked up like (.) in Dennis Baron's
11 World Wide Words. It is awesome. And he pointed out that another think
12 coming came first.
- 13 TLs Hmm?
- 14 Winston By about 10 years in print. Now we've got another think coming and
15 another thing coming
16 ((Winston shows the result of the search on the screen))
17 TLs Oh-ahhh-hmm

18 Winston If you say another thing coming, you are in the minority. Most people say
19 another think_k (.) coming.
20 ((Winston points to the graph))
21 TL2 Must be American
22 TL3 Yeah
23 Winston (.) Not totally. Let's find out.
24 (TLs laugh)
25 ((Winston goes to his laptop and conducts another search))
26 Winston In British English, in fact it is also much more common
27 TLs Oh-Oh, my goodness
28 ((Some laugh))
29 Winston Isn't that strange and counter-intuitive, (1.0) Language is full of strange and
30 counter-intuitive (.) things like that.

Winston shows that, while many assume “obviously it’s another thing” (3), he has treated this assumption in a questioning manner (3: “what if that’s true”). Then he invites the TLs to guess how he went about checking its accuracy (4), which they do successfully (5). He also indicates that experts’ blogs are helpful (10-11). The expert opinion he reads to the class (10-12; 14-15) and the results of his search on Google Ngram Viewer (18-19) challenge the TLs’ intuitive assumption and, therefore, create a moment of realisation for them (17). In response to TL2’s and TL3’s intuitive assumption that “another think coming” is an Americanism (21-22), Winston presents the results of another corpus search (26), creating another moment of revelation (27-28). Winston acknowledges these moments by emphasising that “language is full of strange and counter-intuitive things” (29-30).

Another example of Winston problematising intuitive judgments occurs in the Sociolinguistics unit, where he questions the credibility of the common perception that many recent language changes are Americanisms. His example is from a piece in BBC News by Engle (2011) who considers the words ‘lengthy’, ‘reliable’, ‘talented’, ‘influential’, and ‘tremendous’ Americanisms. Reporting on his own searches on Google Ngram Viewer, Winston traces all but ‘lengthy’ back to British authors. In response, TLs laugh, nod, and/or maintain a thinking gesture. The factual, but by no means conclusive, information with which Winston challenges

the basis of Engle's 'linguistic complaint' creates an awareness-raising moment for the TLs some of whom have been observed to express similar opinions in the class.

As heavily as he draws upon language corpora for evidence, Winston adopts a similarly critical approach to them in terms of the objectivity of evidence they provide and their usefulness to language learners. In a different session, he says: "not every student needs the most common words. Keep in mind also corpora can be biased. They come from a certain place, a certain time, or a certain domain."

No one speaks 'Standard English'.

A premise underlying a prescriptivist view of language is that there is a universally defined set of standards to adhere to when using a language, and that these standards together constitute what some call Standard English. Questioning this assumption is, therefore, another measure Winston takes to promote descriptivism. He does so, for example, when he draws upon McArthur's (1987) Circle of World English to show that there are numerous variations of English or, rather, Englishes spoken around the world. Following this explanation, one of the TLs with a LOTE background asks Winston who would use this form of English. In response, Winston launches an extended turn where he draws upon different tools to clarify the concept of 'Standard English'. He uses the simile of "a platonic ideal" to show "it's an abstraction that kind of doesn't exist". Then he presents the analogy of a giraffe, through which he explains that the abstract concept of "giraffe-ness" materialises in different existing giraffes. He then elaborates on what he means by "giraffes" through examples closer to the topic: "All that exists is American English speakers, British English speakers, Australian English speakers, and even those people are different from each other." This way, he shows that there are variations even within these language communities, as also acknowledged in the literature (e.g., Crystal, 2004). During his explanations, some TLs are observed to verbally acknowledge him (e.g., by saying yeah and hmm) and nod.

Let's explore language patterns inductively.

Another way in which the discourse within the TESOL Grad Cert classes provide an opportunity for the TLs to explore and reflect on language in descriptive terms is through engaging them in inductive analysis of linguistic patterns, which the literature identifies as an effective tool to raise TLA (Andrews, 2007b; Borg, 1994; Wright, 2002). In line with the

descriptivist view that language patterns emerge for some reason, Winston encourages the TLs to engage in inductive examination of them. The following excerpt is initiated by Winston putting forth a recently emerging grammar pattern and encouraging the participants to explore its logic inductively.

Excerpt 6

- 1 Winston I've got some surprises. I found this one on the web. What do you call
2 someone who always has their foot on the gas?
3 TL1 Leadfoot
4 Winston Leadfoot. ((Reading the headline on the web)) 2000 leadfoots a day
5 caught on camera
6 TL2 Lead feet
7 ((TLs laugh))
8 Winston Yeah ((laughs)), is it- Now let's follow our instincts. What sounds good?
9 Lead foots? or lead feet,
10 TLs Leadfoots
11 Winston Let's see what a bunch of lead feet we got here. That sounds weird,
12 doesn't it? Doesn't sound right.
13 TLs Yeah
14 Winston What an awful lot of leadfoots are out there
15 TL3 That's because it's a label, isn't it? It's a (1.0) it's a different thing.
16 Winston It is a different thing, isn't it? In fact, we can even say you know (.) a
17 leadfoot is not a kind of foot.
18 TL3 No. It isn't.
19 Winston It's a person.
20 TL3 Yeah
21 TL4 You've got one foot on the gas (...)
22 Winston It doesn't get its (.) meaning from foot. So it doesn't get its (.)
23 pluralisation from it either.
24 Does that make sense?
25 TLs Yeah
26 TL5 It's the name of something, it's a noun and you just put an s at the end

27 and make it plural.
28 ((The conversation continues about two other examples, namely
29 ‘computer mouse’ which TL6 gives and ‘mongoose’ which Winston
30 mentions.))
31 TL6 There has been a change in sports where we talk about the Australia
32 team, the West Australia team, not the Australian?
33 TL3 Oh, yes
34 ((Some other TLs also react saying ah, yes, etc.))
35 Winston I am writing these down ((on the white board)). The Australia team
36 TL3 The England soccer team
37 Winston Oh, that is interesting, [OK
38 TL6 [It seems to be a recent thing
39 TL4 Maybe there is a trend there to brand things, so we are using the nouns
40 and (.) because everything is being branded. West Australia is a brand,
41 West Australian is an adjective, so ...

We enter the conversation where Winston gives examples of pluralisation behaviours which may defy the common regular/irregular dichotomy, referring to them as “surprises”. In this excerpt Winston helps TLs work out the pluralisation behaviour of leadfoot in a number of ways. To start with, he encourages the TLs to follow their instincts (8-9) to figure out “what sounds good” (8). Following some TLs’ accurate responses (10), Winston further facilitates the process of analysis by putting “leadfeet” and “leadfoots” in sentences (11, 14). Following this reflection, TL3 initiates a process of reasoning behind this pattern, to which Winston, TL4, and TL5 also contribute (15-30). The class goes on to focus on ‘computer mouse’ and ‘mongoose’ mentioned by TL6 and Winston respectively. Going beyond irregular plural forms, TL6 and TL3 mention two recent phrases defying traditional grammar rules (31-32, 38), to which TL4 contributes an extended explanation (39-41).

There are patterns which we cannot explain.

In addition to facilitating logical analysis of some language patterns, Winston presents the TLs with patterns “that do not lend themselves to explication by rules” (Larsen-Freeman, 2015, p. 273). In the following excerpts, for instance, they are presented with examples from

morphology and phonology. To start with, in Excerpt 7 Winston gives examples of different forms of the verb ‘produce’ and then says:

Excerpt 7

- 1 Winston But there are some things that are not possible (1.0) Producement?
2 Doesn't sound very good, right? That's why I stuck an asterisk in front of
3 it. Why can't we say producement?
4 (5.0)
5 Right, ((laughs)) we don't really know.
6 TL1 If enough people did use it, it would be alright
7 Winston If enough people did it, it would be OK.
8 ((Winston then encourages discussion about ‘friendship’, ‘kighthood’,
9 and ‘neighbourhood’. Using elicitation techniques, he highlights our lack
10 of knowledge about why different suffixes serve as noun-makers for
11 different words and why while kighthood is the state of being a knight,
12 neighbourhood is not the state of being a neighbor. He then concludes:))
13 It's very strange how these things work

The focus of this conversation is on morphological variations some of which, Winston believes, “are not possible” (1) and for which there are no known reasons, as indicated by the TLs’ silence (4) and Winston’s subsequent comment in this regard (5). TL1 makes a descriptivist comment about how a morphological variation becomes possible (6) which Winston acknowledges (7). To further highlight the inexplicability and unpredictability of how morphology works, Winston elicits other examples from the TLs, and concludes by saying “it’s strange how these things work” (13).

Generic Structure of the TESOL Grad Cert Discourse

In order to explore how a descriptivist perspective is enacted in the TESOL Grad Cert, an analysis of the participants’ ‘ways of acting’, manifested in the generic structure of the excerpts, and their ‘ways of being’, reflected in their interactional styles is in order (Fairclough, 2003). The overarching generic structure directing the TESOL Grad Cert discourse in the

reported excerpts is dialogue where the TLs and Winston actively engage in sharing ideas and experiences. Given the significance of dialogue for raising TLA (Borg, 1994; Pomphrey & Burley, 2009; Wright, 2002), the reported conversations are evaluated against a co-operative and egalitarian template here (Fairclough, 1999).

There is a high degree of equality and power symmetry within the TESOL Grad Cert with respect to the participants' right to engage in dialogue and contribute to meaning negotiation. More precisely, there are numerous instances of the TLs' self-selecting to produce turns (e.g., 1: 1, 26; 4:1; 6: 31), and there are no obvious examples of them being interrupted by Winston or their peers. Rather, their contributions are acknowledged and adopted in the conversations, and their questions are addressed by their peers and Winston (e.g., 1: 2, 6, 8, 27; 6: 35, 37, 38; 7: 7). Moreover, the classroom discourse is not formulated in such a way that the TLs would feel required by Winston, the lecturer, to adopt descriptivism and jettison prescriptivism. Instead, as discussed subsequently, descriptivism is promoted mainly through reflection on evidence and argumentation. Finally, the TLs have the right to produce turns, which fulfil different functions, mostly enacting a descriptive view of language.

One such function is the TLs, together with Winston, sharing experiences and observations (1: 1, 26-29; 6: 31-36) that form the basis for reflection on how language is changing and being used. In addition, in the process of seeking explanations as to the why of the observed language phenomena, the participants engage in different types of reasoning. Inductive reasoning happens in Excerpt 1, for example, where they build on examples of fishes and persons to question the grammar rule which considers these plural forms inaccurate. They also engage in logical reasoning. In Excerpt 6, for instance, they discuss the reason why leadfoot takes a plural -s. Intuitive reasoning is also applied, as in Excerpt 4 where Winston and TL1 focus on how TL1 feels about a language construction. They, however, problematise human intuition as an essentially valid basis for accounting for language phenomena, like those mentioned in Excerpt 5 which they found counter-intuitive. To go beyond intuition, they employ a number of problem-solving techniques, such as seeking expert opinion (Excerpt 5) and obtaining evidential information from language corpora (Excerpts 1 & 5). Yet, the inexplicability of some language phenomena is acknowledged (Excerpt 7).

Participants' Style

In tandem with the aforementioned functions which work together to foster negotiation of a descriptivist view of language, Winston's and the TLs' interaction styles are also conducive to this process. In line with Fairclough's (2003) conceptualisation of style, the researcher focuses on the linguistic choices made in the TESOL Grad Cert regarding modality and vocabulary.

Modality.

Two major types of modality are observed in the reported classroom data: "epistemic modality" through which Winston and the TLs present their views of the nature of language and how language is used and "deontic modality" which manifests how they think language ought to be viewed and treated. The epistemic modality in Winston's discourse is characterised by mostly low to median commitment to truth and an evidential orientation informed by identification of language patterns rather than unexamined epistemic judgments with high commitment to the truth of linguistic rules. In Excerpt 1, for example, in his first turn Winston produces the modalised sensory evidential "I guess you can have fishes, can't you?" (1: 2), where he uses the low-certainty verb 'guess' and the tag question 'can't you?', but he also encourages going beyond personal observations and looking for evidence in corpora (23: "Let's find out"). In this excerpt, the TLs also adopt a similar epistemic modality in that they display low to median commitment to truth in their sensory evidentials (e.g., 1: 1: "But has that changed? I see a lot of fishes nowadays."; 1: 3-4: "There seems to be more evidence of I mean I might have ..."; 1: 21: "Isn't fishes used in the Bible?").

In Excerpt 1 (as in 6), similar levels of commitment to truth and a relatively strong orientation to evidentiality are observed in both Winston's and the TLs' turns. In some other excerpts, however, there is a discrepancy between Winston's descriptivist adherence to evidentiality, which entails adopting a level of truth commitment proportionate to available evidence, and the judgment epistemic modality in the TLs' turns and the opinions Winston reports from media. Two examples are discussed here.

In Excerpt 4, the TL seeks Winston's epistemic judgments in the form of linguistic rules, which would entail high commitment to truth, and adoption of a prescriptivist view of language on his part. Winston is asked if 'He's good', as meaning he plays tennis well, is "grammatically wrong" (4: 6). Starting his second-pair part with "Well I don't know", Winston signals

avoidance of adopting the TL's modality of rule-based judgment and committing himself to the truth of an assumption not yet examined in the classes. Maintaining an evidential orientation, instead, he encourages intuitive reasoning (4: 7 "How do you feel about it?") and inductive analysis (4: 17 "with some verbs..."). The TL welcomes the heuristics, adopts the terminology of descriptivism, and produces the sensory evidential "I think it's fine" (4: 8), reinforced by Winston's acknowledgement "Sounds fine" (4: 9). Her and Winston's evidentials are modalised, which reflects their median commitment to truth.

In Excerpt 6, Winston problematises high levels of commitment to truth in the statements with a judgment epistemic modality, namely the common assumption "Obviously it's another thing" (5: 3), and the TL's unexamined epistemic judgment that 'another think coming' "must be American" (5: 21). As in Excerpt 4, Winston takes the TLs through a similar journey. He begins with suspension of commitment to truth (5: 3 "I thought what if that's true", and 5: 23 "Not totally"), encourages search for evidence (5: 4-5, 23), seeks expert opinion (5: 10-11) and corpus evidence (5: 8-9, 25), and presents the outcome in the form of quotative (5: 11-20) and inferential evidentials (5: 26) with proportionate levels of commitment to truth.

Regarding the participants' use of deontic modality, the researcher identified one instance of a TL and a few examples of Winston using it in their conversations about how they expect language changes to be viewed and treated. In Excerpt 2 where they focus on recent language patterns, a TL questions 'agreeance' as a recently emerging alternative to 'agreement': "if you have got a perfectly good way of saying something, like agreement. Now people are saying agreeance...Are we just supposed to go oh, OK (.) and let it happen?" (2: 12). A number of linguistic features in this quote suggest a directive modality in her turn: evaluative phrasing ("perfectly good" & "OK"), the adverbial "just" as meaning *simply* or *only* (Tagliamonte, 2005) which suggests emphasis, and the verb phrase "let it happen" which suggests her perceived ownership over language use and right to (not) "let" a language structure be used.

In this excerpt and Excerpt 4, Winston presents the following arguments about how he thinks language change should be treated:

"it's not something that we should be unduly concerned about. And when we complain about other generations, we need to realise that earlier generations probably complained about us" (2: 2-5)

“I wish that like people would use their instincts?, that’s because ...” (4: 19-22)

In these extracts, Winston encourages the TLs to treat language descriptively in a number of ways. In order for those TLs who have prescriptivist tendencies to be more receptive to his arguments, Winston mostly avoids directly addressing them and prefaces his expectations such that they are not too directive (“it’s not something that”, “I wish”). Also, he expresses his perspective in the form of desires (volitive modality) using the word “wish”. Finally, he avoids separating himself from the TLs and implies that ‘we’ all may have prescriptivist tendencies by using we-statements. These face-enhancing measures, the researcher suggests, help Winston mitigate the potential destabilising effects that presenting a different view of language may have on the TLs (Borg, 1994).

Vocabulary.

In different sections of the findings, the phrasings in the excerpts have been discussed. This section shows how the phrasings related to descriptivist and prescriptivist views are ‘language’d’ (Becker, 1991) about in the TESOL Grad Cert, with Winston contributing the most to it.

This analysis suggests that prescriptivists are portrayed as believing that we should “obey logical rules” of the “Standard English” as the form which is based on “obviously” correct structures. They could be “horrified” by and “unduly concerned” about emerging language patterns, many of which they think “must be” “Americanisms”. They may find them “grammatically wrong” or “dumb”. Therefore, they tend to “complain about” or maybe “hate” them and try not to “let” them happen since, otherwise, they make the language “corrupt”.

On the other hand, descriptivists are seen as considering language change as natural and inevitable and believing “that’s the way it goes”. Therefore, they see language as a set of “patterns”. They try to identify them using their “instincts” and language data rather than evaluating them against Standard English since it “kind of doesn’t exist” as there are different communities speaking English and “even those people are different from each other”. They do not go further than deciding what “sounds” “good”, “weird”, or “odd” because they know “if enough people did use it, it would be OK”. They are “curious” about language changes and find them “interesting”. If exposed to a judgment about language, they try to “find out” “if

that's true". They "look up" linguistic constructions in language corpora and seek expert opinion. Yet, they know language is "strange" and "counter-intuitive", and corpora "can be biased".

This section reported on the analysis of discourses, genres, and styles evident in the selected classroom conversations using Fairclough's (2003) framework. In light of this analysis, Section 5 addresses the first research question, "What types of identities relating to language analysis do L2 teachers negotiate in a teacher education program?"

Identities-in-talk in the TESOL Grad Cert

Using Zimmerman's (1998) proposal for identity in talk-in-interaction, the researcher found two major situated identities negotiated in the excerpts, namely *descriptive language analyst* and *language analysis facilitator*. These identities are discussed in light of their constitutive discourse identities which, following Zimmerman's conceptualisation of discourse identities, are presented in terms of functions fulfilled in the reported excerpts.

Doing Being Descriptive Language Analysts

In the reported conversations, the discourse identities assumed by Winston and the TLs which constitute the situated identity of *descriptive language analyst* involve fulfilling the following functions (since these have been discussed in detail previously, only a few references to the excerpts are made here):

- curiously observing emerging language patterns (1)
- exploring them through
 - intuitive reasoning (4: 7-9), yet acknowledging the counter-intuitive nature of some language patterns (5)
 - logical reasoning (6) and inductive analysis (1), yet acknowledging the inexplicability and unpredictability of some language phenomena (7)
 - seeking expert opinion (5: 10-12), but remaining critical of it (e.g., words perceived by Engle as Americanisms)
 - further probing into language patterns in language corpora (1: 15-25; 5: 25-26), while having the limited and biased nature of corpora in mind

- describing the language phenomena in light of evidence, and at the same time
 - avoiding unbounded descriptivism since there are structures which do sound odd (4: 15-18)
 - avoiding ascribing the status of absolute rules to descriptions/patterns because language varies across and within time (1 & 2: 1-5) and communities (see section 4.1.4)
 - remaining vigilant about own prescriptive tendencies (2)

The analysis of the excerpts in the previous section shows that not only Winston but also the TLs had a major contribution to the enactment of *descriptive language analyst* identity. On several occasions, the TLs proactively fulfilled some of the listed functions (1: 1, 26; 6: 31-32, 39-41). On many others, they co-accomplished them together with Winston in different ways, such as contributing examples/observations to facilitate inductive analysis (1: 5), acknowledging Winston's and their peers' contributions (5: 27; 1: 8), expressing interest in corpus input for further exploration of language patterns (1: 15; 5: 5), and even voicing concern over the possibility of taking descriptivism too far (2: 12).

Modelling the 'Language Analysis Facilitator' role

In addition to the enactment of the 'language analyst' role of a language teacher, the data includes evidence suggesting identity work around the role of fostering language analysis as part of being a language teacher. This happens through Winston modelling, though implicitly, how a teacher can facilitate language analysis in the classroom and raise learners' language awareness. The discourse identities which foster modelling of the *language analysis facilitator* role of a teacher involve Winston:

- creating a dialogical atmosphere where the TLs comfortably voice their opinions (see 4.2 Generic structure of the TESOL Grad Cert discourse)
- encouraging them to share their experiences and observations of how language is used (e.g., 6: 35, 37)
- fostering collaborative analysis of language through logic, intuition, and induction (e.g., 1: 23; 4: 7)
- acknowledging their observations and analyses (e.g., 1: 2, 27, 29; 6: 37; 7: 7)

- familiarising them with language corpora to foster their autonomous exploration of language (e.g., 1: 18; 5: 4)
- raising their awareness of limitations of each language analysis tool (e.g., 1: 18-19; also see Section 4.1.3, last paragraph)
- arguing for his position through reasoning and evidence as a co-discussant, rather than prescribing his descriptivism as an authoritarian teacher (e.g., 2: 14-17; 3: 6-7)

The interactional consequentiality of the *language analysis facilitator* identity is reflected in a number of observations previously discussed: a high degree of equality and power symmetry in the overarching dialogical structure of the data, the TLs' sharing observations and interpretations either proactively or in response to Winston's elicitation, their active engagement with different types of reasoning and corpora, and their experience of dealing with currently counter-intuitive and inexplicable language phenomena. In a typical language classroom the teacher and learners may engage in similar conversations about language. This suggests that the experience of in-depth engagement with language in the TESOL Grad Cert might encourage the TLs to transfer the language analysis facilitator role modelled by Winston to their own teaching. Bartels (2005) also argues that task similarity between teacher education and classroom instruction fosters transfer of TLA.

Orienting to the Transportable Identity of 'Language User'

In some excerpts, in addition to enacting the situated identity of *language analyst*, the participants interact as members of different language communities or, rather, *language users*, which is a transportable identity potentially at work in all human interaction. Here two excerpts are briefly discussed in which navigation between these two identities suggests further enrichment of interactional resources for identity work in the TESOL Grad Cert.

Excerpt 1 starts with TL1 and TL2 being *language users* when they share their observations related to the use of 'fishes' and 'persons' (1: 1-8). Winston orients to their *language user* identity through acknowledging their contributions (1: 2, 6, & 9). Afterward, however, he encourages corpus search (1: 10-12), hence making relevant the *language analyst* situated identity and creating a space for more in-depth analysis. The TLs adopt this identity and

maintain it till the end of the excerpt. The two identities work well in tandem as they both have a descriptivist orientation, and the shift from being language users to being language analysts contributes to the participants' language awareness. In Excerpt 4 descriptivism is encouraged while in the opposite direction, as there is a shift from being language analysts to being language users. TL1's question about the grammaticality of 'He's good' makes 'conditionally relevant' (Schegloff, 1968) a subsequent rule-based, prescriptivist, language analysis by Winston. Also, TL1 seeking a conclusive answer from Winston suggests her orienting to Winston's institutional identity (lecturer). Winston, however, avoids this (4: 7: "well, I don't know") and, instead, orients to TL1's *language user* identity by calling upon her own intuition as a member of the Australian English speaking community (4: 7: "How do you feel about it?"), hence encouraging a descriptivist approach.

In discussing these trajectories in terms of shifts, the researcher does not wish to suggest there is a demarcation line between *language user* and *language analyst* identities, as language use involves some degree of language analysis. However, the sense in which the term *language analyst* is used in this study entails the participants' use of tools and procedures for analysing the nature and use of language not usually available to the general public. This is why the researcher argues that a shift from the transportable identity of language user to the situated identity of language analyst in Excerpt 1 fosters identity work. In Excerpt 4, however, Winston recognises the disadvantage of analysing language in prescriptivist terms and the value of intuitive knowledge to a descriptivist analysis. Therefore, he encourages TL1 to take on the role of a language user or, rather, a member of an English-speaking community who typically has this type of knowledge.

Identity Work in the TESOL Grad Cert

The previous section focused on the types of identities enacted in the TESOL Grad Cert dialogues. In this section, research questions two and three are addressed: "What are the possible opportunities available in such a program for teachers' negotiation of these identities?", and "What constraints may teacher education impose on this process?" Communities of Practice (CoP) (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) is used together with the TESOL teacher education literature to critically examine how these interactions foster or hinder identity negotiation in the three modes of engagement, imagination, and alignment proposed by Wenger (1998).

Opportunities in the TESOL Grad Cert for Teacher Identity Work

The findings suggest that the TESOL Grad Cert provides the space for the participants' engagement in the process of negotiating meanings. From a CoP perspective, engagement in collaborative negotiation of meaning is a condition for identity development. Indeed, Wenger (1998) argues "building an identity consists of negotiating the meanings of our experience of membership in social communities" (p. 145). This type of identity building was evident in the dialogical generic structure of the reported classroom conversations characterised by collaborative practices such as the TLs and Winston sharing their observations of how language is used in their language communities and applying inductive analysis to language examples to identify patterns.

As the TLs negotiated meanings, they drew on their membership in the English-speaking community they belonged to as users, as observers of others' use, and as owners of intuitive knowledge about the language. This type of acknowledgement of participants' multimembership in their language analysis practice, according to Wenger (1998, 2010), fosters development of identity of participation. In the context of teacher education, this has been shown to contribute to TLs' development of a collective identity and achievement of "identity congruence" (Niesz, 2010, p. 42) and lack of it has been found to result in their marginalisation (Nelson & Temples, 2011).

The findings in this study also show that the participants' engagement in language analysis had a high level of mutuality, which is another factor conducive to identity formation (Wenger, 1998). For engagement to be mutual, Wenger argues, members' meanings need to be recognised as valued and worth serious consideration. There were numerous instances of acknowledgement of the TLs' linguistic observations and analyses by their peers and Winston. The teacher education literature has also attached importance to such acknowledgements in the process of teacher learning (e.g., de Sonnevile, 2007; Fernandez-Balboa & Marshall, 1994). Mutuality, Wenger argues, also entails that the currency of individuals' views and arguments, rather than their professional status (here lecturer and students), form the basis of determining the legitimacy of produced meanings. This "mutual evaluation" (Wenger, 1998, p. 235) was evident where the legitimacy of the participants' meanings was not impacted by their institutional roles. Winston, regardless of his lecturing position, would provide reasons and evidence for his ideas, and the TLs' arguments would not get questioned by Winston on a

lecturer-student basis; rather, he would either acknowledge the currency of their arguments vis-à-vis the established competence in linguistics or provide dispreferred feedback in a face-enhancing manner and through reasoning. As Wenger (1998) argues, this “experience and display of competence” (p. 152) serves as a resource for identity negotiation.

The dynamics of interaction in the excerpts suggest a high level of trust in the TESOL Grad Cert conversations which, like mutuality, boosts the potential of engagement in fostering identity development. Wenger conceptualises trust in two ways. The first is “feel[ing] comfortable addressing real problems together and speaking truthfully” (Wenger, 2000, p. 230). An example of trust defined as such in the TESOL Grad Cert is in Excerpt 2 where the TL comfortably shares her concern about the increasing use of *agreeance* despite Winston’s obvious disapproval of prescriptivism. The second conceptualisation of trust put forward by Wenger (2010) is trust that the partnerships within the community promote learning. The dominance of dialogue in the generic structure of the excerpts and the myriad examples of the participants’ co-accomplishing talk show their tacit recognition of the potential of collaborative reflection in enhancing learning about language.

The dialogues involve the TLs in a journey of developing a stronger sense of membership in the immediate community of the TESOL Grad Cert and the wider community of L2 teachers through drawing upon the repertoire of this community (Wenger, 1998, 2010). This includes engaging with linguistic analysis routines (e.g., induction) and tools (e.g., corpora) and the language of the TESOL community (e.g., descriptivist terminology). Learning to talk the community’s language and use its routines and tools is a key to the participants’ identity development as it fosters their legitimate peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and their imagining of how other, more experienced, members of the community work with language (Wenger, 1998). The participants’ legitimate participation manifested itself most clearly in their enactment of the identity of descriptive language analysts.

While in many of the excerpts, the TLs actively co-accomplish talk together with Winston, in some excerpts their participation is quite peripheral. For example, in Excerpt 2 the TL, aware of her limited insight, does not go beyond asking questions to which Winston provides detailed responses, hence him demonstrating greater ownership of meaning than her. In this and other examples where the TLs remain listeners while Winston is producing extended turns, their peripherality in the process of knowledge construction may facilitate their identity formation

although in a different manner to when they more actively contribute to the exchanges. Their non-participation is “enabling” (Wenger, 1998, p. 166) and conducive to their development of an identity of participation in that it is an opportunity for learning more about an established regime of competence in the TESOL community (here descriptivism) and connecting meaningfully to it. In other words, as newcomers to this area, the TLs in these excerpts seek legitimacy through engaging with the established competence since their own experience may currently be too limited to serve as a resource for meaning production and ‘pull’ that competence (Wenger, 1998). Moreover, despite peripherality in producing meanings, these TLs’ directive questions clearly impact the content of the two lectures since they result in Winston’s elaborate responses which reflect his due acknowledgement of their questions. A similar observation and analysis was presented by Morton and Gray (2010) who interpreted the participant student teachers’ requests for information as “indicating agency, as they directed the flow of the discourse towards the TE [teacher educator] clarifying meanings” (p. 309).

Peripheral participation in these excerpts and more active engagement in the rest also provide a space for the TLs to strengthen their sense of belonging to the L2 teachers’ community through practicing alignment with its established principles and procedures (Wenger, 1998), here those of descriptivism. Winston’s role in enhancing alignment is particularly significant since, as part of his lecturing position, he assesses the TLs’ knowledge and gives them scores. Therefore, as the most immediate agent of benchmarking their knowledge against the community competence, it is highly important that he maintain a balance between ensuring their accountability to the competence and acknowledging their autonomy. This balance can be observed in Winston’s avoidance of forcefully promoting descriptivism although he is a firm advocate of it. In other words, he does not draw upon his institutional authority to sell descriptivism to his students. Rather, he maintains the position of a co-discussant, though an informed one, throughout, drawing on evidence and different means of reasoning to present his views and question some TLs’. Yet, he largely succeeds in inspiring alignment with descriptivism. The exchanges where the TLs practice being descriptive language analysts (e.g., 1 & 6) happen towards the middle of and late in the units, where the routines and language of descriptivism have already been modelled by Winston. Therefore, the TLs in the reported excerpts have already aligned themselves with descriptivism to a certain extent. Yet, they maintain a healthy dose of scepticism about its perceived limitations (2: 9-12) and occasionally draw upon prescriptivism to facilitate their analysis (4: 6). This balance between accountability

and autonomy is what Wenger (1998) emphasises in his conceptualisation of alignment as a mode of identification.

Constraints of the TESOL Grad Cert on Teacher Identity Work

So far, the focus has been on the potential of the reported excerpts for fostering the TLs' identity formation. A CoP lens enabled the researcher to also identify limitations on this process both within the conversations and in the wider context of the course.

To start with, while Winston questions binaries within prescriptivism (e.g., right or wrong as in 4), he sets up another dichotomy through presenting prescriptivism and descriptivism as mutually exclusive. This was shown in the Vocabulary section which focused on how these two perspectives are language about in the course. This dichotomous conceptualisation is reinforced when Winston talks about prescriptivism through ascribing it to a group of people (5: 1-2 "I do have *people* who say "ahh *I* hate people who say..."; emphasis added). Implicit in this treatment is the message that one can be either a prescriptivist or a descriptivist, which could be a "misleading dualism" (Hedgcock, 2002, p. 308). Presenting these two regimes of competence as mutually exclusive may minimise the opportunity for the TLs to bridge their boundaries and, instead, reinforce rigidity and dogmatism in how they define teaching (Richardson, 2003; Trent, 2010a). Consequently, it may fail to foster reconciliation, which is a key aspect of identity negotiation (Wenger, 1998). It may even make it difficult for the TLs with strong prescriptivist tendencies to adopt a more descriptivist view of language as "[t]he work of reconciliation may be the most significant challenge faced by learners who move from one community of practice to another" (Wenger, 1998, p. 161). Furthermore, Winston's outright dismissal of prescriptivism may result in these participants' marginality. In other words, "[t]heir experience (of engaging with prescriptivism) becomes irrelevant because it cannot be asserted and recognised as a form of competence" (Wenger, 1998, p. 203). This may undermine the legitimacy of their membership in the immediate community of the class and the wider TESOL community and result in them developing an identity of non-participation as marginality (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998).

Additionally, Winston does not provide the TLs with a full picture of prescriptivism. He presents it as lacking logic altogether (4: 11) and as essentially involving complaints about and hatred of language change (2). This underrepresentation and partial misrepresentation may

result in prescriptivism remaining “foreign”, “opaque”, and “out of reach” (Wenger, 1998, p. 153) to the TLs. The consequent limited understanding of this regime of competence could impact their development of “identity as a form of competence” (Wenger, 1998, p. 153) and their move from peripheral to full participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in the wider community of TESOL. It may also influence their identity formation through imagination since the image they construct of prescriptivism may “involve stereotypes that overlook the finer texture of practice” (Wenger, 1998, p. 177), here, of prescriptivism and “simply project onto the world the assumptions of specific practices” (178), here, of descriptivism.

Neither is Winston observed acknowledging the recognised relevance of prescriptivism to formal situations where linguistic norms are more influential and less flexible than in everyday speaking (Milroy & Milroy, 1999). This limited ‘experience of competence’ (Wenger, 1998) may restrict the TLs’ opportunity to reflect on their own language use and analysis in formal situations and engage in identity work as relating to their ‘language user’ and ‘language analyst’ roles. It may also limit their imagination and identity work around their ‘formal L2 teacher’ role. The reported exchanges unanimously fail to acknowledge learners’ real need to follow certain language norms in the wide range of formal situations, such as school exams, international language proficiency tests, writing reports in the workplace, and giving presentations and writing articles in academic settings. A language learner typically needs to use the L2 in each of these settings at some stage in their life. A lack of focus on this need in the above exchanges denies the TLs the opportunity to reflect on their responsibility to prepare their students for these situations.

Generally, no focus was identified on how the linguistic knowledge constructed in the exchanges can be applied in teaching practice. This could be because most of the reported conversations happened in the units of Linguistics and Sociolinguistics. Yet, the recorded exchanges conducted of Teaching ESL Skills and ESL Teaching Methodology included no connections to teaching practice either. Winston’s position as the lecturer would have enabled him to integrate the linguistic and pedagogical units more effectively. Furthermore, a Graduate Certificate of Education typically lacks a practical teaching component, hence the TLs’ lack of opportunity to evaluate the practical usefulness of their refined linguistic knowledge in the context of classroom. A teacher education program which does not integrate language-focused and teaching methodology units and lacks a practicum component is bound to limit the TLs’ identity formation as it does not foster their “extrapolating from [their] own experience”

(Wenger, 1998, p. 173) with language analysis to their teaching. As mentioned in 'Introduction', the literature also recognises the absence of a focus on procedural aspects of TLA from many L2 teacher education programs (Andrews, 2007a; Wright, 2002; Wright & Bolitho, 1993) and the consequent failure of teachers to use their TLA in teaching (Cots & Arnó, 2005; Popko, 2005).

In fairness to Winston, however, a counterargument is in order. The findings section highlighted the dialogical nature of the reported conversations and the TLs' active engagement in collective reflection about the nature of language and language use. Active engagement in genuine dialogue is likely to facilitate transfer of language awareness to the TLs' teaching experience since Winston does not simply present them with a view of language; rather, the TLs actively co-construct their new understanding and treat views which may not sound logical to them with scepticism. Therefore, the linguistic knowledge they develop through these exchanges may not be entirely declarative simply because they do not experiment with it in the reality of classroom. This said, the significance of classroom teaching experience to developing procedural aspects of TLA remains undeniable.

Another significant constraint that the CoP-informed analysis of the exchanges helped identify is lack of engagement of the TLs with LOTE backgrounds in meaning production in the reported exchanges. Only one of them was reported in Section 4.1.4. to participate in a conversation by only asking a question. In fact, these TLs did not have any major share in the wider category of conversations about the nature of English language and its use, hence no observable chance for them to enact the 'language analyst' identity. This may have been due to their lack of confidence in their intuitive knowledge about English. However, the data did not provide any instances of them contributing insights and experiences from their own first language to classroom discussions or Winston encouraging them to do so. Therefore, they more or less lacked access to the kind of space their native English speaker classmates had in engaging with the repertoire of the TESOL Grad Cert which was discussed earlier, a space which would let "what they have been, what they have done, and what they know contribute to the constitution of its practice" (Wenger, 1998, p. 215). No explicit acknowledgement of their transportable 'language user' identity, as members of their own language communities or international users of English, may hinder their gaining legitimacy as class participants and, therefore, their identity development. As Wenger (1998) argues, "[w]e become who we are by being able to play a part in the relations of engagement that constitute our community" (p. 152).

Finally, their contribution to the exchanges would benefit the whole cohort as their LOTE backgrounds would probably make relevant concepts like translanguaging and code-switching emerge in the discussions as additional foci for reflection.

Concluding Remarks

The foregoing discussion shows that classroom conversations in the TESOL Grad Cert, with Winston playing a key role in shaping them, involve a dialectical interplay of competing forces which inform the TLs' identity work. To start with, there is considerable evidence of close engagement with language within a generic structure of dialogue and a climate of trust and mutuality. However, there are no observed attempts to foster this engagement through integrating reflections on the nature of language and language use with teaching L2. Furthermore, there are numerous examples of peer and lecturer acknowledgement of the TLs' experiences and contributions, including the native English speaker TLs' intuitive knowledge as members of their own English-speaking communities. Even non-participation of the TLs on some occasions were argued to be enabling. Yet, the LOTE TLs' membership in their own language communities and their 'international English user' and 'language analyst' identities were not observed to have been acknowledged. Additionally, the Grad Cert TESOL served as a space for critical and evidential reflection on binaries within prescriptivism, but descriptivism and prescriptivism were presented and treated as irreconcilable binary opposites. Finally, Winston was successful in promoting descriptivism through reasoning and evidence and providing full access to the repertoire of this regime of competence. However, he underrepresented prescriptivism and dismissed it as having no logic, hence providing little space for reflection on arguments in its favour. This delicate interplay of different forces in informing teacher identity work regarding their roles as language analysts, language analysis facilitators (or language teachers), and language users highlights the need for further research in this area which, as suggested early in the paper, is largely under-researched.

Chapter 5 reported on how teacher learners' critical treatment of the teacher educator's ideas within a dialogical atmosphere fosters their identity negotiation around the notion of 'co-learning'. Chapter 6 studied the conversations focused on language use in terms of how they inform teacher learners' identity negotiation as relating to their 'language analyst' role. Both chapters included a focus on all three modes of identification proposed by Wenger (1998) (i.e., engagement, alignment, and imagination). Chapter 7 specifically focuses on how teacher

learners engage in imagination to develop their identities. To this end, it reports on the analysis of a single conversation where teacher learners carry out various imagination acts and discusses the findings in teacher identity negotiation terms. This chapter is presented in the format of a journal article.

CHAPTER 7

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS STUDY 3: IMAGINATION AND IDENTITY NEGOTIATION THROUGH AN INFORMATION GAP TASK

Abstract

This study explores how teacher learners in a graduate course of second language teacher education engage in imagining different aspects of their professional roles and how this imagination work may foster their identity negotiation. It specifically reports on the moment-by-moment experience of imagination in a sample conversation in the teacher education classroom. Conversation Analysis (ten Have, 2007) of the excerpt shows that the process of imaginative reflection provides a space for the participants' identity work as relating to task-based language teaching, form-focused instruction, and needs analysis. The potential of the conversation for identity work is further highlighted through a focus on the atmosphere of negotiability (Wenger, 1998) in the exchange and how the teacher learners and the teacher educator contribute to it.

Introduction

Teachers' responses to questions like 'who am I?', 'what kind of teacher do I want to be?', and 'how do I see my role as a teacher?' (Korthagen, 2004, p. 81) constitute their identities. Teacher identity varies across and within individuals and communities, hence its socially negotiated and dynamic nature (Barrett, 2008; Henry, 2016; Norton, 1997). From a sociocultural perspective, identity formation is a key dimension of teacher learning (H. T. Nguyen, 2008).

In a Communities of Practice (CoP) framework, Wenger (1998) argues that identity formation is a dual process. One half involves our identifying with and investing ourselves in experiences and meanings that matter to us. The other half involves determining our "ability, facility, and legitimacy to contribute to, take responsibility for, and shape" (p. 197) these meanings. He calls the former *identification* and the latter *negotiability*. Wenger (1998) discusses three modes of identification, namely engagement in negotiation of meaning, alignment with wider structures,

and imagination of the wider world through extrapolating from immediate experience. This paper reports on how second language (L2) teacher learners (TLs) negotiate their professional identity through imagination. The next section focuses on the concept of teacher imagination and the research on how teachers engage in it within the context of teacher education. The section following this will focus on research on teacher imagination as an aspect of teacher identity formation.

Teacher Imagination

Wenger (1998) defines imagination as “creating images of the world and seeing connections through time and space by extrapolating from our own experience” (p. 173). To Greene (1988), imagination means “to look beyond things as they are, to anticipate what might be seen through a new perspective or through another’s eyes” (p. 49). Casey (2000) proposes three forms in which we imagine, namely imaging, imagining-that, and imagining-how. Imaging engages us in envisioning or projecting events or objects in a sensory manner (e.g., imagining a certain smell or taste). We may also imagine that events or objects are related to each other in a certain way. Finally, we may imagine how to feel, think, or do things.

Egan and Nadaner (1988) argue that imagination “is a prerequisite to making any activity educational” (p. ix). In the context of teacher education, imagination has been similarly focused on as an important aspect of teacher development. The process of teacher imagination has been explored in primary (e.g., E. Moore & Dooly, 2010; Widegren & Doherty, 2010), secondary (e.g., Chapman, 2008; e.g., Koirala, Davis, & Johnson, 2008; e.g., E. Moore & Dooly, 2010), and, to a much lesser degree, L2 teacher education (e.g., Guz & Tetiurka, 2013). These studies have reported that teacher imagination is fostered through teachers’ engagement with different tools of teacher education ranging from reflective journal writing (Cartwright & Noone, 2006), action research (Chan, 2013), and lesson study groups (Dudley, 2013) to less conventional tools, like films (Fontaine, 2010) and public art (Hirsch, 2012). Their findings show that engaging in imagination helps TLs develop mental images about students, classrooms, and the likely challenges in teaching, question their existing pedagogical beliefs, explore alternative possibilities, construct new pedagogical knowledge, and enhance student learning (Cartwright & Noone, 2006; Chan, 2013; Dudley, 2013; E. Roberts, 1999). Reporting on limitations of teacher imagination, however, Guz and Tetiurka (2013) found that although in the interviews their TLs identified pedagogical procedures which were developmentally appropriate for

primary-level L2 learners, their teaching practice revealed misconceptions about their students (e.g., children's ability to use deductive logic).

Teacher Identity Formation through Imagination

As mentioned earlier, Wenger (1998) considers imagination as a key mode of identification. To him, it involves a trajectory that establishes connections between what we do in our immediate experience of life and an extended identity. This happens through locating our present experience in a broader timespan stretching from our past to our future (Wenger, 2010). Therefore, a learning community serves as a space for identity development of its participants to the extent that it places their immediate experience of learning in the context of their past experiences and future life (Wenger, 1998).

A few studies have explored the process of teacher imagination as an aspect of TLs' professional identity formation in L2 teacher education. In these, imagination has been found to inform teacher identity formation through fostering an interplay between TLs' lived past and imagined future. Trent (2011), for example, reported that his participants negotiated their identities through looking back at their secondary school teachers, who had inspired them to become teachers, and imagining a future when they themselves would be 'inspiring teachers'. This literature also shows that images that TLs create of themselves in teacher education programs may alter as they encounter realities of teaching either within the programs or when they start to teach. Trent (2012), for instance, explored TLs' identity negotiation during a research project which they were required to fulfil while participating in their practicum. Connecting their immediate experience of teaching and researching in the practicum to the imagined world of teaching, the TLs took on the identity of 'full-time teacher' which limited the possibility of simultaneously imagining themselves as 'teacher-researchers'. Challenges arising from realities of teaching had a similar impact on the TLs in Xu's (2013) study. While at the end of their practicum they had developed the identities of "language expert, learning facilitator, [and] spiritual guide", during the first four years of teaching, these shifted towards "language attrition sufferer, routine performer, [and] problem analyzer" (p. 572). One teacher only maintained her "learning facilitator" identity through perseverance and agency.

These changes and conflicts are inevitable. Yet, they raise questions about how exactly TLs engage in imagination and identity negotiation within programs of teacher education, and in

what ways this experience can become more productive so that TLs have a smoother and less challenging transition from teacher education to the workplace. While the studies reported above provide useful insight into this experience, they are all cross-sectional in nature. Thus, they may not offer a lens into the moment-by-moment process through which TLs come to imagine and re-imagine themselves as teachers. Morton and Gray (2010) is probably the only published study which provides this lens. In this study, TLs' conversations in lesson planning conferences were analyzed from a Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) perspective. The findings showed that the TLs engaged in imagination as they presented proposals for action and imagined possible effects of these actions in the classroom. These opportunities for producing meanings, the authors argued, helped them construct their identities as members of the immediate classroom community and the wider community of L2 teachers.

As a further step to study TLs' imagination and identity work during teacher education conversations, the present study was conducted as part of a larger project on L2 teacher identity formation in the teacher education classroom. Reporting on the analysis of a sample conversation in a graduate course of TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages), this study explores how this conversation fosters imaginative reflection and identity negotiation.

Study

Setting and Participants

The study was situated in a TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education course at a university in Perth, Western Australia. Four units are offered in this one-year course, namely Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Teaching ESL Skills, and ESL Teaching Methodology (pseudonyms). Since the TLs could select a unit from other areas of specialisation, (e.g., Literacy Education), an average of 14 students attended the course. Most had taught in primary and/or secondary education in different areas, such as music and history, and a few were ESL teachers. Most were female and local. Their age ranged from late 20s to late 50s, attended the course. Around a third were from other countries, such as Germany, England, Spain, and Indonesia. Around a fourth of the participants had LOTE (Languages Other Than English) backgrounds (TL5 and TL7 in the excerpts reported below were some of them).

Data Collection and Transcription

After obtaining the lecturer's (called Winston here) and the TLs' informed consent, the researcher video recorded one and audio recorded two sessions of each unit. Following conversation analysis techniques (ten Have, 2007), the researcher started by making an inventory of the content of the collected data. This inventory, or 'content log' (Goodwin, 1993; ten Have, 2007), was developed through listening to the recordings and making summary descriptions of what happened. The major content categories identified across the data were Winston's lectures, his explanations about assignments and assessments, the TLs' group activities, and classroom conversations. Connections between dialogue as collaborative meaning-making and identity formation have been acknowledged in the literature of psychology (e.g., Ligorio, 2010) and teacher development (e.g., Crafton & Kaiser, 2011; Parr & Chan, 2015). Therefore, the researcher conducted a more detailed analysis of the classroom conversations category to identify the salient events in the conversations. Some examples of the several identified events were TLs and Winston analysing different views of language and language use, TLs problematising views presented by Winston, and Winston and TLs drawing upon their membership in other communities to contribute to classroom discussions.

The event focused on in the present study is the TLs' collaborative reflection on their experience with activities they did in the classroom which were similar to those used in a typical L2 classroom. Some examples of these activities were learning vocabulary using etymology, distinguishing between confusable words, labelling discourse markers as formal or informal, sentence combining, and an information gap task with maps. The TLs' reflection on their engagement with these activities prompted their imaginative reflection which drew upon their past experiences as language users and learners and facilitated their predicting what it would be like to incorporate such activities into their own teaching. Regarding the significance of combined imagination and engagement for learning and identity construction, Wenger (1998) argues,

The combination of engagement and imagination results in a reflective practice. Such a practice combines the ability both to engage and to distance - to identify with an enterprise as well as to view it in context, with the eyes of an outsider (p. 217).

For the purpose of the present study, the researcher specifically focused on the TLs' imaginative reflection following their engagement with the map task. In this task, the pairs

were given similar maps (see Appendix F). The pair whose map included a route, the surveyor, was to explain the route to his/her partner with the map lacking it, the settler. What made the task challenging was that the maps were not a perfect match and the pairs were exchanging information while sitting back to back. While completing the task, the pairs were observed by three peers each noting one of the language elements of repairs, vocabulary, or disfluencies.

The researcher decided to report on the conversation following the map task because it exemplified the TLs' and Winston's engagement in different types of imagination as well as negotiation of different identity types relevant to teaching L2. The reason why only one conversation is reported here is that the exchanges in this category were rather long. Attention to more than one would, therefore, require reporting small fractions of each. This would yield more of a 'summarised representation' (ten Have, 2007) of interactional dynamics which facilitated the participants' imagination work and a largely context-reduced picture of each exchange. Given the importance CA attaches to the context where an exchange occurs (ten Have, 1990), the researcher followed a "single case analysis" (ten Have, 2007, p. 34) approach which facilitated detailed rendering of the entire exchange and adequate representation of its context.

The audio recording of the conversation was transcribed, and then through repeated listening the researcher added more details using CA transcription conventions (Jefferson, 2004) (see Appendix E). Limited transcription symbols were used in an attempt to strike a balance between readability and precision necessary to answer the research questions (Heritage & Atkinson, 1984). The length of the transcript led the researcher to remove a few less salient parts and replace them with a summary of the content provided in brackets.

Data Analysis

The researcher first conducted a turn-by-turn analysis of the participants' interactions in the transcribed exchange using conversation analysis techniques (ten Have, 2007). To explore the potential that the exchange presents for the TLs' imagination and identity negotiation, the researcher drew upon CoP (Wenger, 1998) and Casey's (2000) conceptualisation of imagination. As previously mentioned, Wenger considers imagination to be a key mode of identification. In this light, instances of imaginative reflection the TLs engaged in were explored. Out of the three forms of imagination proposed by Casey (2000) (i.e., imaging,

imagining-that, & imagining-how), the first one did not prove useful in this study due to its sensory nature. Thus, the TLs' imagination work was analysed in terms of how they engaged in the processes of imagining-that and imagining-how.

The next section presents the analysis of the exchange. Due to the length of the transcript, it is presented in six parts, with each part followed by its analysis. For easier understanding of the focus of each part, Winston's question/prompt which initiated that part serves as its heading. The numbers of the transcript lines referred to in the analysis are provided in brackets.

Findings

Immediately after the map task, Winston starts the conversation by asking the pairs who fulfilled the task to share their experience with the class.

Part 1: "How did you find the activity?"

- | | | |
|----|---------|--|
| 1 | Winston | So I'm curious. You settlers and you surveyors. |
| 2 | | How did you find the activity? |
| 3 | TL1 | Fun,? |
| 4 | Winston | Kind of fun,? Oh wow, that's not the first word |
| 5 | | which comes out of most people's mouth when I |
| 6 | | ask this question. |
| 7 | TL2 | We're English speakers so |
| 8 | Winston | OK |
| 9 | TL2 | You know it might be difficult for a non-English |
| 10 | Winston | Difficult |
| 11 | TL2 | second language speaker |
| 12 | Winston | This would be a challenge for ESL people. |
| 13 | | Actually this is a map intended for native |
| 14 | | speakers and when I use this for nonnative |
| 15 | | speakers, I use a (1.0) I simplify it a bit, I |
| 16 | | use a modified map or draw a neighbourhood or a |
| 17 | | maybe a map of Perth. That would be very good to |
| 18 | | you know real-world map skills are awesome. And |

19 if you have Google Maps on everybody's computer,
20 you can you know print out stuff and try to make
21 it yourself, mmm, uhh=
22 TL3 =You'd have to make sure that certain vocabulary
23 was already in the vocabulary of the
24 participants of ESL, like left and right and
25 east and west I couldn't have done it without=
26 Winston =OK, um north and west and left and right, there
27 are other ways of doing that but I'll get to
28 that in a second. You'd have to make sure that
29 you pre-teach a little bit of a vocabulary.
30 That's OK too (.) OK um what would have made it
31 easier besides the matching maps? This is I am
32 asking the surveyors and the settlers now. What
33 would have made it easier?
34 TL4 Scale?
35 Winston ahhh, having some kind of (.) yeah
36 TL2 You have a mile scale. That was very clever. You
37 say that was two miles.
38 Winston Oh, OK, (.) what else have we got?
39 TL5 Streets, or names
40 Winston Oh yeah, having streets light up but this is the
41 wild, this is the (.)
42 TL2 or landmarks
43 Winston or landmarks
44 TL2 Yes

TL2's comment on the likely difficulty of the task for L2 learners (7, 9, 11) is the first example of imagination in the conversation. This moment of imagination is triggered initially by TL2's engagement in the task and then her taking a step "to disengage - to move back and look at [her] engagement through the eyes of an outsider" (Wenger, 1998, p. 185), here a L2 learner's. Winston addresses TL2's comment by explaining variations he as a teacher incorporates into a

L2 classroom to lower the task's difficulty level (e.g., using a modified map, drawing a neighbourhood, or printing out screenshots of Google Maps) (12-21). This extended turn enriches the experience of imagination as it involves "exploring other ways of doing what we are doing" (Wenger, 1998, p. 185). Borrowing Casey's (2000) terminology, Winston builds on TL2's imagining that the task would be difficult for L2 learners to engage in and imagining how this challenge could be addressed.

Relating this issue to vocabulary specifically, TL3 also engages in imagining that she "couldn't have done it without" the knowledge of the key vocabulary necessary for giving directions and imagining how to resolve this issue (pre-teaching the vocabulary) (22-25). Acknowledging her input (26-29), Winston invites the other TLs, specifically those who fulfilled the task, to engage in this process of imagining-how through asking them for other ways of simplifying the task (30-33). The alternative TL4 proposes (i.e., scale) (34) is acknowledged by Winston (35) and expanded on by TL2 (36-37). TL5 suggests "streets" (39) which Winston briefly questions (40-41). Interrupting Winston, TL2 mentions "landmarks" (42), which Winston acknowledges through echoing (43). Following this imagination work around what would have made the task easier, Winston invites the pairs who did the task to share their ideas about the possible impact of their seating position on their performance.

Part 2: "How much did not being able to see each other affect the thing?"

- 45 Winston How much did not being able to see each other
46 affect the thing? Well you were back to back.
47 Did it make it a lot harder or a little harder
48 or not really very much?
49 TL3 No I thought it increased your concentration.
50 TLs Yeah
51 Winston mm OK, well, that's interesting. Because usually
52 think about it in ESL classroom, in a language
53 classroom, you'd think that you'd want the
54 situation to be as real as possible, right? So in
55 normal conversation, we're sitting here, talking,
56 and we can see the person we're talking to. And
57 yet sometimes, for the purpose of building skills

58 it could be, maybe, a good idea sometimes to
59 block out one channel of information so that
60 you're forced to develop the other ones a little
61 more. Or does that just make it less realistic?
62 What do you think?

63 TL5 To be honest, when I use the GPS also I don't
64 watch the map, I only listen to it.

65 Winston Oh right,
66 TL5 Because otherwise I would be distracted in the
67 car. So it's a real situation.

68 Winston Good point (.) Sometimes you might not have (.)
69 you know if you are talking on the phone, then
70 you might not have that channel.

71 TL3 I think sometimes the more input that comes in,
72 the more fragmented your focus is on the task
73 that you are trying to do unless you have been
74 able to hone those skills individually in any
75 degree. I'm just thinking for example when I am
76 watching a film or a panel show. If there's
77 tweets going on along the bottom, I miss what
78 the people are saying because I am reading the
79 tweets.

80 Winston Has anybody else noticed that or (.) the
81 opposite?
82 (TLs and Winston share their similar opinions and
83 experiences.)

84 Winston What information are you able to get by being
85 able to see someone?
86 (TLs 6 and 7 discuss body language and facial
87 expressions, with Winston facilitating the
88 discussion.)

89 TL3 It just came to my mind that emoticons were
90 introduced to counterbalance the problem of

- 91 written communication such as texting and email.
- 92 Winston Because because if you give a comment, it could
- 93 be taken either way, but if you put a smile on
- 94 it, then=
- 95 TL3 =And then it changes the content
- 96 Winston What does the smile mean?
- 97 TL3 That's a joke.
- 98 Winston Yeah, don't take this seriously. It can really
- 99 help.
- 100 TL3 Absolutely yeah

Winston inviting the pairs to share their experience of sitting back to back while doing the task (45-48) triggers another set of acts of imagination. Reasoning that pedagogical tasks should reflect “normal conversation” which is usually face-to-face, Winston concludes their seating position must have been a challenge (51-56). TL5 and TL3, however, suggest an alternative view, noting two target language use domains (Bachman & Palmer, 2010) where visual information may distract them, namely GPS (63-64, 66-67) and tweets on a TV program (71-79), which Winston acknowledges (68). These TLs’ examples contribute to the experience of imagination by going beyond the definition Winston provides for ‘real situations’ and presenting alternative contexts, using their past experiences, where L2 learners would be likely to communicate without access to visual information. In Green’s (2000) words, the TLs’ imagination enables them “to break with the taken-for-granted, to set aside the familiar distinctions and definitions”, and “to give credence to alternative realities” (p. 3). The experience of presenting and arguing for alternative realities is conducive to the TLs’ identity negotiation since it involves the TLs’ exercising control over the meaning of ‘real situation’ by “being able to come up with a recognizably competent interpretation of it” (Wenger, 1998, p. 201). Winston also contributes to these TLs’ imagining of alternative TLU domains through adding the example of talking on the phone, where no visual input usually exists (68-70).

At an earlier stage, Winston mentions skill development as a reason why teachers may limit channels of information in classroom tasks and thereby prompts the TLs to imagine how language use is sometimes approached differently in a classroom (57-60). Fettes (2005) argues

that such imagination raises teachers' "pedagogical sensitivity" since it helps with "the development of new ways of thinking about content and process, planning and assessment" (p. 9). Finally, Winston asks the TLs to discuss what visual information may support face-to-face interaction (84-85). This results in a brief exchange about facial expressions and body language, followed by TL3 highlighting the compensatory role of emoticons in written communication (89-91). By so doing, the TLs and Winston engage in imaginative reflection but this time about target language use domains where visual information is conducive to communication or added in to facilitate it. At this stage of the conversation, Winston shifts the focus of the discussion to the observations made by those who observed the pairs doing the task.

Part 3: "Tell me what you noticed as far as repairs."

- 101 Winston Let's now talk to some of the people who were
102 our observers. I might start with the people who
103 were doing (.) repairs. Well repairs are
104 important and our learners are always gonna be
105 getting in trouble because there are
106 misunderstandings. You don't hear some elements
107 and you'd have to ask for a repeat or something
108 goes wrong, so who are our repair observers? OK,
109 here we go (.) tell me what you noticed as far
110 as repairs.
- 111 TL2 Sometimes it was well this is a problem so they
112 would verbalise their concerns
- 113 Winston Right
- 114 TL2 and other times was a bit um and hmm a bit that
115 sort of stuff going on when you could tell that
116 they were not quite matching
- 117 Winston OK, sounds good
- 118 TL6 Actually they were really calm and controlled in
119 their language. There were no language
120 misunderstandings. When they realised there were
121 different maps, then they just started asking

122 questions like can you see the fenced meadow, do
123 you think you found it, do I need to go north,
124 (The discussion about the observed repairs
125 continues for two and a half more minutes)
126 Winston I think that repairs are important to actually
127 teach specifically. One of the really important
128 strategies we'll be dealing with all the way
129 through the next four lectures is get students
130 to figure out when a repair is necessary and
131 then understand how we do it in English because
132 it involves verification in some dialogues, and
133 if you do a clarification in some dialogue wrong
134 it could be rude or abrupt and we do it
135 differently in English.

Winston starts this part of the conversation by focusing on repairs and explaining their significance in learning L2, hence situating the ensuing exchange within an imagined L2 learning/teaching context (101-108). Using the phrase “our learners” (104), Winston positions himself and the TLs in the imagined community of L2 teachers who (will) have learners “getting in trouble because there are misunderstandings” (105-106). He proceeds to elaborate on the ‘trouble’ through a brief explanation from a learner’s perspective: “You don’t hear some elements and you’d have to ask for a repeat” (106-107).

The repair observers share their observations of the kinds of repairs the pairs used when doing the task (e.g., verbalising their concerns and asking questions) (TL2: 111-112, 114-116; TL6: 118-123). Winston then relates the TLs’ immediate experience to the imagined context of the L2 classroom where they will be, and a few are, teaching through highlighting the importance of facilitating students’ learning of repairs (126-135). This introductory remark, though brief, has the potential to increase the TLs’ pedagogical sensitivity (Fettes, 2005) about how to help their students improve their communication skills through using repairs some of which they used/observed in the map task. Winston then asks the vocabulary observers to share their observations.

Part 4: “Did you notice anything interesting in the words that they used?”

- 136 Winston Let’s go on to vocabulary. The vocabulary folks,
137 did you notice anything interesting in the words
138 that they used,?
- 139 TL7 So phrases like head forwards or face left, face
140 right um=
141 Winston =You know that’s interesting, metaphor=
142 TL7 =were very frequent
- 143 Winston Metaphors of face and head. Let’s just pause a
144 bit. We head some place but we can also face a
145 certain direction. Why is it that there are
146 metaphors of face and head for directions? Well
147 I guess because we walk forward right,? That’s a
148 fact of the kind of bodies that we have. Keep
149 going [TL7’s name]
- 150 TL7 Question like are you at, can you see were also
151 frequent. And then confirming those places like
152 yes, I can see, I am at and I think the
153 vocabulary like um fenced meadow, abandoned
154 cottage, trig point are a bit difficult for a
155 second language learner
- 156 Winston Yeah
157 TL7 to be explained
- 158 Winston They would or just modify the terms. The reason
159 they picked terms like that was because they
160 wanted to (.) while they were getting the
161 dialogue, they also wanted to get some
162 phonological information like when people say
163 fenced meadow, do they say the ‘d’? or do they
164 just say the fence meadow?
- 165 Winston [TL8’s name], so what did you notice?
166 TL8 I also noticed them talking about the three
167 points, go three miles west, go three miles

168 east, things like this, I have no scale, this is
 169 what I was observing
 170 Winston Scale was interesting. So we had compass points
 171 over here plus miles which is interesting. Then
 172 you gotta agree first, right,? you gotta align,
 173 this is one thing we have to do in conversation.
 174 We have to make sure our brains are lined up in
 175 the same way whereas over here we have clock
 176 face and centimeters.

In this part of the conversation, the vocabulary observers tell the classroom about words and phrases they observed the pairs using to communicate. Winston picks up on TL7's mention of phrases with head and face (139-140) and draws attention to "metaphors of face and head for directions" (143-148). This brief reflection is potentially conducive to the TLs' pedagogical awareness as it helps them imagine what kind of vocabulary their future L2 students need to learn in order to ask for and give directions. TL7 also contributes to this imagination experience through focusing on the likely difficulty of some words in the maps for language learners (152-157). In response to TL7's imagining-that, Winston creates a brief moment of imagining-how by suggesting that teachers "modify the terms" (158). Then he invites TL8 to share her own observations (165). She mentions the pairs' use of scales to communicate (166-169). Winston builds on her input to create another moment of imagination. He does so by highlighting the importance of alignment in effective communication from a 'language user' perspective as reflected in his *you-* and *we-*statements (172-176).

Part 5: "Let's finish up with disfluencies."

177 Winston Let's finish up with disfluencies. Ok what did
 178 you notice? What's a disfluency?
 179 TL9 Like um or uh
 180 Winston OK
 181 TL9 So [a TL's name] used it when he was pausing to
 182 think or like when he encountered a problem to go
 183 on to the next step and directions and that he

184 was saying uh when [a TL's name] was in the wrong
185 spot and he had to pause by saying uh, OK so he
186 was trying to figure out his next move or next
187 directions and [a TL's name] used it for when she
188 was thinking as well like uh and aha to show that
189 she comprehended the directions and indicated to
190 him to continue to the next move.

191 Winston Sounds good. Let's go over here. [TL's name] What
192 else did you get?

193 TL10 Both [a TL's name] and [a TL's name] were
194 economical overall in the way they talked. I
195 didn't- I expected them to say um and uh a lot
196 because it was confusing. When they were
197 rethinking something they said um or if they
198 needed to buy some time to process an idea (.)
199 they used um as kind of because we don't like
200 silence

201 Winston Why don't we like silence?

202 TL 11 It's awkward.

203 Winston Can be, we don't have a very high tolerance for
204 silence in the English speaking culture, have you
205 noticed? Does anybody come from a place where
206 there is a longer tolerance for silence or
207 shorter?

208 TL12 We're used to long silence, like I have a friend
209 and we were sitting in a bar and not saying a
210 word. An English man came and said "are you both
211 friends?" you know, we were quiet,
212 (TLs and Winston laugh)

213 Winston Whereas the (.) companion's silence can be a
214 wonderful thing

215 TL12 Yeah

216 Winston Not having to say anything

217 TL2 Aboriginals we were reading that thing in the
218 other unit, weren't we,? that,
219 Winston Mhm
220 TL2 Yes they have a lot of silence.
221 Winston Higher tolerance for silence. Um, and you know,
222 the thing about silence is every culture has a
223 different sort of tolerance for silence I think,
224 but nobody is OK with a silence suddenly. I think
225 every language has something like um or uh
226 because if it's silent, what does that mean?
227 TL2 In that aboriginal one, they were saying that
228 that's respectful, wasn't it? That they were
229 saying that you should be silent because it
230 demonstrates that you are thinking before you're
231 (.)
232 Winston before you're answering
233 TL2 before you're answering and you are showing your
234 being sort of respectful of your elder and not
235 speaking to people if you're younger.
236 (The TLs discuss silence and how it is approached
237 in their cultures for 3 minutes.)

In this part of the conversation, observers report the different functions of disfluencies the pairs used while doing the map task (e.g., pausing to think, showing comprehension, and avoiding silence) (TL9: 181-190; TL10: 193-200). Building on TL10's comment on silence, Winston takes the discussion beyond the immediate experience of the map task and invites reflection on silence in different cultures (201), including their own (205-207). This way, he incorporates the TLs' past, "what they have been, what they have done, and what they know" (Wenger, 1998, p. 218), into the process of learning. TL12, for example, shares her own experience as an Indonesian (208-211), and TL2 reflects back on what the class had read in another unit about silence in the Aboriginal culture (217 onwards). Winston acknowledges both contributions through co-accomplishing the talk with the TLs (213-214, 216, 221-226, 232). In this section

of the exchange and the following three minutes not transcribed here, the TLs locate their immediate engagement in the task “in broader systems in time and space, conceiving of the multiple constellations that are contexts for [their] practices” (Wenger, 1998, p. 185) as language users and observers of others’ language use.

Part 6: “What skills did you notice yourselves doing?”

| | | |
|-----|---------|---|
| 238 | Winston | This is a really rich kind of exercise that you |
| 239 | | can do because it involves lots of skills. What |
| 240 | | skills did you notice yourselves doing? |
| 241 | TLs | Listening |
| 242 | Winston | Lots of listening |
| 243 | TLs | Speaking |
| 244 | Winston | Lots of speaking, any reading or writing? |
| 245 | TL9 | Note taking |
| 246 | Winston | A little bit of note taking too, OK so this is |
| 247 | | the point where you are combining them, this is |
| 248 | | the rationale for integrating the four skills, |
| 249 | | when you are combining the skills, making it more |
| 250 | | like real conversation, and you are practicing |
| 251 | | more than one thing at once, which is very good. |
| 252 | | Notice also that we are getting into things like |
| 253 | | when to speak, when to be silent, turn taking |
| 254 | | behavior, looking at repairs, fixing |
| 255 | | misunderstandings. We’re looking at figuring out |
| 256 | | how to align your brain with somebody else’s so |
| 257 | | that the conversation can occur. There is just so |
| 258 | | much in this kind of activity. Something that you |
| 259 | | could try. |

In this last part of the conversation, Winston invites the TLs to reflect on what language skills were required by the task. Their responses noting listening (241), speaking (243), and note-taking (245) help Winston go beyond the discussion about the map task and focus on the

reasons why the language skills should be taught in an integrative manner (246-251). This journey from the direct experience of using multiple language skills to fulfil the map task to imagining teaching L2 in an integrative manner has the potential to increase the TLs' pedagogical awareness of alternative approaches to instruction (Fettes, 2005). Winston concludes the conversation by summarising the topics they discussed based on the experience of engagement with the map task and recommending the TLs to try this task in their own L2 teaching experience (252 onwards).

Discussion

Imagining Being L2 Teachers

This section explains how engagement in imaginative reflection fosters the TLs' identity negotiation. It does so through highlighting instantiations of identity work in the reported conversation as relating to such aspects of teaching ESL as task-based language teaching (TBLT), form-focused instruction, and needs analysis.

One of the major sets of imagination acts which take place across the conversation is the participants' imagining of assigning the map task to their own students and how learners would deal with it. TL2 makes the general comment that the task might be difficult for a L2 learner, TL3 gives examples of the kind of vocabulary learners would need to know to be able to give and understand directions, and TL7 picks up on the phrases used in the maps which a L2 learner may not have in their lexical repertoire. This type of engagement in imagining possible consequences of classroom actions was also reported by Morton and Gray (2010) as part of their participants' identity formation in the context of lesson planning conferences. Imagining challenges serves to discourage TLs from overestimating L2 learners' competencies, which the pre-service teachers in Guz and Tetiurka's (2013) study were reported to have done regarding young L2 learners. Another reason why the TLs in this study are observed to present a relatively realistic image of their prospective students could be that many of them, unlike the participants in Guz and Tetiurka's (2013) study, are already teachers, though mostly of other subject areas, and thus have encountered such challenges in practice.

These acts of imagination enable the TLs to "try new identities" (Wenger, 1998, p. 185). They imagine themselves as language teachers assigning this task to their own students and analyse

the task through students' eyes. Therefore, this identity work leads the TLs to consider how students' limited linguistic repertoire informs task design. Recognising such constraints prompts the participants to creatively seek alternative possibilities and solutions (pre-teaching key vocabulary and modifying the task). As argued by Jagla (1994), "many teachers envision situations this way by considering the possibilities and recognising the constraints under which they are placed" (p. 31). Highlighting the pedagogical significance of imagining constraints, Jagla (1994) also argues that "it is often the limitations which cause us to become creative" (p. 31). In the literature on task-based language teaching (TBLT), such issues as the linguistic complexity of a task and learners' relevant language knowledge necessary to fulfil it have been discussed under 'task difficulty' (Nunan, 2004) and teachers are encouraged to take these demands into account when designing classroom tasks.

Another aspect of TBLT negotiated in the exchange is the focus on 'meaning negotiation', which is a major principle of TBLT (Ellis, 2003; Long, 2014). Building on the information-gap nature of the task, Winston asks some of the TLs to observe for repairs and disfluencies in the pairs' language and share their observations with the class. This enables Winston to draw the participants' attention to the importance of teaching these communicative strategies to their future students to use when encountering communicational difficulties in a task and real life.

The conversation also provides a space for the TLs' identity work around form-focused instruction which was introduced by scholars to address the limitations of a pure focus on meaning (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Nassaji & Fotos, 2010). This space is provided through Winston asking some TLs to write down the kind of vocabulary the pairs use to fulfil the map task and share their observations with the class. Also he builds on a TL's input to draw the participants' attention to metaphors of face and head which they may later teach to their students in a directions lesson.

Another aspect of a L2 teacher's identity negotiated in the exchange is needs analysis. One way in which the TLs imagine being needs analysts is engaging in target situation analysis. They draw upon their own experiences as language users to imagine target language use domains in which learners are likely to use English and investigate their specific linguistic demands. The domains the TLs talk about range from face-to-face conversation where body language and facial expressions can play a role in communication to those in which visual information is either lacking, as in telephone conversations or written communication, or sometimes blocked

out for more efficient language use, as when using GPS or watching TV programs with tweets. TL5 and TL3 who give the last two examples make a particularly significant contribution to the experience of imagination in the class in that they take the conversation beyond the familiar definition of ‘real situations’ presented by Winston and facilitate imagining of alternative real situations (Wenger, 1998). The focus on silence in dialogue and how people approach it in different cultures further enriches the participants’ imagination work as it puts the focus on the development of learners’ language competencies in a broader sociocultural context.

Given the significance of target situation analysis in successful planning and implementation of a L2 curriculum (Tarone, Yule, & Yule, 1989), the TLs’ discussion about different types of target language use domains and the language demands they put on L2 learners could be argued to contribute to the TLs’ professional development and identity construction. The pedagogical significance of imagination as ‘situation analysis’ was highlighted in mainstream education even before Tarone et al. (1989). Over four decades ago, Schubert (1975) argued that ‘situation analysis’ is a key aspect of imagination for curriculum development purposes. Imagination as such, he argued, “enables curriculum planner and implementers to generate possibilities, project probable consequences, formulate and entertain hypotheses in action, and assess the consonance of these hypotheses with aims and principles” (p. 4).

Another aspect of the needs analyst identity negotiated in the conversation is analysis of learning needs, which focuses on helping learners to do what they need to do in order to learn (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). An example where this approach is incorporated into the conversation is when Winston talks about skill-development benefits of blocking out a channel of information in pedagogical tasks although the corresponding real-life tasks may have that channel. Another example is when Winston uses the TLs’ experience of having used multiple skills to fulfil the map task to argue for teaching the language skills in an integrated manner.

Fostering Imagination and Identity Work

A number of factors seem to foster the TLs’ imagination and identity work in the reported conversation. To start with, since the conversation analysed in this study followed the TLs’ direct experience with the task, it could be argued that the participants’ imagination work in several parts of the conversation is informed by their experience of direct engagement in the task as language users or observers of their peers’ language use. If Winston had merely asked

them to abstractly discuss using a map task in their teaching without providing them the opportunity to gain an insider perspective, their imaginative reflection may not have been as in-depth and informed. As mentioned earlier, Wenger (1998) considers the combination of engagement and imagination as conducive to reflective practice and identity formation. Combined engagement and imagination in the reported conversation enabled the TLs to identify likely challenges in assigning a map task to their future students and to propose possible solutions. The participants in Trent's (2012) study went through a similar process. Experiencing challenges of simultaneous engagement in a research assignment and practicum placements led them to problematise the possibility of maintaining a 'teacher-researcher' identity in their career but also propose solutions such as setting supportive policies in schools and teachers conducting collaborative research. These findings suggest that engagement with different aspects of teaching, whether it be through replicating student tasks or conducting action research in a practicum, paves the way for teachers' imagination grounded in the realities of teaching. This 'furnished imagination', Kiely and Askham (2012) argue, is a key stage in the process of teacher identity formation.

In addition to combining engagement and imagination, the conversation facilitates the TLs' identity work through providing an atmosphere of *negotiability*. As mentioned in Introduction, Wenger (1998) defines negotiability as our "ability, facility, and legitimacy to contribute to, take responsibility for, and shape" (p. 197) meanings. One way in which control over and ownership of the meanings produced are distributed among the participants is Winston serving as a co-participant in contributing ideas and enriching the process of imaginative reflection. He facilitates the process of imagining-that by adding to the examples of TLU domains relevant to the focus of the discussion ("talking on the phone") and fosters imagining-how by proposing simpler variations of the map task that he would incorporate into his own teaching (e.g., "neighbourhood" and "a map of Perth"). Negotiability is further fostered as the TLs' past and future are incorporated into these processes of imagination. They share their relevant past experiences and knowledge which enrich the discussion (e.g., using GPS, silence in Indonesian culture, and silence in Aboriginal culture). And they project into the future when they explore alternative target language use domains (e.g., texting), reflect on challenges confronting L2 learners while doing the map task (e.g., the difficulty level of some phrases in the maps and lack of vocabulary necessary for giving directions), and propose possible ways in which they could simplify the task (e.g., adding landmarks and pre-teaching vocabulary).

Other observations suggesting the TLs' legitimate control over and ownership of the meanings negotiated in the conversation are several instances of them producing extended turns (e.g., 227-237), self-selecting to produce turns (e.g., 217-218), and presenting counterarguments and counterexamples (e.g., 63-64, 71-79). In addition to serving as a co-participant, Winston further contributes to this atmosphere of distributed ownership by posing questions to elicit the TLs' ideas and experiences (e.g., 30-31, 80-81, 201, 205-207) and acknowledging their contributions through expressing agreement (e.g., 26-29), giving positive feedback (e.g., 68, 117, 191), echoing (e.g., 10, 43, 242), co-accomplishing talks (e.g., 92-99, 232), adding (e.g., 69), and elaborating (e.g., 92-94, 143-148). Also, he positions the TLs and himself as members of the same community, namely 'language users', when he uses *you*- and *we*-statements (172-176), and 'L2 teachers', when he produces the phrase "our learners" (104). These interactional dynamics speak to the dialogical nature of the analysed exchange (Fairclough, 1999) and, thus, its potential for fostering the participants' professional identity negotiation (Ligorio, 2010; Parr & Chan, 2015).

Concluding Remarks

This study sheds light on the potential of classroom based conversation to foster imagination and thereby promote identity negotiation in L2 teacher education. Specifically, the TLs' direct engagement in a typical L2 learning task and subsequent imaginative reflection based on this and related experiences within a dialogical conversation fostered their identity work. Different aspects of their professional identity as L2 teachers were negotiated, including using tasks to facilitate meaning negotiation and form-focused instruction and analysing L2 learners' target situation and learning needs. The learning space observed in this study fostered the TLs' legitimate participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in knowledge co-construction and identity negotiation grounded in their lived past, present experiences, and imagined future.

These findings highlight the significance of creating an atmosphere of dialogue where TLs have the ability and legitimacy to exercise control and ownership over meanings produced in the teacher education classroom. The impacts of market demands and the standards movement (Cochran-Smith, 2001; Sachs, 2001) on teacher education are inevitable, often leading to a positivist, knowledge-transmission orientation in the programs. Yet, the reported findings highlight the potential available, even if minimal, in teacher education programs for TLs to actively negotiate their identities through engagement in imaginative reflection. The findings

further show the significant role of teacher educators in exploiting and maximising this potential. While mostly serving as a co-participant in the exchange, Winston also facilitated the process of dialogue and the TLs' identity work. This observation speaks to the importance of preparing teacher educators who have the skills to create an atmosphere of negotiability and foster TLs' identity and imagination work, while navigating their way through the constraints imposed by the market.

As mentioned in 'Introduction', this study is an early step in shedding light on the potential that the moment-by-moment experience of dialogue in the teacher education classroom presents for second language TLs' identity and imagination work. Studies of a similar nature could shed further light on the ways in which conversations in the teacher education classroom contribute to the process of TLs' imagination and identity negotiation. The single case analysis approach adopted in the present study is a legitimate methodological option in that it facilitates adequate representation of the context of an exchange and effectively shows the potential of a single conversation for teacher imagination and identity work. Yet, different conversations may involve different reflective/imaginative trajectories leading to a different range of negotiated identities. Therefore, focusing on multiple exchanges, although probably less in-depth than analysis of a single case, provides a broader perspective on how teachers negotiate their identities through imagination. Interviews with TLs and teacher educators provide an additional lens into this process. They also help explore these parties' perspective on the potential of classroom conversations for identity construction. Finally, and in line with the above emphasis on teacher educators' role in exploiting this potential, intervention studies could help us explore the impact of professional development programs for teacher educators on their ability to conduct classroom conversations which provide a space for teacher imagination and identity negotiation.

As promising as the findings of this study are, a healthy dose of skepticism is in order. While conducive to teacher imagination and identity formation, conversations in the teacher education classroom are rather limited in preparing teachers for the reality of classroom teaching. In fact, teacher education in general has been criticised for its lack of strong connections with and relevance to what its graduates face when they enter schools and classrooms as 'teachers' (Ben-Peretz, 2001; Cabaroglu, 2014). It was argued in the previous section that combining engagement and imagination enabled the TLs to identify the likely challenges in assigning a map task to their future students and propose possible solutions and alternatives, hence

fostering the development of a ‘furnished imagination’. While Kiely and Askham (2012) elevate the status of this imagination to that of “a toolkit and bag of tricks, the passport which affords entry with confidence” (p. 514), we should not ignore how limited this toolkit is, how many tricks it lacks, and, therefore, how much the experience of teaching in the reality of classroom may undermine teacher education graduates’ confidence and destabilise their identities. This consequence was seen in Xu’s (2013) study where the participants’ graduate identities were destabilised and altered during their first four years of teaching, with only one exception whose agency and perseverance overcame contextual influences. Most of the participants in the present study were already teachers, and therefore their identities were relatively established before they entered the course. Yet, since they were new to the area of TESOL, those aspects of their identities related to second language teaching may be similarly vulnerable to the realities of teaching. This suggests that while improving the quality of teacher education and increasing TLs’ power of imagination and sense of agency, we should strive towards providing continual professional support for graduates especially in their early years of teaching. Without this support, teacher education graduates find it difficult to cope with the tensions arising between identities they construct in the programs and those they are assigned in educational settings and avoid the resulting reality shock (Xu, 2013).

Chapters 5, 6, and 7 focused on different aspects of teacher learners’ engagement in identity negotiation within the short timescale of classroom conversations. Adopting a longer timescale, Chapter 8 reports on changes in the participants’ identities across the TESOL Grad Cert as reflected in their early- and late-course interviews.

CHAPTER 8

INTERVIEWS: IDENTITY SHIFTS AND TEACHER LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE TESOL GRADUATE CERTIFICATE

The previous three chapters reported on the potential and constraints of the TESOL Grad Cert as a space for teacher identity development, as reflected in classroom conversations. This dataset facilitated, what Akkerman and Meijer (2011) consider, a micro-analytical approach to exploring the teacher learners' in-the-moment identity experiences in their interactions with relevant others. However, these authors and others (e.g., Klimstra et al., 2010; Lichtwarck-Aschoff, van Geert, Bosma, & Kunnen, 2008) believe that, in identity research, this approach should be combined with a macro-analytical approach. That is, in addition to exploring teachers' identity negotiation across short timescales (here specific classroom conversations), macro-level analyses should be conducted to identify evolutionary patterns across longer timescales. The longer timescale adopted in the present study was the duration of the whole course. Therefore, interviews were conducted with a number of teacher learners early and late in the course to capture long-term patterns of their identity formation. The present chapter reports on the results of the analysis of these interviews. As explained in the Research Methodology chapter, the interview framework consisted of two major parts. The first part included questions on different aspects of identity. The analysis of this part helped the researcher with the abovementioned macro-level analysis. The second part, however, was intended to explore the interviewees' perceptions of how the course contributed to their learning. The relevance of this section to identity development lies in the sociocultural perspective adhered to in the present dissertation that promotes a view of teacher learning as mainly a process of identity development (Kanno & Stuart, 2011; H. T. Nguyen, 2008). Therefore, the purpose behind inviting the participants to reflect on their learning experience during the TESOL Grad Cert was to gain further insight into their identity development. No explicit mention of identity in this interview section was a conscious attempt on the researcher's part to prevent the interviewees feeling pushed to adopt an identity focus and present a necessarily positive picture of the course as conducive to their identity formation. The genuineness of responses given in such a directive interview would be uncertain. In this chapter, the findings related to each of these sections are presented separately. This is followed by a comparison between the two sets of findings where their discrepancies and commonalities

are discussed. The final discussion of the findings draws upon Communities of Practice (CoP) (Wenger, 1998) to further highlight the potential of the TESOL Grad Cert for identity development and its constraints in this regard.

Teacher learners' identity shifts

The analysis of the interviews yielded mixed results. While the data reflected some participants' identity development in the form of an increased confidence in their teaching knowledge and abilities, other dimensions of their identities appeared to have remained largely unchanged.

A Growth in Self-confidence

The analysis of the interviews yielded an increase in some participants' self-confidence as the only noticeable shift in the teacher learners' identities. Those who had no or highly limited prior involvement in teaching (i.e., Gloria and Elaine, respectively) attributed their identity shifts to the teaching experience they had gained while attending the TESOL Grad Cert rather, or more explicitly, than their participation in the course. Those with more extensive experience of teaching (i.e., Madalina and Barry) explicitly acknowledged the contributions their participation in the TESOL Grad Cert had made to their increased confidence. A detailed account is as follows.

When asked to describe herself as a teacher in her first interview, Gloria, who, unlike the other interviewees, had never taught, said, "I would like to be a guide to the students". Drawing upon what she called "the Montessori method", she explained being a guide as following the motto "Help me to do it by myself". She also wanted to become a teacher who could "help them achieve what they're there to achieve."

When the second interview was conducted, Gloria had started to teach refugees as a volunteer at a centre committed to the promotion of human rights and social justice. Unlike her early-course description of her teacher-self which mainly consisted of relatively general statements, in this interview, her response was considerably more elaborate:

I still haven't done much teaching. Since last time I've started volunteering at [the name of the centre], so I teach refugees there and they're beginners.

So I think one of the most important things for me is to keep them motivated. It sounds a bit funny, but I think it's important for them to kind of trust me, feel comfortable in the classroom, so they're the things that I work on. And what we do is called language for living, so it's focused on authentic useful everyday language, so it's actually quite fun, because it's not like "today, I'm going to teach the past continuous" or "I'm going to teach pronouns" or things like that. It's situational. You basically have a situation. We talk about how to make an appointment with the doctor or whatever and around that you can structure up a grammar point or something, so it's fun.

A comparison between the two interviews strongly suggests that Gloria had gone through the initial stages of developing an 'ESL' teacher identity across the two interviews. In the first interview, she limited her description of her role to that of a guide, a role shared by teachers of all different areas. The excerpt from her second interview is characterised with several instances of ESL terminology used by Gloria, such as "language for living", "authentic and useful everyday language", "situational", and even terms she used when talking critically about more form-focused approaches to teaching ESL, namely "past continuous" and "pronouns". Furthermore, she showcased her knowledge about the situational approach to second language teaching when she briefly explained it at the end of the excerpt (You basically have a situation...).

This excerpt also shows that Gloria had negotiated her ESL teacher identity mainly in light of the experience she was gaining through teaching refugees rather than as a result of attending the course. The key points that she mentions in her response are related to the type of teaching appropriate to the context where she teaches (i.e., a situational approach to teaching) and her refugee students' life conditions (i.e., keeping them motivated, making them feel comfortable, and gaining their trust). The perceived significance of these issues to how she has negotiated her identity manifests itself in the instances of her putting explicit emphasis on them using the phrases "one of the most important things for me is" and "it's important for them to". Her use of a *we*-statement (i.e., what we do is called language for living) is another testament to the impact of her work experience, though recent and brief, on her identity formation in that it shows her having developed a sense of membership in the teachers' community in that centre. While the situational approach Gloria talks about in this excerpt was a topic of focus in the course, she does not draw on that learning experience in her reflection on her identity. This suggests the stronger impact of her experience of teaching in the reality of classroom on her identity construction.

Gloria's response to the researcher's attempt to elicit more details about her professional identity made it further explicit that her teaching experience was the major basis of her identity development.

Researcher: What would you prioritise as a teacher when you go to the classroom, when you plan your lessons?

Gloria: What I can really talk about really is these students. So I prioritise what they're gonna find useful, what's going to help them in their everyday life.

Gloria starts her response by highlighting her recent teaching experience as facilitating negotiation of her teacher roles. The two instances of her using the intensifying adverb "really" sheds further light on the significance of this experience to her identity negotiation.

Another major aspect of Gloria's identity development was the substantial increase in her self-confidence. The first interview included her recurrent reference to her confidence as low and in need of development. In the second interview, confidence never became a focus in her reflections on her areas of improvement. Also, she struck the researcher as markedly more confident in how she talked about herself as a teacher and the recent teaching experience she was gaining. The following brief exchange confirmed the researcher's impression:

Researcher: You sound much more confident now.

Gloria: Yes, I am. Because I've actually done it and I know that I enjoy it and I know that I don't die out there in front of them. It's just what I was worried about. And I had some really good feedback too.

Gloria's explanation about her newly gained self-confidence includes multiple references to different aspects of her recent teaching experience in this quote, but no mention of the course. This is, therefore, another testament to the significance of her teaching experience to her identity development.

Although Gloria's confidence had generally grown, her confidence in her knowledge of grammar remained low, at best, and even seemed to have declined across the interviews. While in the first interview, she mentioned "grammar" in passing as a knowledge area she needed to improve, her focus on it in the second interview was accompanied by emphasis, as she said, "I

really need to develop my grammar”. Her explanation prompted by the researcher’s request for more details showed that her heightened awareness of her limited knowledge of grammar was again most directly an outcome of her teaching experience rather than her participation in the course:

I mean I was in morning tea, and one of the teachers got up and she said “Right, now I’ve got to get back to (.)” and it was a grammar term I’d never heard of. I thought, I’d never even heard of that! Imagine if I was relieving for her next week!

Elaine seemed to have experienced a similar trajectory to that depicted above of Gloria. Her first interview included a major focus on her work ethic, patience, affinity with children, and making learning enjoyable for them.

I try to bring fun to the classroom. I play guitar and mandolin, so I bring those with me. I have a very good work ethic. Even if it is relief teaching, I still put the maximum to the kids and I have a lot of patience. I’ve got five children, although three of them have left home, so I have an affinity with kids.

In her second interview, while her description of herself bore many similarities to her early-course interview, she explicitly highlighted her perceived professional growth and increased confidence which she elaborated on when prompted by the researcher.

Elaine: Well I think I’ve grown a lot this last year, confident, more confident than I was before. Um helpful, kind, lots of information to give, supportive, yeah.

Researcher: You said that you’ve gotten more confident. Could you just explain that more? How has the course helped you with that? What do you mean by more confident?

Elaine: Well I think I’ve learnt quite a lot during the course and also I’ve had more employment this year in the schools. So I’ve learnt a lot from the senior teachers, because I work with children with special needs which can be quite challenging, so I think I’ve taken on a more professional role, more responsibilities having to do, because before I was mostly doing relief teaching but now I have to assess and report, write reports for kids.

Researcher: So you are sort of suggesting that your confidence comes mostly from your experience (.) or more experience of teaching in schools.

Elaine: Yes.

In the above dialogue, Elaine refers to her recent work experience and her participation in the TESOL Grad Cert as having boosted her development. While she proactively attributes her growth to her work experience, she only talks about the course when prompted by the researcher. Her focus on contributions of the course to her learning is limited to a general statement (I've learnt quite a lot during the course). This statement appears to be more an attempt on her part to address the researcher's assumption that the course may have helped her and do the course the courtesy of generally acknowledging it than a serious effort to give credit to the course for the specific development she has observed in herself. Her proactiveness in acknowledging the contributions of her work experience to her growth and the tangible details she provides in this regard show a stronger impact of this experience on her identity development than her participation in the course, which she mentions in passing.

Madalina was another participant whose interviews showed a growth in her confidence, although, unlike Gloria and Elaine, she mainly attributed this change to attending the course. In her first interview, Madalina presented herself as very confident in her ability to teach Latin, which she had been teaching for 10 years, but only relatively confident in her ESL teaching capabilities. In her second interview, she still lacked sufficient self-confidence in teaching ESL, which she considered "a new pathway". However, she added, "but I feel much more confident after this year studying to be honest, because I can reflect more, I can include ideas I got." In this excerpt, the aspect of the course she specifically mentions as having enhanced her confidence is its contribution to her teaching reflectively and incorporating ideas she has developed through gaining new knowledge into her teaching. Yet, her explanations remain very brief, unlike those provided by Gloria and Elaine.

As with Madalina, a comparison between Barry's interviews showed his perceived professional growth and an increase in his self-confidence for which he acknowledged the course as the catalyst. His account of this growth was more elaborate than Madalina's. In his first interview, Barry described his knowledge as "very basic" and "very shallow" and a result of "lack of experience" despite 15 years of teaching in ministry. Considering himself "just a baby", he added, "I don't have very well-developed pedagogical principles and very well-developed content knowledge." In his second interview, he thought of himself as "still just a baby", compared to his colleagues who, he thought, had more extensive experience, deeper understanding and better skillsets. Yet, he had grown more confident in his pedagogical knowledge which he believed was "fresher", "more recent", and "more progressive" than some

of his colleagues'. Barry's increased confidence in his knowledge also manifested itself in his perceived responsibilities to his colleagues. In the first interview, he made the general statement, "I have a responsibility to share both successes and failures with other teachers". However, in the second interview, he specifically focused on contributing to his colleagues' knowledge and informing them of recent research findings:

I have actually told one or two, I think twice, colleagues who are more senior to me, "You know how you did this, and you did this? Have you realised that there's this bit of research ... or..."? So, I think I have a responsibility to keep my colleagues pedagogically up to date...I think the way you transform the way people think about teaching is if you've got this current knowledge, because you have to be a recent graduate. You show them specifically why you've made that change and how it comprehensively changes the way the class runs, the results take shape, all the outcomes change for the students.

The level of specificity in this excerpt and Barry recalling instances of having recently shared current knowledge with his colleagues clearly show a perceived increase in his pedagogical knowledge. Barry attributes the growth in his knowledge to his participation in the course through referring to being "a recent graduate" as a prerequisite for transforming his colleagues' views of teaching. Thus, Barry and Madalina both attribute their increased self-confidence to the new knowledge they have acquired through participating in the course, with Barry also attaching some importance to having a recent TESOL qualification in this part of his interview and elsewhere.

The above analysis showed the participants' identity development in the form of a growth in their self-confidence. It appeared that where attending the TESOL Grad Cert and gaining one's first or early teaching experience took place simultaneously, the latter was acknowledged as having exerted a greater impact on the participants' identity negotiation than the former. On the contrary, there seemed to be a stronger recognition of the contributions of the course to identity development on the part of the teacher learners who had already taught for many years. The interviews did not present evidence of any other changes in the participants' identities. This is focused on in the next section.

No Substantial Evidence of Identity Shifts

The analysis of the interviews yielded no compelling evidence of changes in most participants' identities in most of the aspects focused on in the interviews. Their descriptions of themselves

as teachers, their definitions of teaching, their perceived roles and responsibilities as teachers, and their perceptions of their teaching knowledge and skills remained almost the same across the two interviews. So did most examples they gave of their most or least favourite teachers. Some examples are presented below.

There were major similarities between Denise's interviews with respect to her self-descriptions, her accounts of how others would describe her, and her future career plans. In her early course interview, she considered herself to be "very creative, a little bit haphazard, I think because my creative side takes over so I get excited about something and I want to do that." She also mentioned being "warm", "inspiring", "into social justice", and interested in children as some of her other features. In her second interview, she used similar wordings to describe herself, such as "creative", "in some regards spontaneous", "warm and nurturing". She also said, "a lot of the time I come from a social justice point of view". When asked how others describe her, she presented considerably similar responses. Early in the course, she said that her students and colleagues considered her "passionate", "enthusiastic", "creative", and "a bit chaotic". Late in the course, she said that her managers regarded her as a "creative" teacher and were "pleased by my enthusiasm, cheery and passionate nature." She said that some of her colleagues "don't understand me and think I'm a bit chaotic or a bit, um, a bit messy or too creative". Regarding her future career plans, she seemed to have maintained the same goals. In the first interview, she said "I would like to be the, um, the main teacher of the Aboriginal education unit". In the second interview, she said, "I would like to work fulltime across transitions and learning support. I don't really want to be a mainstream English teacher anymore; it's not what drives me".

Likewise, Jill's interviews were characterised with similar foci in how she described herself as a teacher, how she believed others described her, and her perceptions of her teaching knowledge and skills. In her first interview, when asked to describe herself as a teacher, she said "I don't like boring, traditional methods. I mean, I like to experiment and use, you know, try different things and I like to think that the children I'm teaching are engaged." Her interest in using alternative ways of teaching and fostering student engagement was also reflected in her second interview. Her maintained focus on student engagement manifested itself when she said, "I like to have the students engaged, ... I don't use direct instruction a lot really because I prefer to have the interaction going in the classroom". Elsewhere in the interview, she highlighted her willingness to be always learning about how to teach: "I'd always like to think

that I'm, you know, keeping up with things and not 'resting on my laurels' as they say". Jill also recalled similar comments that others had made about her as a teacher in both interviews. In the first interview, she said that others describe her as "really well organised" and "setting high standards". In the second interview, she said that others consider her a teacher who is "capable" and "well organised" and "plans well". Jill's perceptions of her teaching knowledge and skills remained almost the same too. As the following excerpts show, she remained sceptical about her knowledge of English and grammar which she felt in need of improvement particularly for the purpose of teaching high school and adult students.

I definitely I need to, you know, have that ... improve my basic knowledge of things like grammar and all the bits of English we take for granted but, um ... and I ... I really don't feel confident in knowing how to ... where to start with sort of older ... like, I've never taught adults, so, um, well, I have taught adults in certain scenarios but not in teaching English. And my ... I mean, I think I ... my English ... my own English is really good but teaching English is a dearth thing so I'd be looking at ways to improve those skills (1st interview).

I consider that my teaching skills are very high because I've had so many years' experience in different areas but my knowledge in ESL is developing... I have been working in primary so that area is easy to do ESL because it is just you using your general teaching skills. But I would really like to work at high school. That's where I am still really lacking in confidence because it is more specific grammar work and not having done that, that's that's daunting (2nd interview).

As one more example, Sally also described herself, defined teaching, and explained her reasons for teaching ESL in very similar ways in the two interviews. In the first interview, she described herself as a teacher who is "very caring", "personable", "compassionate", and "considerate" and tries to "build a relationship with them (students)" and "make learning as varied and as fun as I possibly can". She concluded by saying "I generally love people and I think it's important for everyone to feel important. I love children". Her description of herself in the second interview was strikingly similar. She considered herself "kind and caring and compassionate" and referred to herself as a teacher who "quite like[s] working with diversity" and "love[s] children". In her first interview, she defined teaching as "not just a job, really, it's a lifestyle", and added, "it's constant, constant and it's who you are as, as a person." She also said that her goal was "just to know that I've been, you know, some sort of a benefit to at least 10 people." The definition of teaching she presented in her second interview was not different in any marked way, as she said, "it's not a nine to five job, is it? It's like, you know, it's kind of there

all the time. Um, it's very rewarding when you are able to make a difference." Finally, regarding her reasons for teaching ESL, in her first interview Sally referred to access to more teaching opportunities, lifelong learning, and her interest in language, including grammar, and different cultures. In her second interview, she stated the same reasons except her interest in language. She also attached considerable importance to teaching ESL as a profession when she said:

I think it's a very important position because you're not just someone teaching them English, you're kind of guiding them and supporting them in, like, the strange place quite often, you know? Like, if it's not in their own country that you're teaching them, then I guess you'd become, like, you know, a bit of a, you kind of build relationships with them.

Given that Sally's emphasis on the importance of teaching ESL was not evident in the first interview, her explanation about this importance in the above excerpt from her second interview may suggest development of the ESL aspect of her teacher identity. Yet, a close look at the excerpt shows that she does not really adopt an ESL focus. Rather, she mentions "teaching them English" to show that this is too limited a definition of the profession. Distancing herself from such a focus, she goes on to address general roles of a teacher, regardless of subject area, namely "guiding", "supporting", and "build[ing] relationships with" learners. Therefore, this apparent difference in her focus in the second interview is not necessarily suggestive of an identity shift towards a more ESL-specific conceptualisation of teaching.

In the case of most of the interviewees, their most and/or least favourite teachers remained the same across the interviews. Elaine, for example, talked about a primary school teacher she had and highlighted the same positive features of hers in both interviews.

I always remember a teacher I had in England. She was a lady about 30 and I was a little girl and she loved the nature and outdoors, so always her lessons had something to do with plants or animals. We had pets in the classroom. We were allowed to have pets in the classroom. She was a great influence (1st interview).

Was a teacher of a long time ago in England who was very interested in the natural world. So she used to take us for walks around in the woods near the school when people could leave the school without permission, that was different in those days and she also encouraged us to have an interest in wild life and animals that we kept in the classroom (2nd interview).

Mareike also recalled a politics teacher in both interviews when she was asked to talk about a teacher she did not like. She had similar foci in both descriptions that she gave of this teacher, such as his poor planning, lack of clear instructions, and not taking his teaching seriously.

Because he was only talking and I couldn't follow and I didn't know what, what is now the learning effect. And he was so soft or too soft. It was not, no, no guidance. There was, yeah, it was not, 'here you have materials here and you can work with that'. It was we were all sitting there and he was talking about that, yeah. He, he tried to be, yeah, leisure and relaxed but there was no charisma. And there, yeah, there was no, we had the feeling he was not organised (1st Interview).

It was like when we talked during the break or one day we had an excursion that was really nice to talk to him, but during the class it was like nobody really knew what is the goal of the lesson and it was like I think he was a little bit too relaxed in that way like "yea go on and talk," about what? So it was not, we didn't really know what to do and for me it was too relaxing, so too relaxing in that way that when I don't know what the task (2nd Interview).

In a few cases, the participants described different people when talking about their most or least favourite teachers, but these differences did not show a clear identity shift. Elaine, for instance, talked negatively about a primary school teacher she had in England: "She liked poetry and we had to recite a lot of poetry and it was very boring. And she also had a map of the world and we'd have to recite the countries and learn by rote." In the second interview, however, she recalled a teacher she had in year 7 in Australia with a different set of undesirable characteristics.

Elaine: When I first came to Australia in the 70s, I had a teacher, an Australian teacher who didn't like kids from England, so he was a math teacher and he was very unkind.

Researcher: So was he kind of a racist then?

Elaine: He was, he was. He only liked Aussie kids and he didn't want people from other countries to come into Australia. So he was an older man and he was quite rude to people. I had a little friend who was from India and we were always together and he was very rude to both of us. Yeah, very unkind.

Elaine did not like her teacher in England due to her boring and rote learning based teaching method, whereas her lack of interest in her Australian math teacher was because of his rude and racist approach to some students. These differences, however, did not necessarily reflect

an instance of identity development, in that the rest of her interview data did not include any evidence of a similar shift in her understanding of good and poor teaching. Nor did they show an increasing focus on ESL.

The analysis presented above shows considerable similarities across the two interviews in most participants' descriptions of themselves as teachers, their understanding of what teaching involves, their perceptions of their knowledge and skills of teaching, their future career goals, and/or examples they presented of their most or least favourite teachers. The next section focuses on differences identified in the participants' interview data across the course which may suggest identity shifts on their part.

This section presented the findings relating to identified shifts, or lack thereof, in the teacher learners' identities. In the first part, it was discussed that the most significant shift identified in the participants' identities was a growth in their self-confidence as teachers. This was often attributed to their teaching experience outside the course. The second part highlighted the ample evidence of no meaningful shifts in most aspects of most participants' identities. The next section reports on the part of interview the teacher learners' perceptions of the course and how they thought it had helped them develop professionally.

The Participants' Perceptions of the TESOL Grad Cert

In this section, the teacher learners' perceptions of the strengths of the course, its contributions to their learning, and its limitations are presented. As mentioned in the introduction of the chapter, in line with the sociocultural perspective that teacher learning is mainly a process of identity development, the researcher invited a general focus on the learning that the participants experienced during the course, hoping that this would yield further insight into their identity development. The resultant data did, in fact, contribute relevant insights which, together with the findings of the first section, assisted with developing a more comprehensive picture of the potential of the course for teacher identity formation. The findings of this section of the interview are reported below, followed by a discussion which integrates the findings of both sections.

Perceived Strengths of the TESOL Grad Cert

Overall, the participants were satisfied with the course, and in both interviews they talked very positively about it. Their comments ranged from general statements about the entirety of the course and their learning process to remarks about its specific aspects. To start with their general comments, in her first interview, Sally said “I wasn’t totally sure what to expect, but I’m actually really loving, really enjoying it”, and in her second interview she said, “I’ve gained a lot.” Barry predicted in his first interview that the course will give him “introductory expertise”, and in his second interview he said, “Genuinely it gives me insights into teaching that other teachers don’t have, genuinely.” Some other comments made by other participants in their second interview are as follows:

It’s been a good course. I’ve enjoyed it (Elaine).

I found a lot of it interesting and it’s opened up lots of ideas and ways of looking at things that I hadn’t thought of before (Gloria).

Really enjoyed being in the course and I can see the benefits. Also stimulating and rewarding (Jill).

The interviewees also made positive remarks about different aspects of the course, such as materials, assignments, and classroom discussions and interactions. Regarding materials, for instance, they used phrases like “really good” (Barry), “really interesting” (Denise), and “a really good mix” (Jill). In her second interview, Sally, also referring to the materials as “really interesting”, shared her opinion on a reading she had recently gone through for the course:

The Tuesday night one, like, “Wow! I didn’t know that!” and that encourages you to go home and do a bit more research into other areas so it’s not just what you’re learning there. Go home and think, “Oh I want to know a bit more about this! This is intriguing!”

Sally, Elaine, and Madalina talked positively about the reading on how to develop a lesson plan. The course included activities which the teacher learners would do before some tutorials, called tutorial preps. Gloria had found these activities “great”. And Madalina “really like[d] the tutorial activities because they’re related to practice or you could transfer them to your own teaching.”

The participants had similarly positive ideas about the assignments. While four of them made general comments like those on materials, the other three specifically focused on an assignment in the Second language Teaching Methodology unit. This assignment required them to directly engage with a potential language learner and analyse their language needs. These participants' reflection on their experience with this assignment are as follows.

I really like the idea of action-based research so you observe a student, you write it up and then you get marked on it (Barry).

I think that's got a very practical application. So that's good; it'll be really helpful in, um, learning how to assess students and provide suitable, um, learning for them (Gloria).

I found that I was keen to get my teeth stuck into them and to do the research. I particularly liked the one where I needed a case study (Denise).

While Barry and Gloria talked about this assignment in their early-course interview, as they did the relevant unit in the first semester, Denise recalled her experience with it in her second interview. This further highlighted how interesting she had found it.

All participants reported that they enjoyed classroom interactions and discussions which enabled them to learn from others' experiences and suggestions and also helped them understand the readings better. The following are some of the relevant excerpts.

I like the people we were studying with, other people's suggestions (Elaine).

I like it that we can have discussions about the input we get (Madalina).

I really enjoyed, um, working with the other students and discussing, you know, different ways to do things and hearing other people's experiences and stories (Denise).

I really enjoyed meeting the other people from different backgrounds and different walks of life. I mean, that's half the fun of it (Jill).

Winston as a Model

Although the interviewees were not explicitly asked to share their opinions about how they found Winston as their teacher educator, the analysis of the interview data showed that he had successfully established himself as a role model in the eyes of most of the participants. The

pedagogical approaches that teacher educators manifest in their teaching conduct have been acknowledged as a significant source of the development of teacher learners' pedagogical beliefs and practice (e.g., K. E. Johnson, 2015; Korthagen et al., 2006; Loughran & Berry, 2005; Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007). Winston's conduct as a teacher educator and person also appeared to be a potential source for the teacher learners' identity negotiation, in that they showed interest in different aspects of his character as a person and his teaching style. To start with, they all liked his sense of humour. As an example, Sally said,

I love those classes because Winston made it fun with his humour, chucking in a few jokes here and there, you know, and because three hours is a long time and a lot of other people, you know, you'd be nodding off.

In different parts of her second interview, Denise focused on what she liked about Winston's teaching style in detail. She described him as "fabulous", "very entertaining", "very engaging", "very skilful", and "very able to get the best out of people". Other remarks of hers which shed further light on how highly she thought of him were:

I think Winston's playful style of lecturing really stayed with me because I really engaged with that style and that was the sort of style that I'd like to bring to the classroom.

If I am teaching something, I go "oh I wonder what would Winston do" [laughs]. So that made a huge difference in me.

Also, Jill said, "there was variety of activities and it wasn't threatening so you felt very comfortable. Um, you know, he made it so you felt comfortable to give your own opinions and ask questions."

In the previous section, it was mentioned that most of the interviewees described the same teachers as their most and/or least favourite in both interviews and the few differences that emerged mostly had no explicit connection to their learning experience in the TESOL Grad Cert. There was one case, however, which may suggest a meaningful change attributable to the course. Gloria, who talked about a schoolteacher of hers in her first interview, presented Winston as her favourite teacher in the second interview. In her first interview, she talked at length about a biology teacher she had when she was a child. This teacher, she recalled, "had real enthusiasm about her subject", and her teaching style "wasn't so prescriptive, it wasn't just sit down and learn all this stuff, it was discovering, so she had this wonderful approach. She

loved it and she loved to share it.” In the second interview, while she mentioned this teacher in passing, Gloria mostly talked about Winston as a favourite teacher of hers who shared most of her biology teacher’s features and also had some other positive characteristics. Starting her response with “Can I favour Winston?” while laughing, she continued:

I suppose the ones that made an impact on me were the ones who I really loved their subject, that were teaching because they really wanted people to know about and share their interest in the subject. I mean Winston’s one of them. And and I can think of an Italian teacher and a Biology teacher from when I was at school who were like that. And and they didn’t judge anybody you know and that’s that’s another thing. Winston’s funny. He’s got some funny little idiosyncrasies that you know that when you answer a question it was like aw but he doesn’t show it. He’s great, very accepting. So I think the way Winston approaches it has made it a lot more enjoyable going to the lectures, especially that time of night.

This long excerpt shows that Gloria admired Winston for different reasons, such as his love for his subject, his interest in his students’ learning, his sense of humour, and his accepting treatment of his students’ ideas which may not be very refined. Nevertheless, all these features are generic and do not include ESL-specific aspects. Thus, adopting Winston as a favourite teacher may not have necessarily informed Gloria’s identity formation as a teacher ‘of ESL’. Yet, it appears to have impacted her identity as relating to general aspects of teaching.

Perceived Contributions of the TESOL Grad Cert to the Teacher Learners’

Development

Analysis of the interviews, mostly the late-course ones, yielded a number of foci in the participants’ reflections on their learning outcomes. These foci consisted of language awareness, attitude towards L2 users, cultural awareness, and pedagogical knowledge, all acknowledged in the literature as key elements of L2 teacher identity (e.g., Antonek et al., 1997; Farrell, 2011; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Menard-Warwick, 2011).

Language awareness emerged as the learning outcome most highlighted in the interviews. The participants discussed how the course had raised their language awareness which helped them become better language analysts and language teachers. Regarding the former, Jill believed that the course had given her “a better understanding of language, and where it comes from and how it evolved and much more appreciation for that sort of area.” A language analysis-related outcome of this increased understanding of language for Madalina was learning “how to talk

about it with other people”. Gloria, who in the first interview had found the perceived linguistic orientation of the course a limitation, admired the course in her second interview for “spark[ing] an interest in linguistics”, leading her to conclude, “now I suppose I’m more interested in language for its own sake than just teaching.” Elsewhere in the interview, she went beyond a focus on language analysis benefits of the course and acknowledged the connections between her newly gained interest in linguistics and her development as a teacher: “the linguistic side of it really sparked an interest in that side of English for me and that has made me a better teacher too”. Some other participants also focused on connections between language awareness and teaching as they highlighted contributions of the course to their awareness of their own language use and the impact of this awareness on their teaching. Elaine, for example, said that the course “made me actually look at how my English is and I was able to break apart my English and look at the words I was using”. She then explained that she should be able to “break language up into pieces, so people will understand what I’m teaching.”

While Elaine’s explanation about the place of language awareness in her teaching success was rather brief, Barry and Denise explained at length how the course heightened their awareness of their own language use in the classroom:

I’m ever conscious of how is this being heard by people who don’t have English as a first language. Um, from simply, you know, you see those sad situations where somebody says to a student, like the Korean students, “Do you understand?” and they go, “Yes” but they don’t. That old story where you keep using English words or complicated English words and you just repeat yourself (Barry).

I think one of things that stuck with me was the way that Winston said he was able to speak when people are very much at the beginning stage of learning English. He said that the way he would be able to explain, the way he would speak people was that he would slow his language down but look like he was just thinking about things as he was going so he protected people’s dignity but he spoke at a pace that was reasonable for them to keep up so there are elements in that that I do because I am introducing vocabulary words to my kids that they may not have heard before (Denise).

Both excerpts reflect a focus on the intelligibility of teachers’ use of language in the classroom. Barry reported on his recent consciousness about how teachers’ use of difficult words hinders communication in the ESL classroom and how important it is for a native speaker teacher, like him, to gain an insight into how their language use is “being heard” by ESL learners. Denise recalls a technique she learned from Winston who would slow down his rate of speech for

better student comprehension but would do so in such a way that learners' dignity would be preserved.

Another learning outcome these two participants believed they had achieved through attending the course was a shift of attitude towards a more respectful and sympathetic treatment of ESL learners. Barry reported a better recognition of and more respect for second language learners' educational background and intellectual capacity and their parents' social and professional status.

You presume if someone doesn't speak English, that means they weren't educated. Well, because you presume that English is a good indicator of education... they're not stupid, they're just not confident in this language. That's not an indication of stupidity; they're probably smarter than you. The fact they can speak two languages already, or speak two languages already which you can't. So, um, it helps me, and also, treat their parents differently. They're probably blooming doctors and lawyers and accountants and all that, so treat them with some respect. It helps me respect people more.

Likewise, Denise said that the course had helped her become more respectful to those with bilingual or multilingual backgrounds and also develop an understanding of challenges of learning a second language which she lacked previously.

Definitely. I think I have a much deeper understanding for not just the EALD kids but the kids in my literacy classes because I have been sort of been instructed that language privilege and the language snobbery that I used to have as somebody who was very conscious of having always found language, you know, in terms of grammar and vocabulary to come easy to me, I sometimes wondered why it didn't come easy to other people. So that that language attitude has dropped away. Also the level of respect that I have for people who have multilanguage backgrounds or bilingual backgrounds has greatly increased even though I had that before but now it is even higher.

Closely related to language attitude, a few of the interviewees also briefly highlighted the contributions of the course to their cultural awareness. Jill, for instance, believed that the course had helped her with "understanding culturally some of the students you deal with", and Barry said, in his first interview, that the course was "alerting me to the awareness I need to have to people ... it's really a cultural course through language."

Most of the participants also talked about how the course helped them improve their pedagogical knowledge. Gloria, Sally, and Mereika said that they had learned about different

teaching approaches, methods, and techniques. Denise believed the course had provided a space for her to question her own teaching style. And Jill thought the course had helped her realise she was “on the right track” in addition to specific teaching points that it had taught her. Regarding Jill though, an interesting difference was observed in how she described her knowledge in the second interview. As mentioned in the section “No meaningful evidence of identity shifts”, in this interview Jill remained almost as sceptical as she was in the first interview about her knowledge of English and grammar particularly for teaching high school and adult students. Yet, when asked to share her perceptions of the benefits of the TESOL Grad Cert to her professional development, she reported an increase in her pedagogical knowledge:

I feel more knowledgeable going out to my areas and speaking about ESL. If another teacher said to me, “What’s this?” or “How do you do this?” or “Why are you doing it?”, I do feel a lot more, I have a better understanding so that I can, you know, explain it better. By reading a lot of the research and materials, I feel like I have a good background now and I can speak with authority a bit more, which is great.

In this excerpt, the questions that Jill imagines being asked by another teacher show that she considered the course to have increased her pedagogical knowledge as relating to ESL. While “What’s this?” is open to varied interpretations, “How do you do this?” shows a perceived increase in her knowledge about ways of teaching ESL, and “Why are you doing it?” suggests that she has grown more confident in her understanding of the rationale behind those teaching ways. Furthermore, using the phrase “speaking about ESL” and imagining a conversation with another teacher where she “can ... explain it better” show that she also considered the course to have helped her develop the ‘language’ of the ESL professional community. Jill concludes that her enhanced knowledge contributed to her legitimacy as an ESL teacher who “can speak with authority a bit more”.

Perceived Limitations of the TESOL Grad Cert

Most of the interviewees referred to the absence of practical elements as the main issue of the course. They believed the course should have incorporated more extensive practical experiences such as lesson planning, teaching a lesson, or school visits. Most of these participants attributed their need for these practical elements partly to limitations in their own professional backgrounds. Gloria mentioned her lack of a teaching background, Madalina

talked about her lack of a local teaching certificate, and Sally highlighted her non-English teaching background. Some of the relevant excerpts are as follow.

Before I started it, I thought there would be more practical teaching, but I understand why there is not. I think, apart from me, everyone else is coming from a teaching background, so they don't need it (Gloria, 2nd interview).

The only thing maybe you know but maybe usually people studied here, they have already the teacher's degree. The only thing is maybe if there would be an opportunity to go out together maybe to school yeah to observe or you give a lesson so I don't know but maybe it's not because it's a graduate one, I don't know if people would in a graduate course, I don't know (Madalina, 2nd interview).

I guess, because I'm not teaching ESL and I haven't had the experience, to have some sort of experience included. I would have benefited from just a small bit of exposure to that because it was difficult, like having to make up lessons when, you know, that's kind of, like, ESL appropriate. And I was hoping to, like, I put my name down to volunteer at a couple of places but I think it was far too hectic and busy for them to feel like, like I'd be in the way kind of thing and I can understand that (Sally, 2nd interview).

Jill focused on the absence of practical elements at greatest length in her both interviews. In her first interview, she said,

I'd like to think that I could leave this course and go and teach in the ESL class. I'm not quite sure that that's actually going to be the case, to be honest. That's where I think, "where am I going to get that from?" You know, do I have to go out and find that myself, basically? So it's a bit frustrating and it's not ... I mean, because, basically, you've got a graduate certificate in TESOL, an employer could say, well, "here's your class, go and ..." and you're going, "oh, what do I do? Where do I start?" (Jill, 1st interview).

This excerpt reflects Jill's concern about her lack of the level of confidence she would be expected to have in her classroom teaching skills as a graduate of the TESOL Grad Cert. Specifically, she shares her frustration over the discrepancy she sees between her ideal self, expressed in her first sentence, and her imagined self, which she elaborates on in the rest of the quote. This is despite the fact that she had been teaching ESL as a relief teacher for more than two years before she entered the course.

In her second interview, Jill, who still found the course less practically useful than she had expected, seemed to have partly come to terms with this limitation because of two reasons –

that those who enrol in this course are already teachers and know how to teach and that she lacked an English teaching background. Yet, she did not consider the absence of a practical focus justifiable. The following two excerpts were extracted from two sections of Jill's second interview.

Not as practical as I thought it would possibly be. It's very theoretical which is okay. I mean, I suppose I thought it would be more practical, but then if we're already experienced teachers, then yeah, I can understand why maybe it's just the theoretical side. But, yeah, I think that's my main thing. I thought there would be more practical things in it, even just practical in terms of 'where does this course take you?', and the possibilities of where you can use this course.

I felt that the course gave me a lot of personal background knowledge but still felt quite inadequate in terms of actually teaching it maybe because I didn't have an English teaching background, I came from a different teaching background. So a lot of the basic grammar stuff was totally new to me. And I still feel quite like I am not really skilled in that area, you know, the total practical aspect yeah, so that was not really covered in the course. But if you come from an English teaching background, you probably have completely different perspectives.

The other limitation of the course that a few of the participants focused on was the content, especially that of the Linguistics unit, that they had found heavy and challenging. In his second interview, Barry reflected back on this unit which he had taken in the first semester and referred to it as "really hard" and "technically challenging". Yet, he conceded, "but, you know, I'm not trying" and proceeded to recognise a space for pure linguistics in teaching L2 by saying, "there's always a sense of pure research, pure understandings that have to come. And everything falls out of that." Gloria was similarly critical of the Linguistics unit, as she said in her first interview, "I guess, I didn't really expect so much of a linguistics side of it". Elsewhere in the interview, though, she made a positive comment on her learning in this unit:

I think the linguistics class is more a, um, more of a personal satisfaction in learning something I don't know anything about. I mean, it may, it may change. It may turn out that you think "Oh yeah this is great. I really need to know this", but [silence].

Also, as mentioned in "Perceived contributions of the TESOL Grad Cert to the teacher learners' development", in her second interview Gloria had grown more appreciative of the place of linguistics in her learning.

Despite the concessive and appreciative statements made by both Barry and Gloria on the content following their critical remarks, another interviewee further validated their concerns about the difficulty of the content. Denise, who could be argued to have made the most positive comments of all interviewees on the course, corroborated the legitimacy of such concerns by similarly considering the content “quite challenging” in her second interview. Her literacy education background and the experience of working with students with LOTE backgrounds in the mainstream classroom had given her the unique advantage of using her relevant teaching experience to understand the course content. In this regard, she said, “I’m glad that, um, I’ve had the teaching experience to be able to deal with it.” Yet, she acknowledged that the content could be demanding for the students who lacked that background: “I wonder how people are going who don’t have that under their belt. I think they might be struggling.” Elsewhere in the interview, she even considered the content too heavy for her herself to go through within her limited available time:

It is such a content heavy course and such a content heavy area of study that I feel that the amount of time that I had to put into it only just to grab the surface given that I was working full time.

This section presented the findings relating to the participants’ perceptions of the course. Overall, they were very satisfied with the course. They also talked positively about different aspects of the course, namely materials, assignments, and classroom interactions. Most of the teacher learners had come to consider Winston as a model. They showed interest in some of his character traits as a person and his style as a teacher. The interviewees also mentioned several learning outcomes of their participation in the course, namely heightened language awareness, shift of attitude towards L2 users, more cultural awareness, and enhanced pedagogical knowledge. Finally, most of them identified lack of practical elements as the main issue of the course. Some also found the content, especially that of the Linguistics unit, demanding and challenging, although they grew more appreciative of its place in their development. These findings, along with those from the first section of the interview, are discussed in the next part from an identity perspective.

Discussion

The findings are discussed in three sections. The first section focuses on a common theme identified across the two sets of findings, namely the significance of engagement in teaching

practice in teacher learners' identity negotiation. This theme is discussed in light of three relevant observations: recognising teaching experience outside the TESOL Grad Cert as the catalyst for most cases of identity shift, the interviewees' dissatisfaction with lack of teaching elements in the course, and their positive perceptions of the assignments, which constitute the most practical aspect of the course. The second section of the discussion focuses on the findings which appear to be discrepant across the two sets of interview data. Specifically, it highlights the major finding that the identity interview data provides a far less positive picture of the participants' identity development and the contributions of the TESOL Grad Cert to this development than the second section of the interview which presents the participants' perceptions of the TESOL Grad Cert and their learning within it. Identity development theory is then drawn upon to move beyond these apparent contradictions and recognise their underlying connections. The final section of the discussion draws upon Communities of Practice (CoP) (Wenger, 1998) to further discuss the potential of the TESOL Grad Cert for identity development and its constraints in this regard. It builds on engagement with teaching practice, the focus of the previous section, as a point of departure and proceeds to discuss how the participants engaged in the other two modes of identification proposed by Wenger, namely alignment and imagination.

Engagement in Teaching Practice as a Major Catalyst for Teacher Learners' Identity Negotiation

The significance of direct experience of teaching in identity development emerged as a common theme across the two sets of findings. The identity interview data showed that the most elaborate accounts of identity shifts were observed in Gloria and Elaine in the form of increased self-confidence. These participants attributed their identity development to their experience of teaching practice that they gained while attending the TESOL Grad Cert, but not to the course itself. Their detailed accounts of their learning experience through engagement in teaching sheds light on the great impact of teaching practice on teacher identity development. Their no (proactive) acknowledgement of the course as having fostered this growth shows that its impact on their identities was limited by the lack of opportunity to practice teaching.

A related finding on the importance of teaching practice to teacher learning and identity development was the positive remarks the participants made about the course in the second section of the interview. They stated that they gained a rich learning experience through the

assignments, one of the most practical aspects of the course. They specifically mentioned an assignment which required them to directly engage with a language learner and analyse their language needs. Though not teaching proper, this assignment involved the participants in fulfilling a task which would be part of their real-life experience as ESL teachers. Thus, it marked the closest approximation to teaching practice compared to the other aspects of the course focused on in this interview section.

The participants' disapproval of the course lacking a practicum component is a legitimate one, in that the contributions of practicum teaching experience to identity negotiation have been well documented in numerous studies (e.g., Baecher & Jewkes, 2014; Harlow & Cobb, 2014b; He & Lin, 2013; Henry, 2016; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Trent, 2013; Yayli, 2012). These studies, most of which were reviewed in the literature review chapter, show that through participation in practicum placements, teacher learners, among other things, develop a sense of belonging to the community of the school, grow confident in their teaching knowledge and skills, shift away from a student identity and towards a teacher identity, develop an appreciation for teacher collaboration, develop an increasingly professional language, and reappropriate their university learning and practicum experience to claim a teaching style of their own. The TESOL Grad Cert teachers' access to these important identity experiences was greatly limited by the course constraints on their direct engagement with teaching practice, yet partly afforded by their experience with a few elements that teaching would involve.

Apparent Discrepancies; Underlying Connections

The two sections of the interviews yield findings which appear to be discrepant. The analysis of the identity data in the first section shows no meaningful changes in most aspects of the participants' identities, such as their descriptions of themselves as teachers and their definitions of teaching. An increase in self-confidence emerges as the main meaningful instance of identity development. Yet, the novice teacher participants (i.e., Gloria and Elaine) attribute their increased self-confidence more readily to their early experience of teaching in the reality of classroom than to attending the course. Only Barry and Madalina identify the course as having improved their knowledge of the field and, thus, increased their self-confidence, with Madalina providing only a general and brief explanation.

The analysis of the participants' perceptions of the TESOL Grad Cert portrays a more positive picture of their identity development and the role of the course in their learning. The interviewees express high satisfaction with different aspects of the course, namely content, assignments, and its interactive nature, as well as Winston's teaching skills and performance. They also acknowledge the impact of the course on their language and cultural awareness, pedagogical knowledge, and attitudes towards second language learners, each constituting a major aspect of their identities as second language teachers. The only major criticisms they make of the course is its limited practical elements and its demanding content, with the latter becoming less of a concern towards the end of the course.

No substantial evidence of identity negotiation in most of the identity interview data could be explained in terms of the participants' teaching experience. When entering the course, four of the interviewees (i.e., Jill, Barry, Madalina, and Denise) had already been teaching for 10 to 25 years, not to mention the teacher education degrees and other professional development programs they had attended. Such extensive durations of direct engagement with teaching mean ample opportunity for them to have shaped and established their identities. Compared to this considerable experience which makes their identities more stable and consistent than novice and preservice teachers' (Vásquez, 2007), a one-year part-time teaching degree may not stand much of a chance of bringing about identity shifts fundamental enough to be captured in cross-course interviews.

The shifts emerging from the identity interview data were mostly documented in the identities of the participants who came from a limited, if any, teaching background, namely Elaine, who had been relief teaching for two years, and Gloria, who had never taught. Even in the case of these participants, the analysis showed that the teaching experience they gained while they attended the TESOL Grad Cert had exerted a stronger influence on their identity development than the course. It thus lends additional support to the argument, as presented above, for the importance of teaching experience in identity development.

The above arguments, however, cannot account for most of the second set of findings where all participants made numerous positive remarks about their learning experience in the course. In fact, as mentioned above, these findings suggest the participants' engagement in identity negotiation as relating to several aspects of teaching ESL, namely their language and cultural awareness, pedagogical knowledge, and attitudes towards second language learners. These

discrepant observations across the two sets of findings may beg the question of why these aspects did not emerge in the identity interview data. To address this question, the researcher draws upon identity development theory.

The identity interview data reflect conceptions of teaching and teacher roles in which the participants have developed an increasing degree of investment throughout their career. In the classic literature on identity development, a high degree of investment and commitment has been argued to characterise the status of ‘identity achievement’ (Kroger & Marcia, 2011). Other relevant defining features of this identity status are perseverance and continuity (Kroger & Marcia, 2011; Waterman, 1999). The continuity observed in the participants’, especially the experienced ones’, descriptions of themselves and conceptions of teaching across the interviews could be because these teachers had already developed a high degree of investment in those descriptions and conceptions before they entered the course. ESL-specific aspects did not emerge in their accounts of their professional identities probably because those aspects had not yet developed an ‘achieved’ status. The participants had been presented with them recently (i.e., in the course) and, therefore, they may not have had an adequate chance to invest themselves in them. Consequently, these aspects were not reflected in their identity interviews. Yet, when the point of departure in the interviews shifted away from ‘them as teachers’ and towards the course as a teacher development resource, the ESL aspects surfaced in the interviewees’ accounts of their learning. This may suggest that the participants were going through early stages of negotiating these aspects, although they had not necessarily invested themselves in them yet. This argumentation leads the researcher to a tentative conclusion: what appears to be a discrepancy in the two sets of findings may be more interpretable on the grounds that the identity section of the interview yielded data mostly related to the identities that the participants had achieved over a career-long timescale, whereas the focus on the TESOL Grad Cert in the second section provided a context for them to talk about the ESL aspects of their identities that they were in the process of negotiating as prompted by their participation in the year-long course but had not yet internalised.

This argument is very much in line with Henry’s (2016) conceptualisation of teacher identity as a complex dynamic system, which encourages investigating identity formation across different timescales. A deliberate focus on their short-term experience with the course in the second interview section resulted in most participants’ foregrounding of the fledgling ESL aspects of their identities, the aspects that they were negotiating as teacher learners in the ‘re-

construction' of their already established identities (Suhr, 2014). However, in the identity interview, these participants were positioned as teachers, mostly experienced, rather than TESOL Grad Cert teacher learners. Thus, their responses were informed by their longer-term involvement with teaching and the identities they had more or less 'achieved' throughout this period.

Identity Negotiation from a Communities of Practice Perspective

Wenger (1998, 2000) considers identity formation to be a social process of learning with a dual nature. One dimension involves us identifying with and investing ourselves in meanings that we find significant. The other dimension involves us developing an understanding of our "ability, facility, and legitimacy to contribute to, take responsibility for, and shape" (p. 197) these meanings. He calls these dimensions *identification* and *negotiability* respectively. Wenger (1998) proposes three modes for identification, namely engagement in meaning negotiation, alignment with wider structures, and imagination of the wider world by extrapolating from immediate experiences. Engaging in these three modes of identification within a context of negotiability provides the conditions for legitimate participation in the social process of learning and therefore fosters identity formation. In this final section of discussion, the interview findings related to the three modes of identification proposed by Wenger are discussed. This is followed by a focus on how the TESOL Grad Cert may have cultivated an atmosphere of negotiability, facilitating the participants' legitimate participation in the learning process and identity negotiation.

The findings focused on in the previous section are in line with Wenger's argument for the significance of engagement in identity formation. By way of summary, the novice teacher participants' identity shifts emerged as an outcome of their early engagement in the experience of teaching. Furthermore, the participants, both novice and experienced, expressed dissatisfaction with lack of teaching elements in the TESOL Grad Cert which would have otherwise afforded them an opportunity for engagement with teaching. Yet, they shared their positive experiences with the assignments which somehow or another facilitated such engagement with some aspects of teaching, like analysing learners' needs. Burri et al. (2017) similarly reported that their participants' investment in the assessment tasks in a graduate unit on teaching pronunciation fostered their negotiating the pronunciation instructor identity.

The findings related to the participants' perceptions of the TESOL Grad Cert also reflect other opportunities for engagement, though not necessarily involving the direct practice of teaching. The interviewees talked positively about their experience of mutual involvement in meaning negotiation through classroom interactions and discussions. They said that they had benefitted from hearing their classmates' experiences, stories, and suggestions about different ways of doing things, and that they had enjoyed meeting people from different backgrounds and walks of life. Several studies confirm the validity of these perceptions as they report examples of teacher learners' negotiating their identities as they interact with their peers in different collaborative spaces, such as paired-placements (Dang, 2013), lesson planning sessions (Morton & Gray, 2010), and group meetings (Farrell, 2011).

Winston's interactional style was acknowledged as having further reinforced the participants' mutual involvement in classroom discussions. They believed that he had provided a safe atmosphere for them to express their opinions and ask questions and had made the learning process enjoyable enough for them to look forward to the lectures although they were late in the evening. In this regard, K. E. Johnson (2015) also emphasises the significant role of teacher educators in providing expert mediation in the teacher education classroom to facilitate participants' development as teachers. Extending the discussion to other stake-holders who provide support to teacher learners in their learning process, many studies also highlight the importance of how practicum mentors treat student teachers to their identity development (e.g., H. T. M. Nguyen & Sheridan, 2016; E. R. Yuan, 2016).

Other evidence of engagement as experienced by the teacher learners comprised their positive perceptions of the course materials, including the readings, the tutorial activities, and the tutorial preps, which they had found interesting and helpful. The student teachers in Burri et al.'s (2017) study were similarly reported to have engaged with the professional literature, which the authors regarded as conducive to their identity construction.

The course also afforded opportunities for the participants to practice alignment with wider structures, which, as mentioned above, is another mode of identification proposed by Wenger (1998). One example is the assignments to do which the participants were required to follow certain instructions. In the case of the needs analysis assignment, for instance, they were required to identify an ESL learner, collect written and/or spoken language data from them, determine their English language proficiency level using the data and the levels' descriptors

provided to them, identify their language learning needs, and make suggestions for future teaching and learning for the learner based on their analysis and relevant readings. These steps, although presented as the requirements of a university assignment, are, to varying extents, what an ESL teacher is expected to take in the reality of teaching. Therefore, the participants' early experience of alignment with the guidelines of this assignment serves as an advance preparation for the expectations they will need to meet in the context of workplace, hence its potential to inform the development of their identities as ESL teachers. Another example is the case of the participant who initially did not like the linguistics unit but grew more appreciative of its place in teaching ESL during the course, hence aligning herself with an established content area in TESOL. Teacher learners in other programs of teacher education have been similarly reported to negotiate their identities partly through practicing alignment with pedagogical theories and practices promoted in the teacher education content (e.g., M. Clarke, 2008; Trent, 2010c) and institutional policies in practicum schools (e.g., Trent & Shroff, 2013).

Imagination also emerged as the other mode of identification in which the participants engaged. A few instances were recognised in the second section of the interview. One emerged from Barry's reflection on how the course had raised his language awareness as a teacher. Part of his excerpt reported earlier in this chapter was "I'm ever conscious of how is this being heard by people who don't have English as a first language." This shows that the course had helped him imagine how his classroom language would sound to an ESL learner. This imagination work had made him more conscious about how intelligible his language was when communicating with his students. Denise, who noted that she was a "fan" of Winston, reported that she made some of her pedagogical decisions through imagining "what would Winston do?". Jill engaged in imagination to show, on the one hand, lack of an adequate support for her development in the course in her first interview and, on the other hand, a growth in her pedagogical knowledge in the second interview as a result of participating in the course. In the first interview, Jill's imagination of the demands of her future teaching helped her identify how lack of a practicum component in the course may have limited her development of practical teaching skills which she would be expected to possess as someone with a graduate certificate in TESOL. In the second interview though, through imagining a conversation with a colleague who would consult with her about teaching issues and she would be able to help, she reflected an increased confidence in her pedagogical knowledge she had gained over the course.

The literature includes several reports on how teacher learners negotiate their identities through engaging in different acts of imagination. M. Clarke (2008) gives examples of his participants' imaginative reflection on their past and creation of future possibilities based on their present experiences. Gu and Benson (2015) report that their participants negotiated their professional identities through imagining a future where they could teach using their own preferred styles rather than teaching to the test. And, the research experience of the student teachers in Trent's (2012) study served as a space for their identity work as it fostered their imagination work around how to assist students with their language development.

It was discussed earlier that a major limitation of the course was its lack of a practicum component. This lack was argued to substantially limit the teacher learners' engagement with the practice of teaching. The interconnections Wenger (1998) has discussed as existing between engagement and the other two modes of identification (i.e., imagination and alignment) and how engagement informs individuals' identity formation through these two modes lead the researcher to further argue that limited engagement with teaching practice has the additional consequence of limiting the teacher learners' identity formation through imagination and alignment.

As the three modes of identification discussed above constitute one half of identity formation, this final paragraph focuses on the other half, which is *negotiability* (Wenger, 1998). Some of the findings show that the TESOL Grad Cert facilitated the teacher learners' control over and ownership of the meanings negotiated in the course. These include the interactive nature of the classes in the TESOL Grad Cert, the participants' interest in their classmates' ideas and experiences, the safe atmosphere of the class, and Winston's engaging, entertaining, accepting, and non-threatening style of lecturing. These observations reflect the participants' access to a rich experience of legitimate participation in the process of meaning negotiation and identity formation. The literature related to how a dialogical atmosphere in teacher education fosters teacher identity construction was discussed earlier under engagement. What the analysis suggests to have further contributed to the teacher learners' identity development in the TESOL Grad Cert is their acquiring knowledge of the field which fostered their perceived legitimacy as ESL teachers. An example is from Barry who attributed his improved self-confidence to the "current knowledge" he gained in the course which gave him enough legitimacy to update his (senior) colleagues on recent research in the field. Another example is from Gloria whose interest in the linguistic aspects of TESOL grew throughout the course. This increased interest

enabled her to claim more legitimacy as an ESL teacher, as she made the statement, though general, that “that has made me a better teacher too.” Knowledge acquisition as a major facet of teacher identity development has been widely acknowledged in the research literature on L2 teacher identity. Researchers like Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2016) and Kanno and Stuart (2011) reported developing subject matter knowledge as part of their participants’ negotiating a teacher identity. Morton and Gray (2010) observed a growth in their participants’ ‘personal practical knowledge’ and the development of their teacher identities as two interconnected trajectories. Likewise, Burri et al. (2017) reported as intertwined their teacher learners’ identity development and cognition growth, with knowledge as a major aspect of it. Further reflecting the place of knowledge in identity development, though in a negative light, Delahunty (2012) saw a perceived lack of knowledge as limiting some of her participants’ identity construction in that it impacted on their sense of belonging to the teacher education cohort.

Summary

This chapter reported and discussed the findings from the interviews conducted with seven teacher learners. Overall, the analysis of the identity data yielded a growth in self-confidence as the only significant instance of identity development. Yet, this growth was observed mostly in the participants who had no or little prior teaching experience and attributed their increased self-confidence to the early teaching experience they were gaining while, but not as part of, attending the TESOL Grad Cert. The interviews did not present any other substantial evidence of changes in the participants’ identities. On the whole, these findings suggest that the course may have had a limited impact on the participants’ identity development in a large timescale. However, the analysis of the participants’ perceptions of the course presented a more positive picture of the role of the course in the development of different aspects of their identities, namely their linguistic and cultural awareness, knowledge of L2 teaching, and attitudes towards L2 learners. Identity development theory was drawn upon to argue that the participants’ lack of a focus on these ESL-specific aspects in the identity interview may mean that they are going through early stages of negotiating these dimensions of their identities and have not yet internalised them. The meaningful identity shifts in some of the teacher learners who practiced teaching outside the course and most participants’ dissatisfaction with limited practical elements in the course showed engagement with teaching as an important catalyst for identity work. Finally, the findings indicated that the teacher learners had undergone a process of identification (Wenger, 1998) related to other types of engagement with teaching and their

peers, imagination work regarding different aspects of teaching, and alignment with the established knowledge and practice in TESOL in an atmosphere of dialogue and negotiation within the course.

Chapters 5, 6, and 7 reported on micro-analytic studies of teacher learners' engagement in identity negotiation within selected classroom conversations. Chapter 8 reported on the interview findings related to changes in the participants' identities across the longer timescale of the TESOL Grad Cert. Course documents, as the third dataset used in this thesis, offer another lens into the potential of the course for fostering teacher identity formation. While studying the course documents does not offer the micro-analysis afforded through the conversation analysis studies, it helps the researcher go beyond the particularistic focus of these studies and explore the potential of the TESOL Grad Cert as a whole for fostering identity development. Also, it enables the researcher to move beyond the naturally limited picture portrayed of the course in the interviews with seven participants and add another angle, that of his own, on how the course may contribute to teacher learners' identity formation, yet within the limitations of what documents can offer. The following chapter, Chapter 9, reports on the analysis of all of the documents related to the TESOL Grad Cert.

CHAPTER 9

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

This chapter reports on the directed content analysis of the TESOL Grad Cert course documents. It focuses on what the documents show about the potential of the course in fostering teacher learners' identity formation. As explained in Chapter 4, the course was comprised of four units: the language-focused units of Linguistics and Sociolinguistics and the pedagogically-oriented units of 'ESL teaching methodology' and 'Teaching ESL skills'. The documents of the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units were analysed for instances of integrating a pedagogical focus into their overall language analytical approach. Document analysis of the 'ESL teaching methodology' and 'Teaching ESL skills' units was conducted to examine their potential for facilitating engagement with teaching practice. The results of these two phases of analysis are reported in the next section. This is followed by a discussion of the potential of the four units for teacher identity development from a Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) perspective.

Document Analysis

Integrating a Focus on ESL Teaching into Language Analysis

In this section, the analysis of different components of the documents related to the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units is presented. These components consist of the unit outlines, the lecture slides, the tutorial activities and preps (i.e., tutorial preparation worksheets), and the assignments and the final examinations.

Unit outlines.

Linguistics.

A pedagogical focus manifests itself in two sections of the Linguistics unit outline, namely the unit description and the unit outcomes. Throughout the three-paragraph unit description section, connections between linguistic knowledge and teaching ESL are emphasised. It starts by stating that "a foundation of linguistic knowledge" enables the language teacher to "assist learners in language analysis and grammatical understanding." It proceeds to highlight "something of a paradox" that language teachers face:

Like all language speakers, they have a lot of experience in language use, but often relatively little in language analysis. Unfortunately, language analysis is exactly what the teacher is expected to provide. This means that students count on a teacher to impart a kind of knowledge and experience that the teacher does not possess, and may not feel confident in.

In light of this background, it presents the purpose of the unit as “provid[ing] linguistic experience” to “help the language teacher to field questions, to explain language behaviour (in English and in other languages), and to equip teacher learners so that they can perform their own study of language behaviour.”

The unit outcomes include two linguistic and two pedagogical ones. The linguistic outcomes are to “gain an understanding of English grammar” and to “identify the main areas of linguistic inquiry, and conduct analysis within them”. The pedagogical ones are to “apply these areas of linguistics to your language teaching” and to “use a range of technological tools to meet the needs of students of English”.

Sociolinguistics.

The Sociolinguistics unit outline has but very brief and vague references to teaching. The two-paragraph unit description has a predominantly pure sociolinguistic focus. It is the last sentence only that remotely suggests a pedagogical dimension: “English provides a significant focus of study, but other languages will also be used to highlight issues and to meet students’ professional needs.” The phrase ‘professional needs’ can be argued to encompass pedagogical needs, given the overarching TESOL focus of the course. In the unit outcomes section, one of the items reads, “identify the main ideas within sociolinguistic theory, and their application to issues of language, society, and education in various parts of the world”. The word ‘education’ which appears at the end of the list of the issues mentioned in this outcome indicates, though remotely, a potential pedagogical focus.

Although not part of the unit outline, there is relevant information in one of the slides of the first lecture on the unit which is worth reporting here. In a slide, titled “Why this unit?”, Winston puts the unit in a pedagogical context by writing (the slide format has been maintained):

As educators, you can:

Help students master Standard English
Promote linguistic equality, language diversity, and non-discrimination
Recognise the validity of non-standard varieties of English, where appropriate
Contribute to the formation of language policy

Addressing teacher learners as ‘educators’ and explicitly referring to language learners in the first item of the list reflect an educational focus. The other items in the list can also be considered to be the roles assumed by a critical educator who promotes social justice and diversity.

Another section of the outlines of the two units potentially relevant to the present analysis is ‘Graduate attributes’. The outline of the Sociolinguistics unit lists two attributes, namely ‘critical appraisal skills’ and ‘cross-cultural and international outlook’. Those listed in the Linguistics unit outline include these two as well as ‘ability to communicate’ and ‘ability to generate ideas’. The researcher considers these items too general to be analysable in terms of how the units have integrated a pedagogical focus. The information provided in the other potentially relevant sections of the outlines, namely ‘Unit content’, ‘Semester plan’ (the foci of the weekly lectures and relevant readings), and ‘Readings and course materials’ is similarly too limited to be conducive to the present analysis.

Lecture slides.

This section presents a detailed report on any evidence of a pedagogical focus in the lecture slides of the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units. The units are focused on in the same order as in the previous section.

Linguistics.

Out of the 11 lectures in the Linguistics unit, the first two can be argued to have a strong pedagogical focus. In the first lecture, titled “Language and grammar”, this focus is explicitly reflected in two of its three major foci. With “What knowledge about language do people have?” serving as a preliminary discussion topic, the lecture proceeds to address “Why do we need to teach language?” and “What happened to the teaching of grammar?” in the rest. The second lecture focuses on “Getting answers to language questions”. Some of these questions are “What’s the hardest language to learn?”, “How do you spell...?”, and “What’s right to say?” Winston establishes the pedagogical relevance of these questions through presenting

them as those “your students will look to you for answers to”. In this phrase, course participants are positioned as teachers whose students expect them to answer their language questions. The slides present information about the resources that a teacher can use to answer language questions, such as ‘Google Ngram Viewer’, ‘the World Factbook’, ‘The Corpus of Global Web-Based English’, and ‘Word and Phrase Info’.

Among the rest of the lectures, the one on pragmatics was found to have the strongest focus on teaching. Yet, this lecture is mostly language analysis oriented as its slides are mostly dedicated to a detailed presentation of speech acts and Grice’s Cooperative Principle (Grice, 1975). Four out of the 37 content slides adopt a pedagogical focus, as they explain the pragmatic aspects of classroom language. Titled “Classroom language”, they deal with how teachers’ instructions can be misunderstood by students from a different language background.

The rest of the lectures feature a further limited, if any, account of connections between their foci and teaching ESL and a more exclusive language analytical orientation. In the lecture on morphology, the detailed treatment of different components of morphology, such as parts of speech, tense and aspect, number and person, and case marking, in 32 slides leaves two slides to address teaching-related issues. One, titled ‘Teaching morphology’, promotes learning morphology as “a tremendous vocabulary booster” and presents an excerpt of a list of the most common suffixes. The other one, ‘Inductive grammar teaching’, outlines pros and cons of this approach to grammar instruction. The bulk of the lecture on pronunciation is allocated to the detailed explanation of the IAP (International Phonetic Alphabet) symbols and extensive discussion about sounds in terms of their manner of articulation, place of articulation, and voicing. One out of the 41 content slides reflects a teaching focus as it presents challenges ESL learners have with hearing and producing sounds. Similarly, the lecture on writing has only one pedagogically focused slide, which includes suggestions to help students with English spelling. The rest of the slides explain the history of writing, how writing and reading are different from speaking and listening, why English spelling is strange, and the symptoms and causes of dyslexia and dysgraphia.

The analysis of the slides of the other lectures yields no evidence of connections made between their language-focused content and teaching ESL. The major foci of the lecture on child language acquisition are first language acquisition theories, the features of Child-Directed Speech, and the stages of child language acquisition. The lecture on brain and language

addresses hemispheric specialisation of language in the brain, aphasia, dyslexia, dysgraphia, and corpus callosotomy. The lecture on semantics focuses on denotative and connotative meanings of words, semantic gaps between languages, lexical relations (e.g., synonym, antonym, & hypernym), and different types of ambiguity, namely lexical, structural, and scope. The lecture on vocabulary presents topics such as orthographic word and lexeme, compositional and a non-compositional multi-word expressions, collocations, and different types of lexical creation. Finally, the lecture on syntax introduces metalinguistic terms, such as phrase, clause, and verb, and their different types. One may argue that since teaching grammar is discussed in the first lecture, lack of a pedagogical focus in the lecture on syntax is justifiable. However, the first lecture mainly deals with reasons why grammar should be taught and presents a historical perspective on grammar instruction. Furthermore, the extensive details provided in the lecture on syntax which are potential points of departure for a focus on teaching grammar are lacking in the first lecture on language and grammar.

The above analysis shows a limited focus on ESL teaching in the content of the Linguistics unit. Only two of the lectures allocate adequate space to discussing their topics in connection with teaching, three incorporate a very limited treatment of such connections, and the other six entirely lack a pedagogical focus.

Sociolinguistics.

As with the Linguistics unit, the Sociolinguistics unit consists of 11 lectures. These lectures address various important sociolinguistic topics, such as language variety, multilingualism and diglossia, languages in contact, language variation, register and style, speech acts and discourse, cross-cultural communication, and language attitudes. The analysis of the slides of these lectures yielded no evidence of connections established between teaching ESL and sociolinguistic issues except for register. In the relevant lecture, one slide only, titled “Teaching register”, presents four ways of doing so.

Tutorial activities and preparation worksheets.

Linguistics.

As explained above, the analysis of the slides of the Linguistics unit suggested an extensive focus on raising teacher learners’ awareness of linguistic issues and an overall limited space

allocated to recognising connections between these issues and teaching ESL. The analysis of the tutorial activities and preps in this unit yielded similar results.

Many of the tutorial activities have been designed to facilitate teacher learners' language analysis skills with no account of how these skills would help them fulfil their teaching roles. One example is an activity related to the lecture on morphology, where teacher learners are supposed to split given words into their component morphemes. Another example comes from the lecture on semantics which includes a number of ambiguous headlines retrieved from real newspapers. Teacher learners should write down two complete sentences that show the difference between the two possible interpretations, and then identify the type of ambiguity in each headline. Another activity, related to the lecture on pragmatics, is about 'Gricean Implicature' (Grice, 1975). It asks teacher learners to reflect on the difference between flouting a maxim and violating a maxim and then decide which maxim is being flouted or violated in given scenarios. One more example is from the lecture on pronunciation, where teacher learners are given a list of words and phonetic transcriptions and asked to connect each word to its correct transcription. Some of the tutorial preps are similarly intended to help teacher learners develop their language analysis skills without any explicit attempts to situate these practices within a context of language instruction. An example is from the lecture on pragmatics which asks teacher learners to engage in conversation with chatbots (computer programs designed to imitate human conversation) and identify the qualities of human conversation that they do not demonstrate.

Some of the tutorial activities and preps reflect a combined focus on the 'language analyst' and 'language teacher' domains of teaching ESL, with the latter often presented as a minor, or unnecessary, focus. One example is a tutorial prep related to the session on 'Child language acquisition'. This prep includes seven questions based on Kuhl's (2004) paper on early language acquisition. Examples include what kinds of sounds children are able to perceive and how this changes as they get older, how young children detect word boundaries, and in what ways the mind of a child is similar to or different from a computer. One question only deals with language instruction, "Why is it that it's so difficult for adults to learn another language? What implications does this have for language teaching?" Since teacher learners are asked to answer four of the questions, this prep does not necessitate a focus on this question.

Another example is a tutorial prep related to the session on grammar. This prep which is called “Grammar in the new National Curriculum” is intended to develop teacher learners’ understanding of their current knowledge of terms related to syntax. The prep starts with a paragraph where the issue of metalinguistic knowledge is situated in a curricular context: “Grammar has a new place of prominence in the National Curriculum. This means that you may be responsible for teaching grammar that you never got in school, or had to pick up along the way.” A summary of the expected skills from the English Language part of the Curriculum is provided in this prep. Teacher learners are asked to read the summary, find four or five terms related to syntax, and classify them into three categories of those they “have a firm grasp of, and could explain to someone else”, those they “could probably describe or explain”, and those they “have never encountered before”. The end of the prep reads, “At this stage, you don’t have to actually look the terms up unless you want to. The purpose of this prep is to identify gaps.”

Contextualisation of the activity through situating it within the national curriculum and highlighting the new responsibility of teaching grammar facilitates a pedagogical focus in the prep. So does asking teacher learners to classify syntax-related terms based on their ability to ‘explain’ them, something they should do in the classroom as teachers. However, no mention, explicit or implicit, of students, in general, or ESL learners, in particular, in most of the prep and the use of the nonspecific pronoun ‘someone else’ as the addressee of grammar explanations in the first category suggests that the prep is mostly focused on teacher learners’ ‘language analyst’ role, with their ‘language teacher’ role fading into the background.

A few tutorial preps show a stronger link to teacher learners’ ‘language teacher’ role. A prep related to the session on vocabulary focuses on binomial pairs (i.e., pairs of words joined by a conjunction and used together in a fixed word order). Similar to the previous example, the first paragraph of the prep puts the activity in a language instructional context through a focus on English learners: “English learners often encounter pairs of words that have a non-compositional meaning — that is, the meaning can’t be guessed from the individual words. These meanings can be quite challenging!” A list of 14 binominal pairs with the second half of each missing follows (e.g., rack and ---; kith and ---). Teacher learners are asked to pick any four of the pairs and for each guess the other half of the pair. Then they are asked to explain the meaning of the phrase and the individual words. This informs the next part of the activity which asks them to write how they would explain each phrase to a learner, hence a pedagogical orientation.

A section in the pronunciation tutorial activity also has a predominantly pedagogical approach. This section, which is titled “Pronunciation Clinic”, asks teacher learners to decide how they would help language learners pronounce the sounds which they find difficult to produce. They are recommended to use the descriptions of the sounds as they appear on the provided International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) charts and address six pronunciation issues. An example is “Student A has trouble saying [θ], so three and tree sound alike.” The chiefly instructional approach adopted in this activity manifests itself in its title, “Pronunciation Clinic”, which promotes the concept of the ‘teacher as a problem-solver’, in multiple explicit references to language learners throughout the activity using the word ‘student(s)’, and in its encouraging a focus on several likely pronunciation challenges a language learner may encounter.

Overall, the above analysis shows the predominance of a ‘language analysis’ orientation in the tutorial activities and preps of the Linguistics unit. In some cases, this obtains to the exclusion of a teaching focus, and in some it pushes this focus into the background. Yet, a few preps and one activity feature a relatively strong pedagogical orientation.

Sociolinguistics.

In the previous section, it was reported that the slides of the Sociolinguistics unit lectures yielded almost no evidence of connections established between teaching ESL and sociolinguistic issues. The tutorial activities and preps also have a purely sociolinguistic focus to the exclusion of a pedagogical aspect.

An example of a tutorial activity is one titled “Socio-cultural encoding”. In this activity, a number of pairs of utterances are presented. The utterances in each pair differ in terms of situation, speaker, and/or audience (e.g., ‘Walk this way, Mr Phelps.’ and ‘Over here, mate.’). Teacher learners are asked to identify how they differ, tell when either of these utterances would be appropriate or inappropriate and why, and identify any words which encode socio-cultural information. Another example from tutorial activities is related to the topic of register. In this activity, a list of discourse markers is provided (e.g., ‘for that matter’, ‘incidentally’, and ‘for one thing’). Teacher learners are asked to decide what register (i.e., spoken, written but informal, and written and formal) each of the discourse markers occurs in. They are also asked to think of a similar discourse marker for a different register.

Similar to tutorial activities, tutorial preps have a solely sociolinguistic focus. One prep, for example, is on pidgins and creoles. It includes a story in Roper River Kriol (a creole spoken in the Northern Territory) together with an English translation. Teacher learners are asked to find and analyse examples of possessive constructions in the text, translate a list of English possessive phrases into Kriol, and analyse examples of possessive construction in the text which do not fit into the grammar rule they developed in their initial analysis. Another example is a prep related to the lecture on language variation. This prep constitutes a data-gathering exercise about lexical variation between varieties of English. Teacher learners are asked to write down the name of the place where they grew up speaking English or learned English. A few pictures of some objects (e.g., a USB stick) are provided in the next section, and teacher learners are asked to say what they would call them in the variety of English they speak. Then, they should find three other people, and write down where they are from (or what variety of English they speak) and their answers to these questions.

The above examples show that the direction taken in the tutorial activities and preps in the Sociolinguistics unit is purely sociolinguistic, as with the lecture slides of the unit.

Assignments and final examinations.

Linguistics.

The Linguistics unit has a major assignment feature an extensive integration of pedagogical and linguistic foci. The assignment consists of two parts. The first part includes two sections both of which feature a combination of language analysis and pedagogy. The first one asks teacher learners to carry out an investigation into their own philosophy of language and grammar instruction. This investigation is directed by two sets of questions that teacher learners should address “from the viewpoint of an ESL teacher, or a teacher of native speakers, whichever is closer to your situation”:

What is grammar, and what is it good for? What kind of language instruction do students need, and why?

What have other people said about the nature of language instruction? Can you find anything in the literature about this?

The second section is an investigation into a grammar issue that might be difficult for ESL learners. Teacher learners must have a topic of their own and give a 5-minute presentation on

it in the form of a straightforward explanation to ESL teachers with accompanying examples. The data for this section must come from teacher learners' own English experience and intuition and the tools discussed in class, rather than ESL grammar websites. The rest of the instruction for this section reads, "The most important thing for this question is: can you generate data, induce a rule from it, and explain it clearly? Show examples, and be specific."

These two sections therefore involve a focus on the grammar instruction component of the 'language teacher' domain. The first one entails teacher learners' general reflection on the kind of grammar instruction ESL learners need, while the second one specifically positions teacher learners as explainers of grammar to their imagined colleagues.

The second part of the assignment consists of six sections three of which teacher learners must address. Three sections in this part feature an integration of linguistic and pedagogical foci. One, titled "The language of classroom instruction", asks teacher learners to observe 10 instances of another teacher giving directives (orders, requests, commands, instructions) to a student or a classroom and answer some questions focusing on the 'language analysis' and 'language teacher' domains of ESL instruction. The former includes questions like "what syntactic form did the utterances have?" and "what kinds of pragmatic categories did the utterances fall into?". The latter consists of the following:

How were the directives received by the students? Were the instructions direct? indirect? ambiguous? confusing? clear?

Would you have given these directives in the same way? How do you tend to get students to do things?

These questions entail teacher learners' reflection on how to give instructions that are pragmatically appropriate.

Another section featuring a dual linguistic and pedagogical focus asks teacher learners to find a prescriptive grammar rule and, using real data from a corpus, investigate whether this rule matches with how language is actually used. In light of this linguistic analysis, they should then write how they would explain the rule to an ESL student, hence imagining themselves in the role of grammar explainers. The other section where linguistic analysis and teaching are combined asks teacher learners to explore the kinds of mistakes machine translation systems make. Based on this investigation, they should explain what kind of language knowledge these

systems have trouble with and why. Then, they should discuss the implications of their findings for language learners.

The other three sections of this part of the assignment appear to have a 'language analysis' focus. One asks teacher learners to collect three examples of indirect speech acts and analyse them in terms of what is implied in each, what evidence suggests the implications, and how each is connected to Grice's maxims. Another one asks teacher learners to analyse the language used by an Internet meme. Based on a corpus of language produced by this meme, they should explain how the language it produces differs from Standard English in terms of grammar. They should use linguistic terms presented in class in their explanation. They should also discuss the pragmatic reasons people have for perpetuating this meme and using language this way. The last section can be generated by teacher learners themselves based on the ideas that they may have developed during the unit and want to investigate "about language".

The final examination of the Linguistics unit shows a similar allocation of space to the 'language analyst' and 'language teacher' domains. It includes seven questions five of which teacher learners must answer. Three of the questions have a dual linguistic-pedagogical focus with the rest entailing linguistic analysis only. One of the questions which integrates linguistic analysis and reflection on teaching presents teacher learners with a question likely to be asked by a student: "What's the difference between silly and foolish?" It then asks teacher learners to write their own response to it by thinking about useful tools such as those discussed in the unit. This way, it positions teacher learners as teachers who use appropriate tools to answer learners' likely language questions. The other question with such a dual focus lists three scenarios describing the pronunciation challenges of three ESL learners from different language backgrounds (e.g., "A speaker of Nepalese says self and shelf the same."). Teacher learners must explain how they would help these learners with natural pronunciation of the sounds, referring to IPA features and specific parts of the human vocal tract, where appropriate. Thus, their response to this question involves them imagining themselves as problem solvers in the ESL classroom. The other question in this category asks teacher learners to explain why DVDs that many parents buy to boost their children's vocabulary and language skills do not build child language, as shown by research. Therefore, it positions teacher learners as critical analysts of language learning resources.

An example of the other questions with a linguistic direction is a news story in which teacher learners should identify any of the listed syntactic structures, such as passive voice, nominalisation, and an infinitival clause. One more example from this category is a question which asks teacher learners to identify and correct errors in an IPA transcribed passage.

The above analysis indicates that the assignment and the final examination of the Linguistics unit allocate a major space to issues related to language pedagogy through a rather extensive integration of linguistic and pedagogical foci.

Sociolinguistics.

The major assignment in the Sociolinguistics unit consists of eight sections four of which teacher learners must fulfil. Half of the sections have purely sociolinguistic foci. The other half incorporate a pedagogical aspect, though minor compared with their sociolinguistic component. An example of the former is one which asks teacher learners to write a description of the speech community in which they live. Their answers should include an explanation of the languages and language varieties used, sociolinguistic variables that are markers of membership in a particular social group, and some data relating to language attitudes. Another example of this category is a section about changes in accents. It asks teacher learners to explore changes in accents over time on Australian broadcasting. To do so, teacher learners should gather a number of clips from now and a similar number of clips from a certain time period in the past. In their analysis, they should find out whether certain sounds and prosodic features (e.g., intonation or stress) seem more present in one time period than in another.

A pedagogical aspect is integrated into language analysis in the other sections. Each of these sections begins with a sociolinguistic focus. At the end, a question is asked about its pedagogical implications. For example, teacher learners are asked to collect 10 examples of compliments in English. Their report should include the exact wording of the compliment, the response, the age, sex, and role of the two participants, whether the compliment causes embarrassment or is misunderstood, whether there is much variation in the wording of the compliments, and how compliments in English compare to those in another language of teacher learners' acquaintance. At the end, they should write what an ESL teacher would need to explain to students about complimenting. Another example is a section which builds on a chart of terms of address for British English in the 1970s. Teacher learners should design their own

chart for Australian English today and justify their choices. Finally, they should discuss the implications this information could have in teaching.

The final examination of the Sociolinguistics unit includes seven questions five of which teacher learners must answer. Five questions entail sociolinguistic analysis only, whereas two have a dual sociolinguistic-pedagogical focus. An example of a question with a sociolinguistic focus is one which presents a newspaper article for teacher learners to analyse for metaphor. They should find three metaphors. They should also explain why they are metaphorical and if there is any cultural knowledge they would need to have in order to understand them. Another sociolinguistically-oriented question provides a list of English words (e.g., cupboard) and asks teacher learners to identify the processes of semantic shift that have taken place with them.

One of the items with a dual sociolinguistic-pedagogical focus presents an item from the Australian language curriculum from the row marked 'Language for social interactions', year 2: "Understand that language varies when people take on different roles in social and classroom interactions and how the use of key interpersonal language resources varies depending on context." It then asks teacher learners how they would explain this concept to students and how they could work this into a lesson plan. Thus, it positions teacher learners as teachers who are conscious of language variation and factor it into their lesson planning. The other question where sociolinguistic and teaching issues have been integrated asks "what is meant by register, and why would it be important for students (either ESL or secondary) to know about it?" It also asks teacher learners to give some suggestions for teaching register in a secondary school class.

The above analysis of the assignment and the final examination of the Sociolinguistics unit show that a limited number of their components incorporate a pedagogical focus, and often this is minor.

Summary.

The above report on the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units shows that these units mainly revolve around the 'language analyst' domain of teaching ESL. They promote a picture of second language teachers equipped with an adequate knowledge of major linguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives on the nature of language and language use, an in-depth understanding of relevant key concepts, and a sound grasp of language analysis procedures. Although the unit outlines, especially that of Linguistics, suggest that the foci of these units are

situated within a broader context of language education, this broader context is missing from most of the data. In the Linguistics unit, where connections to language teaching are established, it is often limited to a focus on the role of imparting linguistic knowledge to learners, such as explaining grammar rules and syntax-related terms to learners, explaining vocabulary, and answering learners' language questions. A few other teacher roles receive brief and occasional attention, such as giving pragmatically appropriate classroom instructions and helping students overcome pronunciation challenges.

The Sociolinguistics unit includes far weaker connections to the 'language teacher' domain. Concepts which are discussed in relation to this domain are register, language variation, complimenting, and terms of address. The focus on these topics from a pedagogical perspective is distinctly brief. What further pushes the 'language teacher' domain to the background is that almost all instances of a pedagogical focus take place in the assignment and final examination. The assignment, given its out-of-class and individual nature, is highly unlikely to become a focus of reflection and collaboration in the classroom. Individual teacher learners' engagement with this assignment and Winston's written feedback are probably the sole learning opportunities it makes available. The final examination has a solely evaluative purpose, hence its limited learning benefits.

To sum up, the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units provide a limited space for identity negotiation as relating to the 'language teacher' domain of teaching ESL. Having the 'language analyst' domain as their major focus is justified on the grounds of the content areas they cover. However, the way this domain is presented seems to be problematic. It is difficult, and in many cases impossible, to detect attempts made to put this domain within the wider language educational context of the course that these units are part of. It is as though language analysis is promoted and facilitated for the sake of language analysis, rather than for more effective teaching of ESL. This approach would make total sense in a linguistics, or similar, course, but in a TESOL course, the wider applied linguistic context needs to be established, something that the analysed documents do not suggest is fulfilled.

Fostering Engagement with Teaching Practice

While the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units focus on the 'language analyst' domain of teaching L2, the 'ESL teaching methodology' and 'Teaching ESL skills' units focus on the

'language teacher' domain. To explore opportunities afforded by the 'ESL teaching methodology' and 'Teaching ESL skills' for engagement with teaching practice, this section reports on the analysis of different components of the documents related to these units. These components consist of unit outlines, lecture slides, tutorial activities and preps, assignments (no final examinations), and ESL activities which Winston asks teacher learners to do, so that they gain a learner perspective into the process of learning a second language.

Since the lecture slides, the tutorial activities and preps, and the ESL activities together inform teacher learners' learning during the lectures, they are reported under one heading, 'Lectures'. This enables the researcher to present a more comprehensive picture of the potential within the lectures for facilitating teacher learners' engagement with teaching practice. For easier presentation and understanding, the 'ESL teaching methodology' unit and the 'Teaching ESL skills' unit are referred to as the Methodology unit and the Skills unit respectively.

Unit outlines.

Teaching ESL skills.

Given its major focus on different aspects of classroom teaching practice, the Skills unit appears to have a strongly practical orientation. This is well reflected in its description which states that the unit focuses on strategies for teaching the four language skills, applies methods of implementing the teaching of these skills to the different contexts in which ESL is taught, and examines the use of language teaching and learning materials in these settings. The description also mentions that the unit focuses on how to plan lessons and introduces techniques and resources for facilitating learner participation and managing learning processes in the ESL classroom. Most of the unit outcomes reflect a focus on the development of teaching skills. Some examples are:

- devise strategies for teaching, developing and assessing all levels of the four language macro skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing)
- undertake a needs analysis of an unfamiliar group of learners
- devise and conduct a teaching program for such learners, recording progress in the areas identified

A few show an emphasis on knowledge of teaching, such as “develop an awareness of computer-assisted language learning in the ELT classroom” and “demonstrate an understanding of the significance of appropriate educational technology in ELT classrooms for the enhancement of language learning”.

Similarly suggesting a more or less practical approach to classroom teaching, the unit content areas are “the lesson plan”, “materials analysis”, “the four skills”, and “form-focused teaching”.

ESL teaching methodology.

Different parts of the outline of the Methodology unit suggest a focus on teaching practice, while not as strong as in the Skills unit. At the beginning of the unit description, it is mentioned that the general focus of the unit is on the characteristics and learning needs of ESL learners and the nature of language acquisition. It proceeds to highlight a focus on “the *application* of different language syllabuses and outcomes-based approaches to address the diversity of learning styles” (emphasis added). In the unit outcomes section, some of the listed outcomes are related to knowledge of teaching ESL, some mainly deal with practical teaching skills, and most display a focus on both. An example of a knowledge-focused one is to “recognise and articulate the relationship between first and second language acquisition”. A teaching skills-related one is to “devise an appropriate teaching and learning program to meet the needs of a particular group of ESL learners”. An example of an outcome with both foci is to “define language proficiency and determine appropriate ways of assessing and recording language progress and proficiency”. One more example is to “outline the principal learning, language learning, and language teaching theories and relate these to the practice of various methods and approaches to language teaching”. The unit content section presents the areas examined in the unit. The listed areas suggest a stronger focus on knowledge than on teaching skills. The areas are as follows.

- First and second language acquisition theory;
- Approaches to language teaching and learning;
- The nature of language proficiency and proficiency assessment;
- The characteristics and needs of the second language learner; and
- Syllabus types and planning.

The Graduate Attributes section in the outlines of the two unit list the same items as those listed in the Linguistics unit which, as mentioned above, are too general to be analysable. The information provided in the other potentially relevant sections of the outlines, namely ‘Semester plan’ (the foci of the weekly lectures and relevant readings), and ‘Readings and course materials’ is similarly too limited to be analysable.

Lectures.

As previously mentioned, the documents of the Methodology and Skills units were analysed with a view to exploring the opportunities they afford for engagement with teaching practice. Therefore, this section integrates the analysis of the lecture slides, the tutorial activities and preps, and the ESL activities. The analysis of the lecture slides yielded three major constituents for each session, namely presentations, discussions, and individual/group tasks. In this section, presentations and discussions are analysed under separate headings, whereas the tasks are focused on together with the tutorial activities, the tutorial preps, and the ESL activities because they have a similar nature. Finally, since the analysis of these documents yielded highly similar directions across the two units, the documents of these units are reported together and any significant differences are highlighted.

Presentations.

In the slides with a mainly presentational nature, concepts and details relevant to the topic of each lecture are often presented in the conventional form of dot points with selective reference to the literature. These slides include components which speak to their potential for establishing connection with teaching practice. These components are examples of classroom practice, practical guidelines and tips relating to teaching, and resources which can help teacher learners with their teaching practice.

Many slides include examples, including Winston’s own, of classroom practice relevant to the topic of focus. In the Skills unit, for instance, the session on lesson planning includes Winston’s own lesson plan for that very session. Other examples include a sample of teacher feedback on student writing, examples of language games, word building exercises, and word maps, and classroom conversations which exemplify presented concepts, such as scaffolding in group work and a form-focused communicative practice exercise. The lecture slides of the

Methodology unit do not include more than a few briefly reported examples, like a short excerpt showing the foci of a lexical syllabus.

What further makes many presentational slides potentially conducive to teacher learners' engagement with teaching practice is provision of highly practical guidelines and tips relating to different aspects of teaching. Some examples from the Skills unit are a detailed presentation of the steps of lesson planning, guidelines about how to use tools of alternative assessment (e.g., portfolios, journals, and conferencing), tips for helping unconfident speakers, and suggestions for error correction. Examples from the Methodology unit are tips on how to handle a mixed-ability class, guidelines for conducting group activities, and suggestions on effective teacher talk in a beginner-level class.

Some of the lectures also introduce resources which can help teacher learners with their teaching practice while they are mainly presented as tools of language analysis. In the Skills unit, the session on teacher development introduces resources such as blogs, podcasts, websites, and journals in applied linguistics and TESOL. These resources are more 'about language', as Winston has titled them, than related to language instruction. The lecture on reading and vocabulary introduces resources with similarly language analytical uses, such as corpus tools, (e.g., Word and Phrase Info), as well as language learning tools, like online dictionaries, though yet in a context of language analysis. A search for teaching practice resources in the Methodology unit yielded no results. Teacher learners are solely presented with the core readings of the unit and further relevant readings from the literature. These readings have a more academic than a practitioner-oriented nature. Thus, they cannot be considered teacher resources as such.

Discussions.

The slides of most lectures in both units show that significant space is allocated to group and class discussions. Prompts used to generate discussion are of different types and are brought to the class by either Winston or teacher learners. These prompts, and by extension the discussions they generate, involve a teaching practice focus. In the Skills unit, for example, the session on classroom interaction includes a video of a teacher's teaching performance as part of its focus on teaching styles and teacher question types. After watching the video, teacher learners should discuss the kinds of questions the teacher asks, her teaching style, her classroom language, and the balance between teacher talk and student talk. Another type of prompt is excerpts from the

literature, including the unit readings, which stimulate reflection on classroom teaching practice. The session on scaffolding, for instance, asks teacher learners to read a classroom interaction reproduced in the core reading of the unit, Brown (2007), and in pairs discuss and write down their answers to the following questions (the slide format has been maintained):

- What is the task?
- Is this a task that the learners can already do?
- Would you consider it to be high or low challenge for these particular learners?
- How does the teacher scaffold the learners to achieve the task?
- What types of questions does the teacher ask?
 - IRF? Open?
- Does the teacher provide high or low support?
- In which zone (Mariani, 1997 cited in Michell & Sharpe, 2005) would you place this task & the accompanying support? Where would you place the task on Cummin's (1984) model?

In the session on assessment, another type of discussion prompt is used, namely ESL tests, which teacher learners should retrieve from their own resources as teachers or the Internet. Then, they should evaluate them in terms of their practicality, reliability, validity, authenticity, and washback potential. Several slides also include scenarios to generate discussion. The session on reading and vocabulary, for instance, provides a number of scenarios and asks teacher learners which of them they do and which they would like to try. Two examples of the scenarios are "Teacher reads while students follow in book" and "Students read passage silently while listening to a recording of the text." The most frequently used type of discussion prompt is comprised of questions which encourage reflection on past or current experiences relevant to teaching. An early slide in the session on assessment, for example, presents some questions to stimulate a discussion, such as "How do you typically assess students? Or if you don't currently assess students, how do you plan to?" and "Think about a test you have taken. Do you think it was valid? Why or why not? Was it a learning experience?"

Another example comes from the session on lesson planning. Early in this session, teacher learners are asked to talk about their own lesson planning style, based on the questions "What do you do when you plan a lesson?" and "Should we plan? To what extent?" One more example

worth mentioning here is a discussion in the session on interaction with an explicit focus on teacher identity. This discussion follows a presentation on different teacher types (e.g., controller, manager, participant, and resource). Teacher learners are asked “Which type are you?”, “Which type would you like to work toward?”, and “Something else? Design your own metaphor!”

A similar range and variety feature the discussion prompts used in the lecture slides of the Methodology unit. There are various instances of discussion questions which stimulate teacher learners’ reflection on their own relevant experiences. The session on classroom management, for example, includes a focus on teacher talk, where teacher learners are asked, “How do you speak to students? How loud? How slow? How much?” In the lecture on needs analysis, teacher learners are asked the following questions.

1. How are you currently finding out what your students need? Or, how would you?
2. What kind of needs do you typically try to cater to or anticipate?
3. What age are your learners? What needs are typical of that age?
4. When reading the Brindley article, did you notice any needs you’re not currently handling? How might you stretch to those?

Similarly serving as discussion stimuli are questions which explore teacher learners’ ideas and perceptions about the topics of focus. An example can be found in the session on motivation and learning styles. Teacher learners are asked to share their ideas about how they can help learners improve their cross-cultural understanding. The discussion is directed by questions such as “How can you use materials which promote cross-cultural understanding or provide an opportunity to discuss cultural issues?” and “How can you find opportunities to discuss the learners’ own experiences, attitudes, impressions of classes/activities and broader life issues?”

Unit readings are also used in many lectures to initiate discussions. The typical format in which this happens is that after the presentation of relevant concepts or research findings from the readings, teacher learners are asked to share their opinions. For instance, in the lecture on the principles of language teaching, after a presentation of these principles from H. D. Brown (2007), teacher learners are asked to discuss which three they feel are among the most important. Then they are also asked to share any experiences they have had with these principles in their own teaching.

The session on classroom management includes scenarios of likely situations in the ESL classroom to which teacher learners should offer solutions. These range from brief descriptions, such as “a good discussion, but off the track” and “disruptions”, to detailed accounts, like the following.

Most of the time, your students are happy to practice in English. But every once in a while, you notice that a few of the students are using their L1 to each other. It seems to be happening more and more lately.

You knew there were going to be a lot of students in your class, but you weren't prepared for forty-six. Should you switch to a traditional lecture format? Or is there a way to make group work happen, even in a large group?

Other types of discussion prompts include a checklist of motivating techniques for teacher learners to discuss which they have used or could use in their teaching and an online language learning platform which teacher learners should examine in terms of its effectiveness.

The above report shows that there are multiple opportunities for classroom discussions in the two units. These discussions are facilitated by different types of prompts, such as questions exploring teacher learners' experiences and ideas, scenarios of classroom situations, videos, unit readings, excerpts of classroom interaction, ESL tests, and checklists. Discussions generated by these prompts have the potential to foster teacher learners' engagement with practical aspects of teaching.

Tasks.

In this section, the tasks incorporated into the lecture slides are discussed first, followed by a report on the tutorial activities and preps. A focus on the ESL activities concludes the section.

The lecture slides show that tasks of various types have been incorporated into most of the sessions of the two units. Two examples from each of the units are reported in detail. In the Skills unit, the session on materials analysis includes a task where teacher learners should examine materials in pairs. They decide on their classroom audience and their approach to teaching. Then, they choose a resource and make notes about its suitability, taking into consideration students' needs and their own theoretical perspective. Next, they select an activity for their target group and think about whether they want to use it in its current format or adapt it. Finally, they evaluate their activity against the criteria proposed by H. D. Brown

(2007, p. 192). In a discussion phase following the task, pairs report to the class. Another example comes from the session titled “Integrating the four skills”. In this task, which appears towards the end of the session, teacher learners are asked to think of an activity they have used in an ESL classroom or one they have had as a student of language. They should describe their activity, explain what skills it used, and make suggestions about how they could modify it or extend it so that it incorporates more skills.

An example from the Methodology unit comes from the lecture on syllabus design. Teacher learners should plan four weeks of a language teaching program. The steps they should take are:

- decide on their audience, goals, and teaching situation first
- decide on a kind of syllabus
- choose grammar points, language functions, language skills, and language use situations from a handout
- sequence them, and provide a rationale for their sequencing
- compare their designs with the others’
- adapt and improve them

Another sample of classroom task is in the needs analysis lecture. An audio-recorded interview with a language learner is played, and teacher learners are asked to analyse the speaker’s needs along the various axes proposed by Brindley (1989).

In addition to the tasks included in the lecture slides, the several tutorial activities and preps incorporated into each of the two units provide other avenues for teacher learners’ engagement with the practical aspects of teaching. An example of a tutorial activity in the Skills unit is one on writing feedback. Teacher learners are given three writing samples from ESL learners at different proficiency levels and are asked to give feedback on grammar, vocabulary, and other aspects of their language use. A tutorial prep in this unit is related to teaching listening. Teacher learners should find two ESL listening activities, which can be activities they have used, have found, or may like to try. They should do as follows (this section of the prep is reproduced in its original format):

Step 1: Describe the activities.

What happens in the activity? What materials are used? What is the aim of the activity? About how long would it take?

Step 2: Principles

Take a look at Brown's Principles for Teaching Listening Skills on page 310–12. Do your activities fit in with any of those principles? Which principles seem most relevant to your activities?

Step 3: Techniques

Now have a look at Brown's list of Listening Techniques from Beginning to Advanced on page 313–17. Do your activities fit under any of these goals?

The tutorial activities and preps in the Methodology unit are similarly varied but of a broader and less classroom-focused nature than those in the Skills unit. For example, the activity related to the session on language learning includes self-reflection questions, such as “Have you ever learned a language? What was that like?” and “What do you remember about the teacher? activities? your own progress?”. Another example is the prep related to the session on ESL teaching methods. Including a list of these methods, it asks teacher learners to answer questions like “What happens in this method? How is it different from other methods?” and “In your opinion, is this method effective (at least in part)? What's good and not-so-good about it? What would you incorporate in your teaching?” One more example is a prep related to the lecture on principles of ESL teaching. Asking teacher learners to read an assigned paper, it presents the major points of the article in one column of a table. Teacher learners should write how they would apply these principles in the classroom in the other column. They are also asked to examine the listed principles through showing which they agree or disagree with and explaining why.

The other group of activities worth discussing here are the diverse types of ESL activities included in both units. These are samples of activities assigned to language learners in a typical ESL classroom. Thus, they afford teacher learners, especially those who have not attempted to learn another language, the direct experience of language learning and an insider/learner perspective into the process of learning a second language. An example of these activities is on word formation. A list of prefixes, their meanings, and example words is given, followed by an exercise which consists of incomplete sentences. Based on the information in the sentences, teacher learners should form new words using the prefixes. A skim reading activity asks teacher

learners to write the morale of a number of short fables. Another activity asks teacher learners to number listed requests in order of politeness. Other activities focus on other language aspects such as pronunciation, grammar, and proverbs.

The above analysis shows that both units include various activities which facilitate teacher learners' engagement with different aspects of teaching and learning ESL. Those in the Methodology unit, though, are of a broader nature and less directly related to the practical aspects of teaching than those in the Skills unit.

Assignments.

The Skills unit contains two assignments. The first one involves analysis of language teaching and learning materials. First, teacher learners identify an ESL or EFL learning situation and provide information such as the learners' age, level, goals, and interests. Then they make predictions about how these factors would impact their English learning. Using the materials evaluation tools covered in the unit and those from their own experience and reading, teacher learners develop criteria for evaluating materials in this situation. Then they select a unit from an English language course book suitable for the target learners and examine them using the developed criteria. Finally, they discuss how appropriate the materials are and how they may need to be modified or supplemented to meet their target learners' needs. The second assignment focuses on teaching techniques. Teacher learners select a technique and explain why it would be useful to ESL teachers. Then, they describe the technique and explain how it could be used to teach at least one macro skill for a particular group of students. Next, they create a lesson plan illustrating the use of the technique. Finally, they should explain why their lesson plan is representative of the technique. Literature should be used as appropriate.

The Methodology unit similarly includes two assignments. The first one requires teacher learners to undertake a needs analysis of an ESL learner, who could be one of their current students if they are teaching ESL. They collect written and/or spoken language data from their participants, determine their proficiency level, identify their language learning context, goals, and needs, predict how these may impact their learning, and make suggestions for future teaching and learning for them based on the analysis and relevant readings. The second assignment asks teacher learners to develop a suitable language teaching unit of work using a suitable syllabus for a group of students with similar needs to their student from the first assignment. They should first justify why they selected this syllabus type. In their unit of work,

they state overall goals of the syllabus, objectives of lessons, and types of materials, activities, teaching methodologies, and assessments. They also explain the sequencing of lessons and activities. In the third section, they justify how the unit of work represents the selected syllabus. Finally, they anticipate problems and difficulties that may arise in teaching and how they will deal with them.

The assignments in both units foster teacher learners' direct engagement with different aspects of teaching practice. Specifically, they involve teacher learners in examining language teaching and learning materials, planning lessons, needs analysis, and syllabus design.

Summary.

The above analysis shows that the Skills and Methodology units provide a significant space for teacher learners' engagement with some aspects of teaching. The presentation sections of the lectures present examples of classroom practice, practical guidelines and tips on teaching, and relevant resources for teachers. There are numerous opportunities for classroom discussions initiated by a variety of prompts, such as videos, scenarios of likely classroom situations, excerpts of classroom conversations, and questions exploring teacher learners' ideas and relevant experiences. Diverse types of activities have been incorporated into the lectures, fostering engagement with different phases of teaching ESL, such as planning language teaching programs, materials analysis, and materials modification. There are also a variety of ESL activities which enable teacher learners to gain a language learner perspective on the process of language learning. The assignments provide further experience with the practice of teaching as they engage teacher learners in materials evaluation, lesson planning, needs analysis, and syllabus design.

The major difference between the two units is the more practically oriented and classroom-focused approach adopted in the Skills unit. It provides more examples of classroom practice and introduces more teaching resources. Its tutorial activities and preps also are more specifically and explicitly related to classroom teaching practice. While it is hard to deny that the Methodology unit could have more effectively engaged teacher learners with different aspects of teaching practice, this difference in the extent of a practical focus could be a result of the differences between the contents and topics of this unit and those of the Skills unit. As explained in the unit outlines section, the Skills unit covers topics which bear explicit connections to the process of classroom teaching, like teaching the language macro skills and

components, facilitating classroom interaction, and planning lessons. Also, it has a major focus on teaching skills and strategies, with some emphasis on knowledge of teaching. However, the analysis of the Methodology unit outline and other documents shows a stronger focus on the pedagogical knowledgebase than teaching skills. Most of its content deals with broad aspects of language teaching and learning, such as curriculum design, language teaching principles, and second language acquisition. Some provide a historical perspective, like the development of different language teaching methods and the emergence of different language learning theories. A few, like needs analysis and classroom management, bear more immediate relevance to classroom practice. As shown in the foregoing analysis, the lectures on these topics happen to contribute most of the evidence of the unit's success in engaging teacher learners with teaching practice.

Discussion

In this section, the results of the document analysis reported above are discussed. The identified instances of a focus on teaching in the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units and the findings related to the potential of the Skills and Methodology units for teacher learners' engagement with teaching practice are investigated from a Communities of Practice perspective (Wenger, 1998). Specifically, the potential space and constraints of the TESOL Grad Cert are explored regarding teacher learners' experience of identification through engagement, alignment, and imagination within a context of negotiability.

The above document analysis suggests that engagement in the sense of mutual involvement in meaning negotiation as relating to teaching is facilitated through different types of opportunities provided by the course. The analysis of the Methodology and Skills units shows that there are numerous opportunities for discussion created by a variety of prompts. For example, discussion questions which encourage teacher learners to share their ideas and perceptions with the class facilitate multiplicity of perspectives, which Wenger (1998) considers to be a key dimension of engagement as a mode of identification. Discussions which involve teacher learners sharing their own experiences as language teachers, language learners, and language users pave the way for their membership in multiple communities to be acknowledged and to inform the process of meaning negotiation. Given that identity involves 'a nexus of multimembership' (Wenger, 1998, 2010), drawing upon teacher learners' experience of membership in multiple communities enriches their identity formation. Since the

analysis of the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units was aimed at identifying their potential for integrating a teaching focus, it did not involve an investigation of opportunities for classroom discussion. Yet, in the interest of presenting a picture of the entire course, it should be noted here, though briefly, that the lecture slides of these two units include several instances of discussion opportunities, as do those of the Skills and Methodology units. The many instances of classroom tasks and tutorial activities in all units show further chances for teacher learners' collaborative reflection and sharing of ideas and experiences. The tutorial preps are of an individual nature. However, the lecture slides show that some of them become the focus of discussion in the classroom, hence an additional opportunity for teacher learners' involvement in mutual processes of meaning negotiation.

In addition to the documented contributions of collaboration to teacher growth in general (Butler et al., 2004; Musanti & Pence, 2010), the literature specifically shows that collaboration fosters teacher identity development. For example, Dang (2013) who studied teachers' peer collaboration in paired-placements reported the participants' interactions to have informed their negotiation of multiple roles as students, colleagues, and (future) teachers. As another example, Farrell (2011) reported that a group of experienced teachers' participation in group meetings facilitated their collaborative reflections on their professional roles. The author argued that these collaborative experiences would raise teachers' awareness of how their identities are shaped and by whom and how they can reconstruct them during their careers. Similar findings were reported by Delahunty (2012) whose participants' engagement in online discussion forums informed their identity formation.

The document analysis showed the potential of discussions and activities to foster teacher learners' direct engagement with different aspects of teaching practice. For example, teacher learners gain the experience of directly working with ESL materials in the tasks and discussions where they should analyse teaching techniques or develop lessons. Also, they get to directly engage with their classmates, who are their potential colleagues. In addition to collaborative tasks in the classroom, a few other opportunities facilitate teacher learners' engagement with other teachers. An example from the Skills unit mentioned in the above analysis is watching a video of a teacher's teaching performance and analysing her teaching style and question types. Another example is an optional item in the assignment of the Linguistics unit which asks teacher learners to observe 10 instances of another teacher giving directives. The course, however, does not provide adequate opportunities for direct engagement with language

learners, who the course participants would interact with most extensively as teachers. Obviously, lack of a practicum component in graduate certificates explains this gap. Yet, there are instances of opportunities provided in the course for such engagement. It was reported above that in the lecture on needs analysis in the Methodology unit, teacher learners listen to an audio-recorded interview with a language learner and analyse her needs. In an assignment in the same unit, teacher learners undertake a needs analysis of an ESL learner, who could be one of their current students if they are teaching ESL. These instances, although they are few and because they are few, suggest that the course could provide more space for teacher learners' direct engagement with ESL learners and therefore compensate, though at best partially, for the absence of practicum.

The significance of engagement with learners to teacher identity formation has been recurrently highlighted in the literature, especially in the reports on teacher identity development within the context of practicum. Among the studies with an explicit focus on this aspect of the teacher learning process are Kanno and Stuart (2011) and Henry (2016). Kanno and Stuart (2011) reported that their participants' identity development was informed by changes they made in several aspects of their interactions with their students, such as acting more firmly in class, holding students more accountable for their learning, not viewing students' performance as necessarily reflecting their own worth as teachers, and, on the negative side, noticing more faults with the students. Henry (2016) reported his single participant's identity shifts in terms of her constant foregrounding and backgrounding of two mutually contradictory positions, namely "an extra person but not a teacher" and "someone who wants to work with and help young people", as she experienced direct interaction with learners during a practicum. Given the significance of engagement with students to teacher identity formation documented in these and other studies, lack of a practicum component in the TESOL Grad Cert is unfortunate, yet the limited opportunities reported above for such engagement in this course are to be considered as a potential space for identity negotiation.

Another mode through which participants in the TESOL Grad Cert can negotiate their identities is imagination. Although, as just mentioned, there is very limited direct engagement with ESL learners, the course offers considerable opportunities for teacher learners' imagination work as relating to learner-related issues. It does so in several ways. The ESL activities in the Methodology and Skills units foster teacher learners' imagination of what it is like to learn a second language. Such imagination work is especially important for the majority of a typical

Grad Cert TESOL cohort who are native speakers of English and may not have attempted to learn a second language at all. Scenarios of a variety of likely situations that an ESL teacher may encounter also constitute a space for imagination. Two examples reported in the analysis were descriptions of classroom situations which present classroom management challenges in the Methodology unit and examples of pronunciation challenges that learners from different LOTE backgrounds are faced with in the Linguistics unit. Teacher learners are asked to think of ways to address these challenges. Further opportunities for imagination are opened up where teacher learners are asked to anticipate problems related to teaching. In an assignment in the Linguistics unit, for example, after developing a language teaching unit of work, teacher learners should anticipate problems and difficulties that may arise in implementing their unit of work and how they will deal with them. In the needs analysis lecture of the Methodology unit, while teacher learners who are currently teachers are asked to share their lived experiences, teacher learners who lack the experience are asked how they would identify their students' needs and what kinds of needs they anticipate that their learners may have. Other instances of the course fostering teacher learners' imagination work are presenting them with learners' likely language questions and asking them to reflect on how they would respond to them, as in the Linguistics unit, or simply asking teacher learners to reflect on pedagogical implications of linguistic and sociolinguistic topics in the relevant units.

There are a few accounts in the literature of teachers' identity construction through engaging in imagination in programs of teacher education. Connecting past and future in their present reflections on their professional roles, the student teachers in Trent (2011) engaged in recalling their own school teachers who had inspired them to become teachers and imagining themselves inspiring their students in the future. Morton and Gray (2010) reported their participants' imagination work in lesson planning conferences as they presented proposals for action and imagined possible effects of these actions in the classroom. As valuable as this imagination process is, the literature also highlights how teachers' encounter with realities of teaching challenges their imagined identities. This was experienced by Trent's (2012) student teachers whose simultaneous fulfilment of a research assignment and practicum led them to adopt the identity of 'full-time teachers' more readily than that of 'teacher-researchers'. The participants in Xu's (2013) study who graduated with the identities of "language expert, learning facilitator, [and] spiritual guide" mostly shifted towards those of "language attrition sufferer, routine performer, [and] problem analyzer" (p. 572) during the first four years of teaching. These observations once again show the significant impact of teaching practice on teacher identity

formation. Thus, while celebrating the opportunities afforded in the TESOL Grad Cert for imagination work, lack of a space for practical teaching experience still limits TLs' identity development. The course also gives teacher learners multiple opportunities to practice alignment. Their experience with alignment takes place in both senses of conforming to the established knowledgebase and examining and adapting it in light of their own experiences and observations, the processes which Wenger (1998) refers to as "fit[ting] within broader structures and contribut[ing] to broader enterprises" (p. 174) respectively. Like every typical academic course, readings from the literature in the TESOL Grad Cert present teacher learners with the established knowledgebase in the discipline that they should acquire. The documents include evidence of Winston's explicit attempts to draw teacher learners' attention to this knowledgebase and encourage them to use it as a basis for evaluating their own beliefs, ideas, and practice. A task in the session on materials analysis in the Skills unit is an example. Teacher learners decide on a target learner group and select and, if necessary, adapt an activity for their group. Finally, they evaluate their activity against the criteria proposed by H. D. Brown (2007). Another example is the needs analysis task in the Methodology unit, where teacher learners are asked to analyse the interviewed language learner's needs along the various axes proposed by Brindley (1989). Instances of drawing teacher learners' attention to teacher roles and responsibilities included in the curriculum constitute another set of measures to foster alignment.

The abovementioned tasks and instances of a focus on the curriculum appear to be mostly aimed at encouraging teacher learners to conform to the established knowledgebase, or, in Wenger's terms, to "fit within broader structures" (Wenger, 1998, p. 174). There are also examples of fostering teacher learners' experience of alignment in the sense of examining how current knowledge fits their own experiences and observations. The tutorial prep related to teaching listening in the Skills unit is an example. Teacher learners should find two ESL listening activities, which they may have used, have found, or like to try. Then they should decide which of the principles that H. D. Brown (2007) has proposed for teaching listening are most relevant to their activities. In the Methodology unit, the prep related to the session on ESL teaching methods asks teacher learners to evaluate the effectiveness of each method, identify its advantages and limitations, and explain what parts of which methods they would incorporate in their teaching. Finally, the prep related to the lecture on ESL teaching principles asks teacher learners to first write how they would apply the principles proposed in an assigned paper in

their classroom teaching, and then examine the principles by showing which they agree or disagree with and explaining why.

These examples highlight the potential of the course for identity formation through alignment as there appears to be an interaction between the established knowledgebase, which Wenger refers to as “competence”, and teacher learners’ experiences. While teacher learners are asked to evaluate their ideas and analyses using principles and criteria proposed in the literature, they are also encouraged to examine these criteria and principles against their own experiences and observations. This process of meaning negotiation where “experience and competence pull each other” (Wenger, 1998, p. 203) facilitates identity formation in the sense of “a realignment of experience and competence” (p. 227). The literature includes reports on TLs’ practice of alignment with established theories and practices of TESOL (M. Clarke, 2008; Morton & Gray, 2010; Trent, 2010c), the teacher education content (Burri et al., 2017), and institutional requirements (Trent & Shroff, 2013) as informing their identity negotiation. Yet, they have exclusively focused on TLs’ aligning their own beliefs and practices with the dominant discourse, unlike the identified potential of the TESOL Grad Cert in also encouraging TLs’ aligning the established knowledgebase in TESOL with their own personal experiences.

Finally, the documents suggest that several aspects of the units are conducive to an atmosphere of negotiability within the course which, together with the above three modes of identification, constitute the process of identity formation (Wenger, 1998). A variety of measures which show the potential of the course to facilitate teacher learners’ control over and ownership of experiences and meanings are reflected in the documents. These, which have already been discussed as part of the focus on the identification modes, are, briefly, numerous instances of opportunities for collaborative reflection and discussion, joint fulfilment of classroom activities, and encouraging examination of the established knowledgebase based on personal experiences and observations.

This discussion shows that all four units provide an atmosphere of negotiability for teacher learners’ identity formation through the three modes of engagement, imagination, and alignment. However, two major limitations were also identified in the potential of the units for fostering identity development. One, which was briefly mentioned above, is lack of engagement with language learners in the units. The other one, which was explained in the analysis of the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units was a largely decontextualised treatment

of the 'language analyst' dimension of teaching ESL to the exclusion of the 'language teacher' domain. These are further discussed here.

As mentioned above, the documents of the Skills and Methodology units show little direct engagement with learners. This lack of engagement would serve as a major constraint on course participants' identity construction because learners are those who they would interact with most extensively as teachers. Although the units provide multiple opportunities for teacher learners' imagination work as relating to their future interactions with and responsibilities to language learners, imagination cannot serve as an adequate alternative to engagement. Wenger (1998) considers engagement the most important mode of identification as well as a strong basis for imagination work to be grounded in real-life experiences and situations. As mentioned earlier, the lack of engagement, the researcher believes, is mostly a consequence of the structure of Graduate Certificate of Education courses in Australia which excludes a practicum component. Fundamental importance has been attached to the professional development and identity negotiation experiences L2 teacher learners gain through taking part in practicum placements (Henry, 2016; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016; Trent, 2013). Thus, lack of a practicum component poses significant limitations on the learning and identity development of teacher learners, even those who have taught in other subject areas. Given that currently adding such a component to a Graduate Certificate of Education is considered logistically impossible, teacher educators may, at least, be able to incorporate tutorial activities, preps, and assignments which encourage, if not require, further direct interaction of participants with language learners. Some attempts on the part of Winston were identified in some of the units in the TESOL Grad Cert, but there may be more room available for encouraging and fostering participants' direct engagement with learners.

The other limitation is the largely decontextualised focus on the 'language analyst' dimension of teaching ESL to the exclusion of the 'language teacher' domain in the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units. The analysis of the documents related to these units showed that the experience of identity negotiation in these units is mostly afforded for the 'language analyst' domain of teaching ESL, which more often than not lacks the wider context of teaching ESL. This shows inadequate integration of these units and the pedagogical units. A possible consequence of this is teacher learners struggling to identify connections between the 'language analyst' and 'language teacher' domains of their professional identities. In other words, the knowledge about language that they gain in the linguistic units may remain at a declarative

level and not necessarily become procedural in the sense of pedagogical applicability (Andrews, 2007a).

While the literature on language teacher education acknowledges that “knowledge of how language is structured, acquired, and used remains fundamental to our understanding of language learning and the activity of language teaching” (K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2002, p. 8), it encourages teacher educators to adopt “an applied linguistics perspective” (Grabe, Stoller, & Tardy, 2000, p. 178) and not lose sight of the wider pedagogical focus of the profession (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; LaFond & Dogancay-Aktuna, 2009) and its sociocultural context (Crookes, 1997; Holliday, 1997). The negative picture that Govardhan et al. (1999) portrayed of many graduate courses of TESOL in the USA around two decades ago seem to hold more or less true about the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units of the TESOL Grad Cert. They believe that these courses are characterised by “an overinfusion of elements of linguistic theory only remotely relevant to language pedagogy” (pp. 121–122).

The little space allocated in the TESOL Grad Cert to establishing the relevance of linguistic theory to language pedagogy was also reflected in the interviews reported in the previous chapter which showed that some of the TLs had found the content of the Linguistic unit demanding and challenging and any positive remarks they made about this content was only vaguely related to their professional development as teachers. This study does not include data related to the participants’ teaching practice which would help identify any negative impact of the focus on declarative language knowledge on their development as teachers. Yet, other studies have reported that failure to integrate the linguistic and pedagogical aspects of teaching L2 in programs of teacher education may result in TLs’ little recognition of connections between these two aspects (Cots & Arnó, 2005) and limited use of their knowledge about language in their teaching practice (Popko, 2005). Exploring the positive outcomes of a combined focus on the ‘language analysis’ and ‘language teacher’ domains in teacher education, other researchers have reported TLs’ increased knowledge of teaching strategies and materials development, effective transfer of linguistic knowledge to their teaching practice, and a growth in their self-confidence (Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Chappell & Moore, 2012; Riegelhaupt & Carrasco, 2005; Yates & Wigglesworth, 2005).

This chapter reported on the analysis of the documents related to the four units offered in the TESOL Grad Cert course. It was discussed that these units afford multiple opportunities for teacher identity information through engagement, imagination, and alignment within a context of negotiability. It was also argued that the course may pose limitations on the process of identity development as it mostly fails to establish connections between the 'language analyst' and 'language teacher' domains of ESL teaching and, to a lesser degree, foster participants' direct engagement with the practice of teaching, especially direct interaction with language learners.

CHAPTER 10

FINAL DISCUSSION

Overview

The present dissertation consists of five studies based on three datasets, namely classroom conversations, interviews with teacher learners, and course documents. While classroom conversations were examined and discussed in three separate chapters, the other two datasets were each focused on in one chapter. Each of these components included both a report on the analysis of the data and a discussion of the findings using Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) and the related literature. The present chapter integrates these findings and discussions in order to answer the following overarching research questions.

1. How do teacher learners negotiate their teacher identities in a TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education?
2. How is teacher identity negotiation fostered or hindered in the TESOL Graduate Certificate of Education?

Given the multi-faceted nature of this research project, first a summary of the findings of each of the studies is presented. As a further preliminary step to portray a big-picture understanding of the research, the types of negotiated identities which were identified in the studies are reviewed. The next section involves an integrated focus on the above research questions. How teacher learners negotiate their identities and how this process is fostered or hindered in the TESOL Grad Cert are discussed as guided by Communities of Practice, in which Wenger (1998, 2000) conceptualises identity formation as a dual process of identification and negotiability, and enriched by the relevant literature. In this section, as in the foregoing qualitative studies, the unique nature of each dataset has been factored into how the insights gained from it are reported. Specifically, care is exercised in reporting the findings from the conversation analysis studies as mostly highlighting the teacher learners' in-the-moment identity experiences rather than providing evidence of their identity development, those from the interviews as mainly showing the evolutionary patterns of their identity negotiation, and those related to the course documents as casting light on the potential of the course for fostering identity negotiation. This is not to deny the contributions of each dataset to the overarching findings and arguments beyond the specific results and interpretations they have afforded.

Summary of Findings

The analysis of the selected classroom conversations reflected the teacher learners' engagement in negotiating three major categories of identities. These categories included co-learner and co-learning facilitator (Chapter 5), descriptive language analyst, language analysis facilitator, and language user (Chapter 6), and identities relating to TBLT, form-focused instruction, and needs analysis (Chapter 7).

The first category originated from an investigation into the interactional dynamics of two exchanges. This investigation presented the most rigorous conversation analysis of all three chapters focused on classroom exchanges. As explained in Chapter 5, the two selected conversations represented a larger group of exchanges in which the interlocutors were observed to engage in a critical evaluation of ideas presented by their peers and Winston in a dialogical atmosphere. The situated identity types of 'co-learner' and 'co-learning facilitator', with the interlocutors sometimes offering themselves as 'persons', reflected the dialogical nature of the conversations. Specifically focusing on the 'engagement' mode of identification proposed by Wenger (1998), the analysis highlighted the teacher learners' experience of legitimate participation in meaning negotiation supported by a high degree of mutuality, an appreciation for diversity of perspectives, acknowledgement of their membership in communities beyond the course, and a climate of trust in the exchanges. Yet, it was discussed that the ideas with which Winston initiated the exchanges may suggest his failure to acknowledge the related established disciplinary knowledge, hence the possibility of his remarks impacting on the teacher learners' trust in him as a model and, consequently, their identity work.

While the other two classroom conversation studies also included a focus on the dialogicality of interactions reaffirming the findings of the first study, each offered a unique insight into the contributions of the TESOL Grad Cert to teacher identity construction. In Chapter 6, the situated identities of 'descriptive language analyst' and 'language analysis facilitator' and the transportable identity of 'language user' emerged from an analysis of conversations which represented a larger category of classroom exchanges with a language analytical focus. Thus, in addition to shedding further light on how dialogical the conversations in the TESOL Grad Cert were, this study helped identify the view of language promoted in the course, how it was promoted and reflected on, and how this may have informed the teacher learners' identity formation. The significance of this finding lies in the key place of language analysis and

developing teacher language awareness in L2 teacher education (Andrews, 2007a, 2007b; Thornbury, 1997). It was reported that the teacher learners engaged in a rich space of identity negotiation through the three modes of engagement, imagination, and alignment. Yet, this process may have been constrained by Winston's presentation of prescriptivism and descriptivism as mutually exclusive, a limited picture of prescriptivism and its relevance to formal situations, no focus on the pedagogical applications of the constructed linguistic knowledge, and lack of engagement of the teacher learners with LOTE backgrounds in meaning production.

In Chapter 7, it was reported that the teacher learners' engagement in and subsequent reflection on an information gap task motivated their imagination, which Wenger (1998) considers a key mode of identity formation. The nature of the task made some aspects of teaching the focus of imagination and identity work, namely TBLT, form-focused instruction, and needs analysis. Like the previous section, this study presented yet another instantiation of high dialogicality in the classroom exchanges. Its unique contribution, however, was that it explored the potential of engagement with a typical L2 classroom task and the imagination work prompted by this experience in fostering teacher learners' identity work. Through the two major processes of imagining-that and imagining-how (Casey, 2000), the interlocutors reflected on different aspects of teaching ESL, such as challenges that learners would have fulfilling the information gap task and how they as teachers could help them in this regard. Additionally, an atmosphere of negotiability was discussed to be surrounding the analysed conversation and fostering the teacher learners' imagination and identity work. The teacher learners actively contributed their ideas and experiences to the exchange, Winston shared his as a co-participant, and in several parts of the exchange they interacted as members of the same community, sometimes as 'language users' and other times as 'language teachers'.

Chapter 8 reported on the analysis of interviews with seven teacher learners. Each interview had two major sections, one consisting of identity questions and the other one focused on the teacher learners' perceptions of the TESOL Grad Cert and its contributions to their learning. The identity part showed growth in self-confidence on the part of a limited number of the teacher learners to be the major identity outcome of participating in the course. The second part, however, presented a more positive picture of the benefits of the course to the interviewees' learning and identity negotiation. These perceived benefits included an increase in their linguistic and cultural awareness and knowledge of L2 teaching all of which are key

elements of teacher identity. Also conducive to their identity construction was their taking Winston as a role model who was skilful, humorous, engaging, entertaining, interested in the students' learning, nonjudgmental, and non-threatening. Additionally, they had found the materials, the assignments, the activities, and the classroom discussions and interactions useful. However, most were critical of the limited practical teaching aspect of the course. While this constraint had severely limited their identity negotiation through the mode of engagement, they had engaged with the other aspects of the course just mentioned. The data also provided evidence of the teacher learners' identity negotiation through alignment with the course content and assignment requirements and imagination as relating to appropriate courses of action in different classroom situations and effective communication with learners. Finally, the interviews showed a perceived high level of negotiability as the classes had an interactive, safe, and non-threatening atmosphere and the participants were interested in learning about their classmates' ideas and experiences.

The last dataset, reported in Chapter 9, consisted of the documents related to the four units of the course. As the analysis of the language-focused conversations in Chapter 6 showed a major focus on language analysis to the exclusion of the wider context of teaching L2, the documents related to the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units were studied with the purpose of exploring instances of a pedagogical focus within their overall language analytical approach. The analysis showed a major focus on the 'language analyst' domain of teaching ESL with very limited focus, especially in Sociolinguistics, on how language analysis is connected with the 'language teacher' domain. The documents of the Methodology and Skills units were analysed to examine their potential for facilitating engagement with teaching practice which most interviewees (Chapter 8) considered as lacking. The analysis showed that a significant space for engagement with some aspects of teaching was available, especially in the Skills unit which had more explicit connections to the process of classroom teaching than the Methodology unit which was more focused on broad aspects of language teaching and learning. A CoP-informed analysis of the documents was also conducted to more closely investigate the potential of the course for teacher identity development. Direct engagement with language learners and other teachers was highly limited, while engagement with other aspects of teaching, such as sample ESL materials, teaching techniques, and lesson planning, was supported. The units were also found to have the potential for facilitating engagement in the sense of mutual involvement in meaning negotiation through different means such as classroom discussions and tutorial activities. The documents suggested a space for imagination work in some aspects of the units like ESL

activities which would help teacher learners adopt a learner perspective on the process of learning a second language and scenarios of classroom situations that an ESL teacher may encounter in the reality of teaching. There was evidence of opportunities for teacher learners' alignment with the established knowledgebase through both adopting it and examining it in light of their own experiences. Finally, a potentially high degree of negotiability was evident in numerous instances of opportunities for collaborative reflection and discussion, joint fulfilment of classroom activities, and encouraging examination of the established knowledgebase based on personal experiences and observations.

Since the discussion in the following sections integrates the findings of the five qualitative studies, the data sources and major findings of each of these studies are outlined below as a refresher for the reader to refer to when necessary while they are reading the discussion.

- **Chapter 5**

Conversations where the teacher learners questioned Winston's views

Identity experiences: Co-learner, co-learning facilitator, person

- **Chapter 6**

Conversations focused on language use

Identity experiences: descriptive Language analyst, language analysis facilitator, language users

- **Chapter 7**

A conversation where the teacher learners reflected on their experience with an information gap task

Identity experiences: TBLT, form-focused instruction, and needs analysis

- **Chapter 8**

Interviews with seven teacher learners

Identity shifts: None in most aspects. Growth in self-confidence on the part of a few teacher learners. Some attributed it to the course and some to teaching experience outside the course.

Perceptions of the course: positive – interactive climate, engaging materials, Winston as a role model; negative – lacking elements of teaching practice, content heavy

- **Chapter 9**

Document analysis

Linguistics and Sociolinguistics: significant focus on language analysis to the exclusion of a pedagogical focus and context

Methodology and Skills: space for engagement with practical aspects of teaching but not with L2 learners and other teachers; opportunities for classroom discussions

Identities Negotiated in the TESOL Grad Cert

The above studies highlight the potential of the TESOL Grad Cert for teacher learners' engagement in negotiating several identity types. These identity types ranged from those relating to general aspects of teaching to those specifically related to second language instruction. Regarding the former, Chapter 5, which reported on two conversations initiated by Winston's controversial propositions, yielded the teacher identities of co-learner and co-learning facilitator. Also, Chapter 8, which reported on the interviews, showed the teacher learners' identity negotiation through Winston modelling a teaching style which is nonjudgmental and non-threatening and involves a sense of humour and an interest in students' learning.

Regarding ESL-specific identity types, varying degrees of a focus on the domains of 'language teacher' and 'language analyst' (Edge, 1988; Wright, 2002) were identified. A major focus on the 'language teacher' domain was, unsurprisingly, identified in the documents of the Skills and Methodology units, where different aspects of teaching L2 were addressed. Chapter 7 also showed the potential of a sample classroom conversation for fostering identity negotiation as relating to the 'language teacher' domain. It showed that the teacher learners' engagement with and subsequent reflection on an information gap task involved identity work as relating to TBLT, form-focused instruction, and language learner needs analysis. The conversation analysed in this study was just one example and the identity types that the teacher learners engaged with are likely to have originated from the information gap nature of the task which prompted the conversation. Therefore, an investigation into other conversations in the course would arguably provide evidence of teacher learners negotiating several other aspects of their language teacher identity triggered by the specific foci of those exchanges. Finally, the interviewed teacher learners' increased self-confidence was also part of their identity

development in the 'language teacher' domain. As explained in Chapter 8, the interviewees whose self-confidence had improved and attributed this to their participation in the course specifically referred to their enhanced knowledge of L2 teaching and having a TESOL qualification as the reasons.

With regard to the teacher learners' identity negotiation as relating to the 'language analyst' domain, recurrent observations were made in a number of studies. The classroom conversations reported in Chapter 6 yielded the identities of 'descriptive language analyst' and 'language analysis facilitator'. The analysis of the interviews in Chapter 8 showed a perceived improvement in some participants' awareness of and an appreciation for language. Finally, the analysis of the documents of the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units in Chapter 9 showed a major focus on language analysis. As reflected in the classroom conversations and the documents, however, the substantial treatment of language analysis in the course had a largely declarative orientation. The language analyses conducted in the course were mainly aimed at raising the teacher learners' language awareness for its own sake rather than for preparing them to teach L2 effectively, which is the focus of the procedural aspects of language awareness. In other words, only limited connections were established between linguistic analysis and the pedagogical roles that teacher learners would be fulfilling as teachers. The analysis of the documents related to these two units yielded a similar finding. It was reported that although the unit outlines, especially that of Linguistics, suggested a language focus within a broader context of language education, connections to this broader context was often limited to a focus on the role of imparting linguistic knowledge to learners and occasional reference to pedagogical roles. In the case of the Sociolinguistics unit, all instances of a pedagogical focus were found to take place in the assignment and final exam.

While both the documents related to the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units (Chapter 9) and the relevant teacher education conversations (Chapter 6) reflected the dominance of a declarative focus on teacher learners' language awareness, a counterargument was presented in Chapter 6 based on the dialogical nature of the reported conversations. It was argued that teacher learners' active engagement in genuine dialogue and collective reflection about the nature of language and language use was likely to have supported them in transferring the language awareness they developed to their teaching experience. Instead of Winston merely presenting teacher learners with a view of language, they engaged in critical examination of the presented views and co-construction of their new understanding. Therefore, the linguistic

knowledge they developed through these exchanges could be considered procedural in the sense that they were constructed through active and collective engagement in language analysis. Yet, the key place of conscious reflection on how this new knowledge applies to teaching and relevant teaching experience in developing procedural aspects of language awareness is beyond question.

This section focused on the types of identities that teacher learners engaged in negotiating in the TESOL Grad Cert. The next section discusses the opportunities for and the constraints on their identity negotiation which were identified in the studies.

Dynamics of Teacher Identity Negotiation in the TESOL Grad Cert

In line with CoP (Wenger, 1998, 2000), which is the major theoretical lens adopted in the studies conducted in this dissertation, this section discusses how teacher learners negotiated their identities through engagement, imagination, and alignment, and how these processes may have been fostered or hindered.

Engagement

All five qualitative studies strongly suggested that the course provided a considerable space for teacher learners' identity formation through engagement. Engagement in the sense of mutual involvement in meaning negotiation was fostered by the highly dialogical climate of the lectures. While such a climate facilitated teacher learners' engagement with their peers and Winston, there was also evidence of their engagement with different aspects of the course, including the unit readings, the tutorial activities, the tutorial preps, and the assignments. Additionally, the course was found to have supported teacher learners' engagement with different dimensions of teaching ESL, such as ESL materials, teaching techniques, language analysis tools, as well as their interaction, though limited, with practicing teachers and L2 learners. Adoption of a practitioner-friendly language was also discussed as a potential catalyst for teacher learners' involvement with practical aspects of teaching. A detailed discussion of these findings across the conducted studies is as follows.

Mutual involvement in classroom discussions.

The studies showed teacher learners' access to numerous opportunities for classroom discussion. To start with, in the content log developed in the preliminary step of the conversation analysis studies, classroom dialogues constituted a major content category and featured regular occurrence in each observed session. The analysis of the interviews showed that the interviewees considered the interactive nature of the classes as one of the main advantages of the TESOL Grad Cert. The document analysis yielded various opportunities for discussion in the units which were created through a variety of prompts, such as excerpts from the literature and unit readings, videos, ESL tests, scenarios of classroom situations, reflection questions, and checklists of teaching strategies and techniques.

The teacher learners' extensive access to opportunities for sharing ideas and experiences through dialogue shows the potential of the course for fostering their identity formation. Regarding the crucial place of dialogical education in identity development, Ligorio (2010) argues, "[t]he dialogue through which identity is conceptualized and built, when it takes place in an educational context, is a dialogue aimed at building a new sense of what is experienced and what is the self" (p. 97). This conceptualisation of dialogue is very much in line with Wenger's definition of engagement as "active involvement in mutual processes of negotiation of meaning" (Wenger, 1998, p. 173). The identified opportunities for discussion in the TESOL Grad Cert were found to have features which Wenger (1998) considers important for effective engagement, namely mutuality, recognition of participants' multimembership, diversity of perspectives, and a climate of trust. These are discussed in the rest of this section.

The conversation analyses showed participants' mutual involvement in actively contributing to the collective process of meaning making. For example, in Chapter 5 mutuality was reported to have been manifested in the interlocutors' enactment of the situated identity of co-learners. Negotiating this identity meant that the interlocutors were invested in co-accomplishing the exchanges and co-constructing knowledge. The legitimacy of the meanings produced was examined based on how valid they were considered by the collective rather than determined by their professional positions, which would give Winston's ideas a privileged status of automatic adequacy compared to the teacher learners'. This climate of "mutual evaluation" (Wenger, 1998, p. 235) was also identified in the language-focused conversations reported in Chapter 6, where the currency of the interlocutors' views as perceived by the whole class, rather than their

professional status, formed the basis of examining their legitimacy. A strong manifestation of mutuality in the conversations analysed in both chapters was the ease and comfort with which the teacher learners expressed disagreements with Winston's opinions. In fact, the two dialogues reported in Chapter 5 were both initiated as a result of some teacher learners presenting alternative views to Winston's on body language and visual thinking. Though limited, one of the exchanges reported in Chapter 6 similarly included an instance of a teacher learner's exercising agency through resisting Winston's strong advocacy of descriptivism. The single dialogue reported in Chapter 7 multiply instantiated the teacher learners' establishing themselves as legitimate participants (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in knowledge co-construction. An example was when they went beyond Winston's definition of 'real' target language use situations, which was limited to normal face-to-face conversation, and presented alternatives like using GPS.

All three conversation analysis studies showed that teacher learners' mutual involvement in the exchanges was reinforced through Winston's and their peers' active acknowledgment of their contributions, which de Sonneville (2007) considers as an important catalyst for teacher learners' articulation of their opinions and experiences. Given the centrality Wenger (1998) attaches to the experience of mutual engagement to identity formation, lack of which, he argues, results in marginality and alienation, these findings suggest the teacher learners' access to a rich space for identity formation in the TESOL Grad Cert. Parr and Chan (2015) also reported that this experience of 'dialogic collegiality' served as "a relational way of supporting the identity work of students" (p. 49) in a pre-service program. This space was similarly recognised by M. Clarke (2008) to have informed his participants' identity formation. He reported that they engaged in several forms of mutual interaction, such as cumulative development of topics and questions in their exchanges, detailed responses to points made by their peers, collegial empathy, and offers of assistance and support to each other during their studies. Thus, these teacher learners, like those observed as interacting in classroom conversations in the present research, enacted the role of co-learners in a climate of mutuality.

Another group of findings which bears testament to a rich space for identity development through engagement in the course emerged from the recurrent cases of teacher learners drawing on their membership in multiple communities. The analysis of the documents, for example, showed that various discussions would involve teacher learners sharing their experiences as language teachers, language learners, and language users. The conversation analysis in Chapter

5 showed that the teacher learners used their experience of interaction in the wider society and the insights they had gained from reading books and watching movies to question the ideas presented by Winston. In Chapter 6, the teacher learners were reported to contribute to the language-focused conversations by drawing on their membership in the English-speaking community as language users, as observers of others' language use, and as owners of intuitive knowledge about language. These findings show the potential of the TESOL Grad Cert for fostering the teacher learners' negotiating identity as "a nexus of multimembership" (Wenger, 1998, p. 159). Studies have shown that a teacher education atmosphere which acknowledges teacher learners' membership in other communities is conducive to their development of a collective identity and achievement of "identity congruence" (Niesz, 2010, p. 42). They have also found that in the absence of this atmosphere, teacher learners may develop an identity of marginality (e.g., Nelson & Temples, 2011; J. Williams, 2010). This is focused on later in this section where the limitations of the course are discussed.

Closely related to the above finding, an inclusive approach to multiple perspectives, which is another key element of effective engagement (Wenger, 1998), was found to support the teacher learners' experience of meaning negotiation. Those interviewed, for example, positively talked about the non-threatening atmosphere of the course, Winston's accepting and non-judgmental treatment of their ideas, and the joy of working with their peers and discussing different ways to do things related to teaching. Several examples of reflection and discussion questions in the lecture slides and tutorial preps and activities also suggested that there is a potential space for the teacher learners' varied understandings and experiences to form part of the classroom content. In classroom conversations, this potential manifested itself in the several instances of the teacher learners' contributing their divergent ideas and their peers and Winston acknowledging and building on them. Wenger (1998) regards individuals' treating mismatched understandings as stimuli for in-depth reflection and continued learning, rather than problems to be solved, as conducive to their identity negotiation. Seeing differences as problematic, however, hinders identity formation, as it did in the case of some teacher learners in Leonard's (2014) study. The author reported that for the participants who considered differences in teaching experience and style as indicative of inferiority, these differences were also perceived as a challenge to their identity. The consequence was avoiding sharing their views in discussions, which would have otherwise fostered their identity development. Wineburg and Grossman (1998), however, shared the story of a group of in-service teachers' successful

transition from treating disagreements as essentially negative to actively building on them for critical reflection on their beliefs.

The climate of trust was also identified in the course as having fostered teacher learners' engagement in meaning negotiation. Considering trust to be a prerequisite to mutual engagement, Wenger presents two understandings of this concept, namely "feel[ing] comfortable addressing real problems together and speaking truthfully" (Wenger, 2000, p. 230), and a belief in the potential of partnerships within a community to foster development (Wenger, 1998). The former was discussed in some of the above foci. The latter was reflected in Winston's commitment to maintaining a dialogical atmosphere, which shows his trust in the potential of the classroom interactions to promote learning. It also manifested itself in the several short and long turns produced by the teacher learners during the exchanges which were acknowledged, in varied ways, as valuable to the collective learning process by Winston and their peers, hence a productive space for the teacher learners' identity negotiation. Other studies have also highlighted the place of trust in teacher development and identity construction. An example is Yildirim's (2008) study of a group of language teachers' professional development meetings. The participants reported a climate of trust and safety in these meetings, where they could support and collaborate with each other, take on the new role of supporting their school colleagues' professional development, and improve their own pedagogical knowledge, which is strongly connected to their identity development (Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016). Johannessen (2015) found that interpersonal trust and solidarity in an action research project where religious education teachers and researchers collaborated fostered the teachers' identity construction. Increased self-confidence as teachers and colleagues, development of new knowledge, and positive changes in relationship with students were some reflections of their identity formation journey. Englert and Tarrant (1995) studied a professional learning community where special education teachers collaborated with university researchers to improve the literacy education curriculum. Trust in the teachers' experience and insight strengthened their sense of ownership over the curriculum.

The above discussion shows that classroom conversations in the TESOL Grad Cert provided a rich space for the teacher learners' identity formation through engagement in meaning negotiation. It was discussed that exchanges fostered mutuality in the teacher learners' interactions, facilitated recognition of their multimembership, encouraged diversity of perspectives, and created a climate of trust. While these dynamics were an outcome of all

interlocutors' investment in creating and maintaining a dialogical atmosphere, as explained in the relevant chapters, Winston's interactional style played an important role in this regard. Yet, the findings also suggested that identity negotiation through engagement may have been limited by some of the views that Winston presented to the teacher learners and his limited engagement of the teacher learners with LOTE backgrounds in the language-focused conversations.

In Chapter 5, the two analysed conversations were mainly triggered by the teacher learners' disagreement with Winston's opinions about the importance of body language and the possibility of visual thinking. It was explained that his self-revelations might have compromised the teacher learners' trust in his legitimacy as a lecturer who is expected to have an adequate knowledge of these topics and the relevant research literature. It could be hypothesised that in the absence of the critical dialogues which followed Winston's controversial remarks, it would be likely that the teacher learners take up those views and the resultant limited understanding of the relevant disciplinary knowledge impact on their identity formation as language teachers. In Wenger's words, it would have limited the teacher learners' development of "identity as a form of competence" (Wenger, 1998, p. 153). Therefore, the teacher learners' exercise of agency in showing resistance to Winston's propositions, fostered by the existing climate of dialogue in the TESOL Grad Cert and Winston's own dialogical style of interaction, can be argued to have helped prevent this. Also, the teacher learners may have treated how Winston talked about body language and visual thinking in light of the oral discourse of the conversations, where perfect lexical precision is not expected.

In Chapter 6, the way Winston presented descriptivism and prescriptivism was problematised. It was discussed that he talked about these two views of language use as binary oppositions, provided an incomplete picture of prescriptivism, and did not acknowledge the relevance of prescriptivism to formal situations despite its being an established 'regime of competence' (Wenger, 1998) in the L2 teaching community. The potential consequences were argued to be the teacher learners' developing a dichotomous and antagonistic understanding of descriptivism and prescriptivism, adopting a stereotypical and limited view of the latter, and marginalisation of teacher learners with a possibly strong prescriptivist mindset. It was concluded that this antagonistic discourse may negatively impact on the teacher learners' development of "identity as reconciliation" (Wenger, 1998, p. 160), "identity as a form of competence" (p. 153), and "identity as community membership" (p. 149).

Lack of space in the course to reconcile descriptivism and prescriptivism is likely to lead the teacher learners to develop a “misleading dualism” (Hedgcock, 2002, p. 308) and thus reinforce rigidity and dogmatism in how they define their roles as L2 teachers (Richardson, 2003; Trent, 2010a). Several studies have documented teacher learners’ tendency to assign antagonistic relations to competing views in L2 teaching. Among others, M. Clarke (2008), Gardiner-Hyland (2014b), Gu and Benson (2015), He and Lin (2013), and Trent (2013) unanimously reported that their participants constructed a dichotomy of progressive and traditional teachers and associated mutually exclusive qualities to each. Clarke’s participants, for instance, attached sensitivity, kindness, and learner-centeredness to being progressive and insensitivity, cruelty, and teacher-centeredness to being traditional. Yet, some of these studies reported that criticality and creative agency enabled some teacher learners to problematise these binaries and move beyond them (e.g., M. Clarke, 2008; He & Lin, 2013). In the case of most teacher learners in the present research, their long-term involvement with teaching has arguably helped them to develop a sophisticated understanding of teaching. Thus, they may not be as prone as the pre-service teachers reported in the above studies to develop dichotomous views, here of descriptivism and prescriptivism. Yet, some of the participants were novice teachers. Also, since for all of the participants, the course was most probably their first serious encounter with the area of linguistics, they might be vulnerable, like pre-service teachers, to misleading dualisms like that of descriptivism/prescriptivism. More so are their novice classmates. Therefore, the potential of Winston’s way of presenting these linguistic views in reinforcing antagonism on the part of the teacher learners remains a reason for concern.

The incomplete picture that Winston presented of prescriptivism could hinder the teacher learners’ development of “identity as a form of competence” (Wenger, 1998, p. 153), which, here, would be an adequate knowledge about prescriptivism. The same argument was made earlier about the conversations reported in Chapter 5 where the potential impact of Winston’s opinions about the importance of body language and the possibility of visual thinking on the teacher learners’ identity formation as competence/knowledge-building was highlighted. Several studies have highlighted direct connections between acquisition of knowledge and teacher identity construction. Kanno and Stuart (2011) and Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2016), for example, reported their participants’ development of subject matter knowledge as part of their identity negotiation. Morton and Gray (2010) reported as intertwined the growth they identified in their participants’ personal practical knowledge and professional identities. Burri et al.’s (2017) study showed teacher identity construction and cognition development, a major

aspect of which is knowledge, as strongly interconnected. In light of these findings, it can be argued that providing a limited understanding of prescriptivism in the TESOL Grad Cert may result in the teacher learners' limited knowledge of this view of language and therefore a limiting experience of identity negotiation. Their inadequate understanding of the relevance of prescriptivism to formal situations could impact on how well they will fulfil their 'formal L2 teacher' role. By extension, it could limit their development of a sense of belonging to the wider TESOL community where prescriptivism is recognised as relevant to language pedagogy. This then suggests a possible impact on their negotiating "identity as community membership" (Wenger, 1998, p. 149).

Another issue identified in this chapter was that the teacher learners with LOTE backgrounds had less access than their native English speaker classmates to engagement in meaning negotiation about the nature of language and language use, be it English or their mother tongues. Lack of acknowledgement of their 'language user' identity was discussed as a potential hindrance to their identity development since "[w]e become who we are by being able to play a part in the relations of engagement that constitute our community" (Wenger, 1998, p. 152). Several studies have highlighted the challenges that teacher learners with LOTE backgrounds who take part in teacher education programs in English-speaking contexts may experience as they negotiate tensions between their established sociocultural, pedagogical, and linguistic identities and those they encounter in the context of teacher education (e.g., Kong, 2014; H. T. M. Nguyen & Sheridan, 2016; G. Park, 2012). Thus, the observed limited space for the participants with LOTE backgrounds in the present study to engage in meaning negotiation may have imposed constraints on their identity formation in the academically and socioculturally different context of teacher education in Australia.

This section discussed how the teacher learners' engagement in classroom discussions and identity negotiation was fostered or hindered in the TESOL Grad Cert. The next section focuses on how they engaged with other aspects of the TESOL Grad Cert.

Engagement with different components of the TESOL Grad Cert.

The studies unanimously showed that the course had a highly interactive and engaging nature and was far from lecture-based and teacher-fronted. The various opportunities available for dialogue, which were discussed above, constituted only one manifestation of its interactive approach. Other aspects of the course which the multiple datasets showed as having engaged

the teacher learners were the readings, the tutorial activities, the tutorial preps, and the assignments.

In their interviews, the teacher learners shared positive perceptions of all course components. The specificity they displayed in their explanations of their positive remarks suggested their investment in them. For instance, a teacher learner who had found the tutorial activities “great” focused on the practical relevance of the activities and the transferability of the resultant learning to her own teaching practice. Those who talked positively about the needs analysis assignment in the Methodology unit said that they were interested in its “action-based” nature and “practical application”. Regarding readings, two interviewees specifically mentioned the reading on how to develop a lesson as having interested them. Another teacher learner referred to a reading related to the lecture on the Tuesday of the week when she was interviewed as having encouraged her “to go home and do a bit more research.”

Document analysis similarly led to a recognition of the potential for engagement with different course components. To start with, the tutorial activities and preps all involved hands-on tasks that would facilitate teacher learners’ direct experience with the foci of the related lectures, be them pedagogical, as in the Skills and Methodology units, or language analytical, as in the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units. They also included prompts to stimulate teacher learners’ reflection on their lived experiences relevant to those foci and examination of the ideas and theoretical positions incorporated into them. Thus, they constituted a potential space for teacher learners to recognise and establish connections between the disciplinary knowledge presented to them in the course readings and their own observations and experiences. Additionally, the components in the assignments had a reflective or experiential orientation, providing further opportunities for engagement.

Other studies have discussed the contributions of engagement with different components of teacher education to teacher identity formation. In a graduate unit on teaching pronunciation, Burri et al. (2017) reported that their participants’ investment in the professional literature and the assessment tasks fostered their negotiation of the pronunciation instructor identity. In a pre-service program, Trent (2010c) found that engagement with action research fostered the student teachers’ identity development as it helped them develop an in-depth understanding of the practical usefulness of teaching approaches they were presented with in the classroom. Therefore, they grew appreciative of the advantages of research for their pedagogical

development. The student teachers in another study by Trent (2012) also presented positive evaluations of the identity positions ‘researcher’ and ‘teacher’ and their interconnections. They saw research as conducive to their understanding of learners and the classroom, their problem-solving skills, and their knowledge of current theory and practice.

Regarding the limitations on teacher learners’ engagement with the course, the interviews reflected a few teacher learners’ struggles to involve with the content of the Linguistics unit. A teacher learner, for example, had initially “not really expect[ed] so much of a linguistics side” and the most positive picture she portrayed of the linguistics class was it providing “more of a personal satisfaction in learning something I don’t know anything about.” Although, towards the end of the course, she grew more appreciative of the place of linguistics in her learning to teach, she did not go beyond the general remark, “that has made me a better teacher too”. Another teacher learner had found linguistics “really hard” and “technically challenging”, yet he attributed this perceived complexity to him not trying enough to understand this area. When he talked favourably about linguistics, he referred to this area as “pure research” which “everything falls out of”. His comment, like the other teacher learner’s, did not show an understanding of tangible connections between linguistics and language pedagogy. These interviewees’ perceptions of the complexity of linguistics were corroborated by another teacher learner who, despite her strong literacy education background, considered the overall content of the course “quite challenging”, “heavy”, and “demanding”. This perceived difficulty of the course content, especially that of the Linguistics unit, could be interpreted in light of the rather exclusive focus, identified in document analysis (Chapter 9) and conversation analysis (Chapter 6), on the declarative knowledge of language and little attention paid to connections between this knowledge and second language pedagogy, or rather its procedural aspects. This issue is focused on in the next section where the limitations on the teacher learners’ engagement with aspects of teaching L2 are discussed.

In the previous section, the potential of the course for fostering teacher learners’ mutual engagement in meaning negotiation through classroom discussions was elaborated on. In this section their engagement with different components of the course was explained. One more way in which the course can be argued to have fostered teacher learners’ identity formation through engagement is the opportunities it afforded for teacher learners to involve with different aspects of ESL teaching, which is the focus of the following section.

Engagement with different dimensions of teaching ESL.

The studies showed that the course fostered teacher learners' direct engagement with several aspects of teaching practice, including ESL materials and resources, teaching techniques, ESL activities, tools for language analysis, and teacher development resources. Active adoption of a practitioner-friendly language throughout the course was also argued to have the potential to foster teacher learners' engagement with practical aspects of teaching. Additionally, the course afforded opportunities for teacher learners to engage with practicing teachers and L2 learners, but these were highly limited. These issues are elaborated on in this section.

In the interviews, the teacher learners shared their positive experiences of learning about different teaching approaches, methods, and techniques and improving their own teaching styles, which reflects their engagement with the related course content. Document analysis provided several examples of a practitioner-friendly language adopted in the units which can support teacher learners' engagement with the practical aspects of teaching. Such a language manifested itself in practical tips and guidelines related to teaching, such as the steps of planning a lesson, guidelines about how to use different assessment tools, and classroom management tips. This can be considered an important way in which the course may contribute to teacher identity formation, since it enhances connections between theory and practice and narrows their gap which has long been a point of concern in L2 teacher education (Beaugrande, 1997; M. A. Clarke, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 2006b).

Analysis of the documents also showed that some of the lectures introduced resources like journals, podcasts, and websites for teacher learners' further development. Some tutorial activities were found to present opportunities for teacher learners to develop lessons, evaluate and modify ESL materials and sample lessons, and examine teaching techniques presented in the readings. The documents additionally showed that the course presented teacher learners with tools and resources which would enable them to analyse language use and deal with their future L2 students' questions. Some examples were The Corpus of Global Web-Based English, Word and Phrase Info, Google Ngram Viewer, and the World Factbook. In this regard, the language-focused conversations reported in Chapter 6 included examples of teacher learners' experience with Google Ngram Viewer through Winston modelling its use and also reflections on the uses of Word and Phrase Info. The documents of the Methodology and Skills units showed teacher learners' access to multiple opportunities to experience engaging with a variety

of sample ESL activities that they would assign to their own students in the future. The depth of their engagement with one such activity was reflected in the conversation reported in Chapter 7 in which the interlocutors reflected on their experience with an information gap task from a language pedagogical perspective.

While the above findings suggest teacher learners' access to various opportunities to engage with teaching, some findings show limitations in this regard. In the previous section, it was mentioned that some teacher learners found the content of the course, especially that of the Linguistics unit, demanding. Challenges in engaging with the linguistic content is attributable to the rather exclusive focus on language analysis and little acknowledgement of its connections to language pedagogy as reflected in the analysis of the documents of the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units in Chapter 9 and the language focused conversations reported in Chapter 6. The plethora of tutorial activities and preps in the relevant units and the highly interactive conversations, while fostering engagement with language, still lacked a pedagogical dimension.

In these chapters, the relevant literature was extensively drawn upon to argue that the efficacy of TESOL teacher education partly depends on adopting an applied perspective on linguistics and approaching this area within the wider pedagogical context of the profession (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; LaFond & Dogancay-Aktuna, 2009). It was also said that several studies have found lack of integration between linguistic knowledge and language pedagogy in L2 teacher education as limiting teacher learners' understanding of their connections and their ability to apply their linguistic knowledge in teaching ESL although, like the teacher learners in the present study, they may appreciate the importance of having this knowledge for its own sake (Cots & Arnó, 2005; LaFond & Dogancay-Aktuna, 2009; Popko, 2005).

There are reports on how a combined focus on knowledge about language and language teaching contributes to teacher learners' growth. Riegelhaupt and Carrasco (2005), for instance, found that teacher learners' engagement in analysing the linguistic features of the English dialect spoken by the target learner community and how to apply this linguistic analysis in their teaching resulted in them adopting an inclusive attitude towards their prospective students' dialect and incorporating their refined linguistic knowledge into their teaching. Yates and Wigglesworth (2005) reported that a pedagogically-informed focus on pragmatics and

engagement in developing appropriate materials for classroom teaching fostered their teacher learners' understanding of how to improve learners' interpersonal communication skills and develop appropriate materials. In Bigelow and Ranney's (2005) study, the participants who had experienced a similarly integrated focus on language and teaching were reported to effectively transfer their new linguistic knowledge to their teaching practice and become more self-confident. In the present research, however, the teacher learners' access to these positive experiences of learning had become limited owing to lack of a wider pedagogical context in the linguistic content of the course.

Another way in which the course limited teacher learners' engagement with teaching was lack of opportunities for them to interact with other teachers. Although, as mentioned in the section of 'Mutual involvement in classroom discussions', classroom exchanges did facilitate teacher learners' interaction with their peers, who could be their future colleagues, there were little interactions with teachers beyond the boundaries of the cohort. The examples in the documents were a tutorial activity which involved watching a video of a teacher's teaching performance and analysing it and an assignment which tasked teacher learners with observing a teacher's classroom practice on-site. Document analysis showed that engagement with language learners was similarly limited. The few examples included a tutorial activity which involved listening to an interview with a learner and analysing her needs, and the assignment which tasked teacher learners with finding an ESL learner, analysing their needs, and drawing up a suitable learning plan.

What significantly limited teacher learners' engagement with language learners and other teachers was the absence of a practicum component in the structure of the TESOL Grad Cert. This, in fact, deprived them of any direct experience of teaching students and sharing with other teachers in the reality of an educational setting. The interviews showed that most teacher learners were critical of the absence of opportunities for practical teaching experiences in the course. The legitimacy of their dissatisfaction can be seen in connection with their teaching background. A few entirely lacked prior experience of teaching practice and most of the rest came from mainstream education backgrounds. One of the latter, who had taught for 25 years, explicitly attributed her low self-confidence to lack of a practicum component in the TESOL Grad Cert. The interviewees, therefore, believed that they would have benefitted from opportunities for engagement with practical teaching.

The importance of practicum cannot be overestimated. A practicum component takes teacher learners' engagement with teaching beyond the learning experiences and interactions within the teacher education cohort and facilitates direct interactions with learners, teachers, and other stake-holders in educational settings. Thus, as a 'metaphorical thread' (Chappell & Moore, 2012), it fosters 'boundary encounters' which constitute a significant aspect of identity formation through engagement (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015; Wenger, 1998, 2000). Also, it makes the process of learning to teach more of a place for identity negotiation as it provides "alternative forms of participation" (Wenger, 1998, p. 215). Researchers have found that engagement with teaching through practicum informs identity work in different ways. It affords teacher learners significant identity experiences as they enter into complex interactions with their peers, mentors, school teachers, and authorities in the practicum context (Dang, 2013; Henry, 2016; Morton & Gray, 2010; Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016; Santoro, 1997; Trent, 2010b, 2013; E. R. Yuan, 2016). Thus, it facilitates their developing a sense of belonging to the school community, adopting an increasingly professional language, gaining confidence in their teaching skills, and shifting from a learner identity to a teacher identity (Harlow & Cobb, 2014b; Yayli, 2012). Additionally, practicum often involves teacher learners' navigating through conflictual discourses promoted in the coursework and school context and negotiating an approach of their own (Gardiner-Hyland, 2014b; He & Lin, 2013; Trent, 2010c). The learning significance of practicum experience has been further highlighted in studies which show that long and intense teaching opportunities more effectively contribute to teacher learning and identity formation (Gu & Benson, 2015; Kanno & Stuart, 2011). Lack of a practicum component in the TESOL Grad Cert means teacher learners' lack of access to the significant opportunities for learning and identity development some of which were highlighted in the above studies. These opportunities were available to the novice teacher learners' whose self-confidence grew as they engaged with teaching practice outside the course.

Imagination

The studies based on the three datasets yielded evidence of teacher learners' identity negotiation through imagination, which is another major mode of identification (Wenger, 1998) and a powerful tool for teacher development (Cartwright & Noone, 2006; Chan, 2013; Dudley, 2013; E. Roberts, 1999). Document analysis showed that multiple opportunities for imagination were incorporated into the units through assignments, tutorial activities, and ESL activities. An example of an assignment with imaginative potential was one which asked

teacher learners to analyse a L2 learners' needs and develop a suitable learning plan for their research participant. Trent (2012) found that such research engagement serves as a space for teacher learners' identity work through fostering their imagination regarding how to assist students with their language development. An example of a tutorial activity with such a potential came from the Methodology unit where teacher learners were presented with a set of scenarios which represented likely classroom situations and asked to propose appropriate courses of action which would help resolve them. This example activity has the potential to engage teacher learners in extensive imagination work around what challenges teaching may involve and how to deal with them as it stimulates anticipatory reflection (Conway, 2001) and creation (M. Clarke, 2008). The ESL activities in the Methodology and Skills units also provided a space for teacher learners to imagine the kinds of experiences and challenges involved in fulfilling ESL activities on the part of learners.

To further explore the imaginative potential of engaging with ESL activities, the teacher learners' collaborative reflections on their experience with an information gap task were analysed in the single-conversation study reported in Chapter 7. Through the two major processes of imagining-that and imagining-how (Casey, 2000), the teacher learners and Winston reflected on the likely challenges learners would have in fulfilling the task and how they could foster student learning. Their imaginative reflection extended to different aspects of teaching ESL related to TBLT, form-focused instruction, and needs analysis. Also, in several parts of the exchange, the interlocutors positioned themselves and their co-discussants as members of 'language users' and 'language teachers' communities. In the context of lesson planning conferences, Morton and Gray (2010) similarly reported their participants' imagination and identity work as they put forward proposals for action and discussed the possible impacts of these actions in the reality of classroom.

The interviews provided additional evidence of the teacher learners' imagination work as part of their identity development. In his reflections on how the course had raised his awareness of his own language use as a teacher, a teacher learner reported his active involvement in imagining how his language was "being heard by people who don't have English as a first language." Sharing a different experience of imagination, another teacher learner said her decision making as a teacher was partly informed by what she thought Winston would do in similar situations. Another teacher learner highlighted the consequences of lack of a practicum in the course through picturing the expectations she would need to fulfil in the workplace. This

very teacher learner showed an increase in her confidence in her pedagogical knowledge during the course through imagining a conversation with a colleague where she would be able to help the colleague with their questions about teaching.

The data provided no negative evidence of limitations of the teacher learners' imagination. In Chapter 6 only, the way Winston presented prescriptivism and descriptivism was argued to potentially impact on the teacher learners' imagination work as relating to their language analyst and language teacher roles. The incomplete picture Winston portrayed of prescriptivism, his strong advocacy of descriptivism as the only legitimate view of language, and his failure to establish the relevance of prescriptivism to formal language use and instruction were argued to potentially lead the teacher learners to construct a stereotypical image of prescriptivism and limit their imagination work around their 'formal L2 teacher' role.

Lack of engagement with teaching practice is similarly likely to have limited the teacher learners' identity formation through imagination. Regarding the power of combined engagement and imagination, Wenger (1998) argues that this combination results in a reflective practice which enables us "to engage and to distance - to identify with an enterprise as well as to view it in context, with the eyes of an outsider" (p. 217). Thus, lack of a teaching practice component in the TESOL Grad Cert, which the previous section showed to be its main limitation, can be argued to have deprived the teacher learners of marvellous opportunities for negotiating their identities through imagination. Engagement with teaching would support the teacher learners in rethinking their imagined identities and practices and developing a 'furnished imagination' (Kiely & Askham, 2012). Dudley (2013), for example, reported that a combination of imagined practice and joint development of micro practices in lesson study groups facilitated primary teachers' imagining, observing, analysing, re-imagining, and, as a result, improving pupils' learning.

Given most teacher learners' strong teaching backgrounds, their long-term engagement with the core aspects of teaching had most probably made them less reliant than their novice peers on direct teaching experience to negotiate their identities. Their imaginations, then, would not be as distant from their teaching practice as those of pre-service teachers, like those studied by Guz and Tetiurka (2013), nor as vulnerable to challenges of the reality of teaching as reported by Trent (2012) for his pre-service participants. Yet, as also mentioned in the final paragraph of 'Engagement', they mostly lacked experience of teaching L2. Therefore, their lack of access

to teaching practice in the course can be argued to have limited their imagination, at least regarding the L2-specific aspects of teaching. These consequences are obviously more profound in the case of the novice teacher learners.

Alignment

The TESOL Grad Cert was found to afford opportunities for teacher learners' identity construction through practicing alignment. As explained in some of the chapters, Wenger (1998) conceptualises alignment as a two-way process of individuals aligning themselves with the established belief system and practice and also demanding the wider community to align itself with their ideas and experiences. All three datasets provided relevant evidence of the former and limited instantiations of the latter.

Analysis of the language-focused exchanges in Chapter 6 identified the teacher learners' experience of practicing alignment with the established principles and procedures of a descriptivist view of language. They were found to experience a trajectory from high levels of commitment to the truthfulness of unexamined assumptions about language to an increased interest in searching for objective evidence and seeking expert opinion informed by which they would choose proportionate levels of truth commitment. One of the interviewed teacher learners was similarly found to have become more appreciative of the place of linguistics, which was presented in a descriptivist paradigm in the course, in teaching ESL. This reflected her practice of alignment with an established content area in TESOL as part of her identity negotiation. Other studies have similarly reported alignment with pedagogical theories and practices promoted in teacher education as a major way in which teacher learners negotiate their identities (M. Clarke, 2008; Gardiner-Hyland, 2014b; Lee, 2013; Trent, 2010c). Additionally, the interviews reflected the teacher learners' investment in the assignments which required their adherence to the guidelines and the steps presented in their rubrics. Alignment as such was also reported by Trent (2010c) to have informed his pre-service participants' identity formation as they attempted to align themselves with the requirements of a compulsory research project while trying to fulfil the expectations of their practicum. The reported impact, however, was negative as the experience of simultaneous involvement in research and practicum made the participants question the feasibility of working as teacher-researchers in their future career. Yet, it shows the significance of alignment as a mode of identity formation. Document analysis further confirmed the potential opportunities for alignment in the

assignments. It also highlighted such potential to exist in the several instances of discussion questions and tutorial preps and activities which asked teacher learners to examine their beliefs and practice based on the readings. An example given in the relevant chapter was from a task which asked teacher learners to evaluate the activities they selected for a target learner group against the criteria proposed by H. D. Brown (2007).

The empirical studies also included evidence, though limited, of the teacher learners' demanding alignment with their own experiences and ideas. Analysis of the documents showed that while, as noted above, teacher learners were asked to evaluate their ideas against the professional literature, they were also encouraged to critically examine its validity and adequacy in light of their own experiences and observations and adapt it accordingly. For example, they were asked to decide on the relevance of the principles of teaching listening proposed by H. D. Brown (2007) to their selected activities. Another example was a tutorial prep which asked teacher learners to evaluate the effectiveness of L2 teaching methods based on the perceived specifics of their own contexts. In the language-focused conversations in Chapter 6, while Winston promoted language corpora as useful tools of exploring how language is used in the reality of human communication, he encouraged a critical approach to them through raising doubts about the objectivity of evidence they provide and their usefulness to language learners.

Encouraging teacher learners to practice alignment in both directions discussed above is an important step in fostering their identity development. It combines a focus on the necessity of their aligning with the macro structure to develop a sense of legitimate participation and membership in the wider community of TESOL with an emphasis on their autonomy and agency. In the review of the literature on teacher education as a community practice (Chapter 3), it was discussed at length that this literature often ignores the bidirectionality of alignment. On the one hand, the scholarship on curricular alignment often stresses teachers' accountability to policies and ignores teachers' share in decision-making (e.g., Herman & Webb, 2007; Paik et al., 2011; Porter et al., 2007). On the other hand, many critics of this discourse either present teachers as its helpless victims (e.g., Ball, 2003; Delandshere & Petrosky, 2004; Hayes, 2001) or focus so much on teachers' transformative and emancipatory roles that they fail to recognise the importance of teachers' initial alignment with the established structure to their gaining legitimacy as members of the wider community (Akbari, 2008). The combined emphasis in the TESOL Grad Cert on the teacher learners' acquisition of the established knowledgebase and

critical examination of this very knowledge in light of their own experiences and observations individually and in classroom dialogues can be considered to be conducive to the teacher learners' identity work since it encourages two-way alignment.

None of the studies provided negative evidence which would suggest constraints on the teacher learners' practice of alignment. However, given the strong connections between alignment and engagement (Wenger, 1998), it can be argued, as it was with imagination, that lack of engagement in teaching practice has constrained the teacher learners' identity negotiation through alignment. Regarding how engagement involves the work of alignment, Wenger (1998) argues that it "involves the need to coordinate practices" which "translates into an exploration of boundaries that can serve to expand the possibilities for learning and identity" (p. 218). As again argued in the section on imagination, despite most teacher learners' strong teaching backgrounds, lack of engagement with L2 teaching and the consequent limited practice of alignment with the L2-specific aspects of teaching have arguably impacted on their L2 teacher identity formation. Engagement with teaching has been reported in other studies as fostering teacher learners' practice of alignment and identity formation. Trent and Shroff (2013), for example, found that their teacher learners negotiated their teacher identities partly through practicing alignment with institutional policies in practicum schools. In Clarke's (2008) study, the participants' interactions with their supervising school teachers and their investment in brokering new practices to school communities involved their practice of two-way alignment and informed their identity construction. The participant in He and Lin's (2013) study was similarly reported to negotiate her identity through two-way alignment. She incorporated innovative strategies into her practicum teaching to improve her students' learning while she consciously avoided violating the school policies. Such rich opportunities for identity development were lacking in the TESOL Grad Cert mainly because it did not have a teaching practice component, which provided the context for the participants in the above reported studies to practice alignment.

Negotiability

As explained before, Wenger (1998) believes that identity formation is comprised of the two components of identification and negotiability. The above discussion shed light on the ways in which the teacher learners negotiated their identities in the TESOL Grad Cert through a focus on the three modes of identification proposed by Wenger (1998, 2000), namely engagement,

imagination, and alignment. It also dealt with factors which may foster or hinder teacher learners' identity negotiation through each of these modes. Thus, the above section inevitably involved a focus on negotiability through an analysis of teacher learners' degree of control over the meanings produced in the course and the factors impacting on this control. In the present section, a final analysis of negotiability in the course is conducted as a way of summary.

The conversation analysis studies showed that the lectures were highly dialogical and thus provided a rich climate of negotiability. While the institutional identities of Winston, as the lecturer, and the teacher learners, as the students, inevitably informed classroom exchanges, no evidence suggested that these identities 'determined' their degrees of control over the meanings they produced in the conversations. The teacher learners and Winston shared distributed authority over negotiated meanings, which Wenger (1998) regards as a key feature of high negotiability. Their dialogues were also characterised by other features which Wenger associates with high negotiability, like "listening to other perspectives", "inviting contributions", and "argumentation" (Wenger, 1998, p. 210). Some of the conversations, like those in Chapter 5, explicitly instantiated the teacher learners' agency in questioning the legitimacy of Winston's ideas and making "bids for ownership" (Wenger, 1998, p. 200) in meaning negotiation by putting forward alternative ideas and interpretations. Most of the analysed conversations included examples of meanings produced by the teacher learners which were acknowledged and adopted by the cohort, including Winston. Regarding the significance of meaning adoption to the degree of negotiability in a community, Wenger (1998) argues, "[n]ew meanings contribute to a joint enterprise to the extent that they are adopted; only then do they become effective in the community. Adoption is a necessary part of production" (p. 202). In their study of exchanges in lesson planning conferences, Morton and Gray (2010) similarly saw the several instances of student teachers' meanings being adopted and incorporated into plans for action as constituting a space for their identity negotiation.

The documents further reflected the potential space for teacher learners' legitimate participation in the process of learning to teach and identity negotiation. Tutorial activities and opportunities for discussion and reflection were argued to potentially enable teacher learners to produce meanings and analyse them using the professional literature as well as examine the meanings presented in the literature in light of their own experiences and ideas. The resultant "interplay of experience and competence" (Wenger, 1998, p. 203) fosters teacher learners' ownership of meaning and development of an identity of participation. The interviews also

showed that the teacher learners deemed the atmosphere of the TESOL Grad Cert to be one of high negotiability. The interviewees positively talked about their interactions with their peers in the classroom and considered Winston's teaching style as engaging and his approach to their ideas as nonjudgmental and non-threatening. These suggest their satisfaction with a perceived recognition of their "ability, facility, and legitimacy" (Wenger, 1998, p. 197) to contribute to meaning negotiation.

In the conversations analysed in Chapters 5, Winston's ideas about body language and visual thinking were argued to have potential impacts on teacher learners' identity negotiation. Yet, it was argued that, thanks to the dialogical climate of the classroom conversations, his ideas were questioned rather than adopted by the teacher learners. Thus, drawing upon Wenger's (1998) emphasis on the importance of adoption to the impact of new meanings on a community, Winston's ideas did not necessarily limit the teacher learners' knowledge and identity construction. In fact, the entire conversations featured the teacher learners' attempts to problematise Winston's propositions through presenting counterarguments and counterexamples, a process which Winston himself facilitated. In the language-focused conversations in Chapter 6 though, how Winston presented prescriptivism may have had negative impacts on negotiability. Although he effectively argued against prescriptivism, he did not present any of the arguments supporting the appropriateness of linguistic prescriptions in formal language use situations and language educational settings. Additionally, he portrayed a narrow picture of prescriptivism by equating it with the complaint tradition. These indicate inadequate fulfilment of two important conditions for negotiability, namely "argumentation" and "opening access to information" (Wenger, 1998, p. 210).

Summary

In this chapter, the findings from the five qualitative studies conducted in the present dissertation were integrated as guided by Wenger's (1998) conceptualisation of identity formation and enriched by the relevant literature. The way the course was structured, as reflected in the documents, conducted, as manifested in classroom conversations, and perceived by the interviewed teacher learners showed the potential of the course for fostering teacher identity negotiation in several ways. It created an interactive space for teacher learners' mutual involvement in meaning negotiation and engagement with different components of the course and aspects of teaching. It supported their imagination work around issues related to L2

teaching and learning. It also fostered their practice of alignment, where they both aligned themselves with the established knowledgebase and practice in TESOL and also examined the established competence in light of their own ideas and experiences. Teacher learners engaged in these processes of meaning negotiation within an atmosphere of high negotiability.

Three major limitations on teacher learners' identity formation were recognised. Lack of a practicum component resulted in a limited space for their identity negotiation through engagement with teaching practice. A major focus on developing teacher learners' declarative knowledge about language excluded a focus on its pedagogical applications, further limiting teacher learners' identity work as relating to the 'language teacher' domain of L2 education. And, presenting descriptivism and prescriptivism as binary oppositions and underrepresenting the latter were argued to potentially impact on teacher learners' reconciling the two views, developing an adequate understanding of prescriptivism, and negotiating the identity of 'formal L2 teacher'. They were also discussed as limiting argumentation in favour of prescriptivism and teacher learners' access to adequate information about this linguistic view.

The abovementioned opportunities and constraints of the TESOL Grad Cert can be considered as competing forces impacting on how teacher learners negotiate their identities. Thus, while the teacher learners engaged in rich in-the-moment identity experiences in classroom exchanges and considered the course as having contributed to their learning, the pedagogical relevance of language analysis was not established and an ESL aspect did not emerge in most teacher learners' identity trajectories as indicated by the interviews. Also, while the teacher learners who were equipped with prior extensive involvement in teaching practice attributed their increased self-confidence to the knowledge they acquired in the course, the course was perceived as a less strong resource for confidence-building on the part of the novice teacher learners who attributed their growth in this regard to their experience of teaching practice outside the university.

CHAPTER 11

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Conclusions

The present dissertation consisted of five qualitative studies which explored the potential of a graduate course of TESOL for fostering TLs' identity negotiation through a CoP-informed analysis of the classroom conversations, the TLs' interviews, and the course documents. The course was found to provide a space conducive to TLs' involvement in mutual meaning negotiation, engagement with different components of the course, such as the readings, the tutorial preps and activities, and the assignments, and experience with several aspects of teaching, like ESL materials, teaching techniques, and language analysis tools. The course was also discussed to support TLs' identity negotiation through imagination as relating to different L2 teaching and learning issues. Finally, it was found to foster TLs' practice of alignment, both through improving their understanding of the established knowledgebase and practice in the area of TESOL and supporting them in building on their own ideas and experiences to examine the legitimacy of the established competence. TLs were discussed to engage in these processes of identification within an atmosphere of negotiability. The constraints of the course on TLs' identity formation were lack of practical teaching elements, like a practicum component, a major focus on developing TLs' declarative linguistic knowledge, and presenting a dichotomous view of descriptivism and prescriptivism and a limited picture of the latter.

Implications for TESOL Teacher Education

The engagement of the participant TLs in rich in-the-moment identity experiences in classroom exchanges and their positive perceptions of the interactive and engaging nature of the TESOL Grad Cert once again confirm the importance that the literature has actively attached to adopting a dialogical approach to educating teachers. The dynamic, socially negotiated, and relational nature of identity formation (Barrett, 2008; Beijaard et al., 2004; Varghese et al., 2005) which is a fundamental dimension of learning (Wenger, 1998), in general, and learning to teach (H. T. Nguyen, 2008), in particular, sheds further light on the significance of conducting teacher education in a dialogical manner. It is within an atmosphere of distributed

knowledge and ownership of meaning that TLs come to identify themselves and their peers as co-members of the immediate community of the teacher education cohort and the wider community of L2 teachers. Therefore, for a teacher education course to serve as a productive space for teacher identity negotiation, it should adopt a dialogical approach to how the established knowledge is presented to TLs and how their local experiences, observations, and ideas are incorporated into the learning process.

The findings of the present research further showed the significant and unique contributions of the teacher educator to creating and maintaining a dialogical atmosphere, further confirming the significance attached in the literature to the key role of teacher educators in facilitating TLs' learning. How the teacher educator in this study treated the TLs', sometimes opposing, ideas and built on them to maximise learning opportunities in the classroom, how he invited the TLs to critically examine his ideas and arguments and those included in the professional literature, how he opened a space for their personal and local experiences and ideas to inform the classroom learning process, and how these measures facilitated the TLs' identity negotiation experiences show the tremendous importance of the role of teacher educators in supporting TLs' learning. The importance of dialogical pedagogy in teacher education has been a focus of scholars' attention for decades (e.g., Fernandez-Balboa & Marshall, 1994), with the importance of teacher educators' role in making teacher education dialogues a rich space for learning and identity negotiation emphasised in several scholarly writings (e.g., K. E. Johnson, 2015; Morton & Gray, 2010). Therefore, the dynamics of the teacher education classroom and the key place of teacher educators in informing these dynamics merit explicit attention at the levels of policy making, curriculum development, and teacher education practice. Also, these observations mean that conscious attempts should be made to prepare teacher educators for the central task of fostering TLs' moment-by-moment experience of learning and identity negotiation in the teacher education classroom.

Informed by Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998), the findings of this study suggest that preparation of teacher educators for a dialogical approach to educating teachers and fostering their identity negotiation should involve a focus on such aspects of effective engagement as trust, mutuality, diversity of perspectives, and recognition of participants' multimembership. These aspects, while important in all different types of teacher education programs, are of particular significance to graduate courses. Regarding trust, teacher educators should remain mindful of the wealth of knowledge and experience that practicing teachers bring to the course

from their previous teaching experience and actively and explicitly capitalise on these resources to enrich learning opportunities in the classroom. The varying degrees of insight these teachers have already developed into the artistry of teaching would position them in a mutual relation with each other and the teacher educator. More often than not, some teacher learners turn out to have had a longer engagement in teaching than their teacher educators. Thus, ways to realise this mutuality in the practice of teacher education merit conscious attention. Having taught varied subject matters and worked in variegated contexts, teacher learners who enrol in graduate courses tend to have diverse perspectives on different dimensions of their profession. While in a pre-service education context, diversity of views is mostly a result of participants' different 'apprenticeship of observation' experiences as former students, teacher learners in graduate courses have also examined and revisited their views in light of their previous teaching experiences. The diversity in their perspectives then should be treated as reflective of their long-term engagement with realities of teaching and get acknowledged and capitalised on as a major share of the intellectual material of teacher education. Finally, their experiences of teaching different subject matters, working in different contexts, and engaging with different teacher associations and communities entail establishing teacher education procedures which foster recognition of their multimembership as another resource for learning and identity formation. Experience of engagement as such should inform teacher learners' practice of imagination and alignment as the other modes of identification.

The analysis of the language-focused conversations reported in Chapter 6 suggested a potential impact of the teacher educator's dichotomous presentation of descriptivism and prescriptivism on TLs' identity negotiation. Although the literature has mainly reported pre-service teachers to tend to view pedagogical discourses as binary oppositions (Gardiner-Hyland, 2014b; He & Lin, 2013; Trent, 2013), practicing teachers who participate in graduate courses are also likely to adopt such misleading dualisms in their conceptions of teaching and identities. Therefore, in these courses it is equally important that teacher educators avoid reinforcing a dichotomous and antagonistic view of linguistic and pedagogical discourses. Instead, they should promote agonism by cultivating an atmosphere of collaborative reflection and helping TLs deconstruct dichotomous conceptions, recognise the legitimacy of alternative views, and develop a sophisticated understanding of L2 teaching (M. Clarke, 2008; Gu & Benson, 2015; Trent, 2013).

The TLs' dissatisfaction with the limitations of the TESOL Grad Cert on their engagement with practical aspects of teaching, with lack of a practicum component as the main culprit, strongly indicates the need to reconsider the structure of the graduate certificate of education in TESOL. Although these courses are often attended by practicing teachers from other subject areas, their teaching backgrounds do not necessarily eliminate the need for their engagement with the practice of teaching L2 as an important part of their learning process. Obviously, this need is more strongly felt with respect to novice TLs. Research reports from Australia and elsewhere show that many graduate programs of TESOL do include a practicum. Those reported by Burri et al. (2017), in Australia, and Kanno and Stuart (2011), in the USA, for example, had practicum components which both studies indicated as having contributed to the experienced and novice teacher participants' learning and identity negotiation. Financial constraints within which academic institutions operate usually constitute a major impediment to providing quality teacher education services, including incorporation of practicum components. Effective and research-informed communication of the educational, social, and financial consequences of inadequate teacher learning to stakeholders involved in formulating teacher education policies and designing teacher education curricula may facilitate restructuring of graduate certificate of education courses and inclusion of a practical teaching component in these programs. One cannot deny, however, that restructuring at such a fundamental level may not be very feasible. At the very least, it calls for a long-term collective commitment on the part of all those involved in teacher education to pave the way for this change to take place.

The findings of this study showed that, despite lack of practicum, the way the teacher educator had developed the Methodology and Skills units – specifically, the tutorial activities and assignments he had incorporated – supported TLs' engagement with several aspects of teaching. These findings suggest that, even in the absence of practical teaching components, there is still considerable room in a graduate course of TESOL to support TLs' involvement with teaching practice. How this space is made into opportunities for such involvement heavily depends on the teacher educator's understanding of teacher development and their abilities to support it. This line of argumentation therefore makes a focus on the role of teacher educators relevant again here. In the present research, the opportunities for teaching engagement identified in the analysis of the documents of the Methodology and Skills units show the impact of how the teacher educator has structured the course on its potential for fostering TLs' learning and identity negotiation. At the same time, lack of such opportunities in the Linguistics and

Sociolinguistics units and the relevant classroom conversations, all featuring a rather exclusive focus on developing TLs' declarative linguistic knowledge, indicates the teacher educator's failure to exploit the enormous potential in these units for engaging TLs with almost any pedagogical aspects of the foci in these units, including the practical side of those aspects. As these units constitute half of the whole course, the implications of the lack of a pedagogical focus for TLs' learning and identity negotiation are profound. Yet, this understanding is based on the assumption that all TLs take both of the Methodology and Skills units, which would foster their encounter with language pedagogy and their identity negotiation in this respect. This assumption is not always valid. As explained in the Research Methodology Chapter, the structure of the course of focus allows TLs to take three out of the four core units plus a unit from other areas of specialisation. Thus, it is possible that some take both of the Linguistics and Sociolinguistics units, either of the Methodology and Skills units, and a unit from another area. This means their further reduced access to a space where they can engage in negotiating the identity of a 'L2 teacher'. These course structural considerations indicate the paramount importance of teacher educators' conscious attempts, as unit coordinators, to establish the pedagogical relevance of the foci of the units related to language study, as the integration of language pedagogy and language analysis in TESOL teacher education has been shown to have considerable impacts on teacher learning (Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Riegelhaupt & Carrasco, 2005; Yates & Wigglesworth, 2005).

As mentioned earlier, the TESOL Grad Cert is usually attended by teachers with more or less extensive teaching backgrounds in other subject areas. In the discussion about how lack of practicum may hinder teacher identity negotiation, it was mentioned that TLs being equipped with strong teaching backgrounds does not necessarily remove the need for their engagement with teaching practice as part of their learning. Long-term involvement in teaching in the mainstream classroom can even be an additional reason why practicum teaching should be part of a graduate course of TESOL. The experience of transition from a mainstream education background to L2 education presents its own challenges as it sometimes involves substantial redefinition of what teaching is in light of the unique features of teaching L2 and, therefore, renegotiation of one's own identity as a teacher. The process of identity renegotiation is particularly challenging for highly experienced teachers since they enter a TESOL course with firmly established identities in other subject areas. Thus, they require extensive engagement with L2 teaching practice, and by the same token the pedagogical aspects of the linguistic knowledge presented to them, to experience a relatively smooth transition. In designing a

practicum component for a graduate course of TESOL though, similar components in pre-service programs cannot be adopted as perfectly suitable models. TLs' prior mainstream teaching experiences and the conflicts which may arise as they encounter an area of teaching which is in some respects similar and in other respects dissimilar to their previous teaching areas should be taken account of. At the same time, the possibility that a small proportion of participants are novice teachers, with some entirely lacking prior teaching experience, should not be ignored.

The abovementioned issues show the complexities and challenges involved in designing and implementing graduate courses of TESOL as a space for teacher learning and identity formation. However, since the finding emerging from the interviews showed that an ESL aspect did not emerge in most TLs' identity trajectories across the course, any steps towards refining the TESOL graduate certificate of education in light of the issues raised above would arguably foster TLs' identity construction. Any attempts to increase engagement with teaching practice and the pedagogical aspects of knowledge about language would support TLs in their journey towards progressively seeing themselves as 'L2 teachers'.

Methodological Reflections and Suggestions for Further Research

In this section, reflections on the conceptual lens adopted and the methodological choices made in this study are presented and built on to suggest future research directions. Communities of Practice (Wenger, 1998) was found to be a helpful conceptual lens to make sense of the three datasets. Given the strongly relational and socially negotiated nature of identity, the focus of this perspective on "individuals as social beings" (Hughes et al., 2007, p. 3) and on the collective as the major unit of analysis (Fuller, 2007) make CoP a useful tool for exploring identity. The central place CoP gives to identity formation as a key aspect of human learning in communities and its multi-faceted conceptualisation of this process in terms of *identification* (i.e., engagement, imagination, & alignment) and *negotiability* further highlights its usefulness to research on teacher identity formation in teacher education. The contributions of this perspective to the in-depth and comprehensive conceptual analysis of the three datasets in isolation (Chapters 5, 6, 7, 8, & 9) and in combination (Chapter 10) are testament to its adequacy as a conceptual tool for teacher identity research. Given several other CoP-informed studies reported in the review of the literature on L2 teacher identity (Chapter 2) and the wider teacher education literature (Chapter 3), the present study is one more example of CoP

benefitting teacher identity research as a theoretical lens. This study also showcases a novel application of this perspective through using it to make sense of the often neglected data source of documents in identity terms. Finally, the adequacy of CoP in fostering integration of findings from three vastly different data sources sheds further light on its efficacy as a theoretical lens in teacher identity research.

Methodologically, a novel aspect of this study was its focus on classroom conversations as a major data source and exploring the micro processes of identity work in a turn-by-turn analysis of selected exchanges. The insights Conversation Analysis yielded into how teacher learners and the teacher educator engage in identity work through classroom discussions – how the way they launch their own turns, engage with others’, and co-accomplish an exchange inform their identity experiences – suggest that CA can serve as a useful tool to study teacher identity negotiation. Using CA together with Discourse Analysis in Chapter 6 showed the enhanced efficacy of this toolkit to make sense of verbal interaction data.

This study has a number of limitations that are focused on here. The first one is related to connections between the classroom observation data and the interviews, which facilitated exploring how TLs negotiated their identities within classroom dialogues and across the course, respectively. By way of summary, a comparison of the findings of these two datasets showed that despite rich identity experiences in the classroom conversations, the interviews yielded only limited evidence of shifts in the TLs’ identities. It was argued that this could be a consequence of limited practical teaching elements and lack of a focus on the pedagogical relevance of the linguistic knowledge presented and constructed in the course. Though legitimate and partly informed by relevant data, this argument remained at a rather hypothetical level as it was not possible to more effectively integrate and compare the classroom observation data and the interviews. The reason behind this limitation was that the participants in the two study phases were relatively different. Not all of the interviewees were present in all recorded classroom conversations, as some did not take all of the units during the data collection period and some were absent from a number of the observed sessions. Additionally, half of the TLs in the cohort, who were 14 on average, did not agree to be interviewed (i.e., consistent with the ethics protocols). Therefore, the different makeups of the participants in the two study phases made it impossible to conduct an in-depth exploration of connections between the TLs’ in-the-moment identity experiences in the classroom conversations and their course-long identity shifts. Future research with a similar design would benefit from more extensive classroom

observation as it will increase the likelihood of capturing interviewed TLs' experiences of identity negotiation in the classroom. Prior knowledge about what TESOL Grad Cert units the interviewees enrol in and what sessions they are sure to attend would also help researchers with effective targeting of sessions for observation and successful capturing of the interviewees' identity experiences as they engage in classroom conversations. Yet, interviewees' varied levels of contribution to classroom conversations may reduce the feasibility of integrating this type of data with interview data. This limitation on data triangulation remains an inherent challenge of this research design.

Another limitation of this research project is related to the number of interviews conducted with each participant. Two interviews with each TL, early in and towards the end of the course, are the minimum number of interviews required to capture their identity shifts during teacher education. Multiple interviews at shorter intervals across the course would provide a more thorough and in-depth picture of how the participants' identities changed as they participated in the TESOL Grad Cert. There are a few examples in the literature of studies where multiple interviews during teacher education helped the researchers develop an in-depth understanding of teacher identity negotiation. Conducting three rounds of interviews before, in the middle, and at the end of a practicum placement helped Trent (2013) explore how his participants negotiated their identities in different stages of their engagement in practicum. So did the interviews before the practicum and after each lesson in Dang's (2013) study. Collecting data in multiple stages of teacher education using other tools is similarly helpful. An example is the study by Ruohotie-Lyhty and Moate (2016) where each participant wrote three narratives at the beginning and the end of the first semester and at the end of the second year. These narratives, together with two teaching reports from each participant, helped the researchers highlight three different ways in which their participants negotiated their identities, namely expansive, reductive, and attentive. Also, interviewing the graduates a few months or a year after the completion of the course, when they have had some engagement with the reality of teaching in educational settings, offers insights into the possible long-term impacts of the identities they develop during the course on their teaching practice as well as the impacts of their involvement in teaching on those identities. Such insights were presented by Lee (2013) based on interviews with teachers two months after they completed a graduate unit on teaching writing and again a year after the first interview. Future research should similarly benefit from collecting data from TLs at different intervals during and after teacher education.

Although the present research involved three data sources, the investigation into the seven focal TLs' identities was limited to interviews. They did not keep reflective journals as part of their participation in the course and their unit assignments were not accessible to the researcher. Collecting different types of data from these participants would have enriched the understanding developed of their identity trajectories. The literature includes several examples of researchers' effective investigation of teachers' identity construction as informed by data sources in addition to interviews, such as lesson plans and reflective reports (He & Lin, 2013), online discussions and stimulated recall (Henry, 2016), audio-recorded classroom discussions and the researcher's reflective journals (Abednia, 2012), and video-recorded teaching practice and audio-recorded lesson plan meetings (E. R. Yuan, 2016). Future studies can contribute invaluable insights into the dynamic process of teacher identity formation if they also use a combination of different data sources to explore how teachers negotiate their identities during teacher education.

While the teacher education cohort included a total of four TLs with LOTE backgrounds, only one agreed to be interviewed. Access to more participants from this group would have enabled the researcher to explore these teachers' identity negotiation experiences while they were learning to teach in Australia, an English-speaking context with an increasingly multicultural demography. The researcher would have also been able to identify any meaningful similarities and differences between the TLs with LOTE backgrounds and their native English speaker classmates in how their identities developed during teacher education. Some of the studies reported in the Literature Review Chapter showed that the process of identity development experienced by TLs with LOTE backgrounds involves unique dynamics and challenges as these teachers encounter different academic, pedagogical, and sociocultural norms and practices in the English-speaking context of teacher education (e.g., Kong, 2014; H. T. M. Nguyen & Sheridan, 2016; G. Park, 2012). This topic was also identified as under-researched. Therefore, future studies with a similar focus will contribute to the expansion of this area.

As the course coordinator and lecturer, the teacher educator in this study had an important impact on how the TESOL Grad Cert informed the TLs' identity construction. This was reflected in the analysis of unit documents and classroom conversations. Yet, this study would have benefited from a closer investigation into how the teacher educator's identity and views informed the way he designed and implemented the course and reinforced its potential and constraints regarding teacher identity formation. In fact, most studies in this area lack a major

focus on the impact of teacher educators on teacher identity negotiation. A few which include this focus have drawn on the data collected from TLs rather than teacher educators or mentors themselves (e.g., He & Lin, 2013; Henry, 2016; H. T. M. Nguyen & Sheridan, 2016; G. Park, 2012; E. R. Yuan, 2016). Therefore, they do not go beyond TLs' perceptions to provide an in-depth understanding of how teacher educators' or practicum mentors' pedagogical views and identities impact on teacher identity development. This understanding can be developed through direct exploration of teacher educators' and mentors' identities by using tools like interviews and observation of their practice in teacher education.

Finally, as also discussed in the Literature Review Chapter, little research exists on how TLs engage in identity negotiation in the teacher education classroom and the conversations taking place in it. The present study partly addressed this gap. More research, however, is necessary to enhance our understanding of how the interactional dynamics in the teacher education classroom inform teacher identity formation.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A - Interview Framework

A. Biography/background

1. Tell me about yourself and your cultural, linguistic, economic, educational and family background. Do you belong to a minority group?
2. Have you ever taught ESL? If yes, in what contexts?
3. Have you attended other teacher education courses so far? Describe them and explain what you liked and didn't like about them?
4. To what extent is your teaching life in harmony with your personal life? Is the teacher you are the person you are?
5. How do you think your background influences your teaching beliefs and conduct?

B. Self-image

1. How do you describe yourself as a teacher?
2. In the past, what type of teacher did you think you would be in the future?
3. *If some changes in the value system and teaching beliefs are observed, i.e. if the answer is different from the answer to question 1: Why aren't you like that now?*
4. How do others describe you as a teacher? To what extent do you agree with them? Why do you think they describe you this way? How do their descriptions of you affect you as a teacher?
5. Describe one of your past teachers who you favoured most?
6. Describe one of your past teachers who you favoured least?
7. Who else has greatly influenced your teaching beliefs and performance? Please explain how they have influenced you.

C. Self-efficacy

1. What do you think about your teaching ability, i.e. your teaching skills and knowledge? (How and why did you come to think of your teaching ability the way you do?)
2. How do you compare your ability to teach with your colleagues'?
3. *If the interviewee is a nonnative speaker of English: What do you think of your English language skills?*
4. *If the interviewee is a nonnative speaker of English: How do you compare your abilities with native teachers? In what areas do you think you are more or less efficient than them? To explore their collective efficacy: Are these true about all nonnative teachers?*
5. How do you compare your abilities with (fe)male teachers? In what areas are you more or less efficient than them? Why? *To explore their collective efficacy: Are these true about all (fe)male teachers?*
6. What do others (e.g., the line manager, supervisors, colleagues, and students) think of you as a teacher?

D. Job motivation

1. What made you choose teaching?
2. What made/may make you stay in teaching?
3. Do the reasons that you initially had in mind for becoming a teacher still exist? Which? Why?
4. Is there any possibility of leaving teaching as your main career? What may make you do so?

5. How committed do you think you are to your job?
6. How committed do others (e.g., the line manager, supervisors, colleagues, and students) think you are?
7. What do you do to improve professionally?

E. Task perception

1. How do you define your job of teaching?
2. What is your purpose of teaching ESL?
3. What are your main responsibilities as a teacher toward yourself, your students, your colleagues, curriculum and materials, educational settings, authorities, and society? Which are the most important ones? Why?
4. What skills do you think you should have/develop to fulfil your responsibilities?
5. What responsibilities do others expect you to fulfil? Which do you like and which don't you like? Why?
6. How do you deal with assigned duties which differ from your preferences?
7. In what ways do you think you have affected your students, your colleagues, authorities, curriculum and materials, educational settings, and society?
8. What do you want to change about the present situation?
9. How do you define good and bad resources and materials?
10. What are the advantages and limitations of the materials you commonly teach?
11. What are the characteristics of good instructional strategies?
12. What are your favourite ESL teaching techniques and strategies? Why do you like them?
13. How much freedom do you feel you have in choosing what to teach and how? How free should you be in doing so?
14. What institutional policies limit/increase your opportunity to make decisions independently? How do you deal with them?
15. To what extent do you think you affect the context where you work?
16. To what extent do you think you *can* affect the context where you work?
17. To what extent does the context affect you?
18. How do you feel when your classroom performance is observed?
19. How do you feel about your relationship with your colleagues? What should it be like and involve?
20. Please tell me about the professional interactions you have with your colleagues, line manager, and supervisors. What should it be like and involve?
21. Please explain the most critical experiences, including tensions and reforms, you have lived through in your teaching career and your learning? How have they affected you?
22. How do you deal with tensions/changes/innovations at work?
23. How is power exercised and shared in your classes?

F. Future perspective

24. What do you expect to happen in the future with regard to your development as a teacher?
25. What type of teacher do you want to be in the future?
26. Are there other professional responsibilities you'd like to fulfil in the future?

G. Emotional experiences related to teaching

27. When do you usually feel ... as a teacher?
 - a) Satisfied and happy
 - b) Excited
 - c) Self-confident

- d) Confused
- e) Angry
- f) Frustrated
- g) Dissatisfied
- h) Lacking in confidence
- i) Disempowered

H. Ideas about and expectations from the Graduate Certificate of Education in TESOL

Please answer these questions with a focus on the TESOL units you are doing at the moment.

1. What are your motivations of enrolling in the course? (The late-course version of this question: “Are your motivations of participation in the course the same as those you had when enrolling?”)
2. Do you think your expectations from the course have been met?
3. What major changes would you like to see in how the course has been designed and is implemented?
4. What do you think about the materials and instructional and assessment procedures?
5. If you were in a position to make decision about the course, what would your main priorities be?
6. How do you think the course has affected and will probably affect your career?

Appendix B – Information Letter and Consent Form for Observation Participants



INFORMATION LETTER TO THE POSTGRADUATE TEACHERS TO BE OBSERVED

Title of Research: Teacher Professional Development: Contributions of a TESOL Teacher Education Program in Australia

My name is Arman Abednia and I am a postgraduate student in a PhD degree at Edith Cowan University in Perth, Western Australia. You are invited to take part in this research, which I am conducting as part of the requirement of my degree. The research has ethics approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee at ECU.

This research aims to explore how TESOL teacher education affects teachers' understanding of who they are as teachers. If you choose to take part in the research you will

- be observed in 3 sessions of each of the 4 units of the TESOL course;
- be audio recorded in 2 of the observations from each unit;
- be video recorded in 1 of the observations from each unit.

All information collected during the research project will be treated confidentially and will be coded so that you remain anonymous. All data collected will be stored securely on ECU premises during the research and for five years after the research has concluded and then will be safely destroyed. The information will be presented in a written report, in which your identity will not be revealed. A summary of the final report will be available to you. Before any part of this footage is used for purposes other than this research, such as in workshops or conference presentations, your specific permission will be sought.

I anticipate that there are no risks associated with participating in this research. The only inconveniences involved will be the presence of me, a digital voice recorder, and a video camera for observations.

Participation in this research is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time and there will be no penalty for doing so. If you would like to take part in the research, please complete, sign and return the attached Consent Form to me.

If you have any questions about the research or require further information you may contact the following:

Student Researcher: Arman Abednia
Telephone number: 0420573810
Email: aabednia@our.ecu.edu.au

Supervisor: Dr Yvonne Haig
Telephone number: (08) 6304 5491
Email: y.haig@ecu.edu.au

If you have any concerns or complaints and wish to contact an independent person about this research, you may contact:

Research Ethics Officer
Edith Cowan University
Phone: (+61 8) 6304 2170
Email: research.ethics@ecu.edu.au

Thank you for your time,

Yours sincerely

Arman Abednia



CONSENT FORM FOR THE POSTGRADUATE TEACHERS TO BE OBSERVED

Title of Research: Teacher Professional Development: Contributions of a TESOL Teacher Education Program in Australia

- I have been provided with a letter explaining the research and I understand the letter.
- I have been given the opportunity to ask questions and all my questions have been answered satisfactorily.
- I am aware that I can contact Dr Yvonne Haig or the ECU Research Ethics Officer if I have any further queries, or if I have concerns or complaints. I have been given their contact details in the Information Letter.
- I understand that participating in this research will involve:
 - Being observed three times throughout the year;
 - Being video recorded in the class for one session per unit using a wide-angle camera and audio recorded for two sessions per unit using a digital voice recorder;
 - Notes being taken during the observations;
- I understand that the researcher will be able to identify me but that all the information I give will be coded, kept confidential and will be accessed only by the researcher and his/her supervisor.
- I am aware that the information collected during this research will be stored in a locked cabinet at ECU for 5 years after the completion of the research and will then be safely destroyed by the researcher.
- I understand that I can withdraw from the research at any time without penalty.
- I consent to being audio and video recorded.
- I freely agree to participate in this research:

NAME: _____

SIGNATURE: _____ DATE: _____

Appendix C - Information Letter and Consent Form for Interviewees



INFORMATION LETTER TO THE POSTGRADUATE TEACHERS; MAIN PARTICIPANTS

Title of Research: Teacher Professional Development: Contributions of a TESOL Teacher Education Program in Australia

My name is Arman Abednia and I am a postgraduate student in a PhD degree at Edith Cowan University in Perth, Western Australia. You are invited to take part in this research, which I am conducting as part of the requirement of my degree. The research has ethics approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee at ECU.

This research aims to explore how TESOL teacher education affects teachers' understanding of who they are as teachers. If you choose to take part in the research you will

- be interviewed at the beginning and the end of the course (each around 1 hour);
- be observed in 3 sessions of each of the 4 units of the TESOL course;
- be audio recorded in 2 of the observations from each unit;
- be video recorded in 1 of the observations from each unit;
- be asked to check part of the analysis of data to ensure it is accurately interpreted.

All information collected during the research project will be treated confidentially and will be coded so that you remain anonymous. All data collected will be stored securely on ECU premises during the research and for five years after the research has concluded and then will be safely destroyed. The information will be presented in a written report, in which your identity will not be revealed. A summary of the final report will be available to you. Before any part of this footage is used for purposes other than this research, such as in workshops or conference presentations, your specific permission will be sought.

I anticipate that there are no risks associated with participating in this research. The only inconveniences involved will be the time taken for the interview and feedback on the analysis and the presence of me, a digital voice recorder, and a video camera for observations.

Participation in this research is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time and there will be no penalty for doing so. If you would like to take part in the research, please complete, sign and return the attached Consent Form to me.

If you have any questions about the research or require further information you may contact the following:

Student Researcher: Arman Abednia
Telephone number: 0420573810
Email: aabednia@our.ecu.edu.au

Supervisor: Dr Yvonne Haig
Telephone number: (08) 6304 5491
Email: y.haig@ecu.edu.au

If you have any concerns or complaints and wish to contact an independent person about this research, you may contact:

Research Ethics Officer
Edith Cowan University
Phone: (+61 8) 6304 2170
Email: research.ethics@ecu.edu.au

Thank you for your time,

Yours sincerely

Arman Abednia



CONSENT FORM FOR THE POSTGRADUATE TEACHERS; MAIN PARTICIPANTS

Title of Research: Teacher Professional Development: Contributions of a TESOL Teacher Education Program in Australia

- I have been provided with a letter explaining the research and I understand the letter.
- I have been given the opportunity to ask questions and all my questions have been answered satisfactorily.
- I am aware that I can contact Dr Yvonne Haig or the ECU Research Ethics Officer if I have any further queries, or if I have concerns or complaints. I have been given their contact details in the Information Letter.
- I understand that participating in this research will involve:
 - Being interviewed twice, once at the beginning and once at the end of the course;
 - My voice being recorded using a digital voice recorder;
 - Notes being taken at the interviews;
 - Being observed three times throughout the year;
 - Being video recorded in the class for one session per unit using a wide-angle camera;
 - Notes being taken during the observations;
 - Checking part of the analysis of data to ensure it is accurately interpreted.
- I understand that the researcher will be able to identify me but that all the information I give will be coded, kept confidential and will be accessed only by the researcher and his/her supervisor.
- I am aware that the information collected during this research will be stored in a locked cabinet at ECU for 5 years after the completion of the research and will then be safely destroyed by the researcher.
- I understand that I can withdraw from the research at any time without penalty.
- I consent to being audio and video recorded.
- I freely agree to participate in this research:

NAME: _____

SIGNATURE: _____ DATE: _____

Appendix D - Information Letter and Consent Form for the Lecturer



INFORMATION LETTER TO THE TEACHER EDUCATOR

Title of Research: Teacher Professional Development: Contributions of a TESOL Teacher Education Program in Australia

My name is Arman Abednia and I am a postgraduate student in a PhD degree at Edith Cowan University in Perth, Western Australia. You are invited to take part in this research, which I am conducting as part of the requirement of my degree. The research has ethics approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee at ECU.

This research aims to explore how TESOL teacher education affects teachers' understanding of who they are as teachers. If you choose to take part in the research you will

- be asked to have some ethnographic conversations with the researcher (e.g., casual talks and email exchange), depending on the amount of your free time;
- be observed in 3 sessions of each of the 4 units;
- be audio recorded in 2 of the observations from each unit;
- be video recorded in 1 of the observations from each unit;
- be asked to check part of the analysis of data to ensure it is accurately interpreted.

All information collected during the research project will be treated confidentially and will be coded so that you remain anonymous. All data collected will be stored securely on ECU premises during the research and for five years after the research has concluded and then will be safely destroyed. The information will be presented in a written report, in which your identity will not be revealed. A summary of the final report will be available to you.

I anticipate that there are no risks associated with participating in this research. The only inconveniences involved will be the time taken for the interview, conversations, and feedback on the analysis and the presence of me, a digital voice recorder, and a video camera for observations.

Participation in this research is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time and there will be no penalty for doing so. If you would like to take part in the research, please complete, sign and return the attached Consent Form to me.

If you have any questions about the research or require further information you may contact the following:

Student Researcher: Arman Abednia
Telephone number: 0420573810

Email: aabednia@our.ecu.edu.au

Supervisor: Dr Yvonne Haig

Telephone number: (08) 6304 5491

Email: y.haig@ecu.edu.au

If you have any concerns or complaints and wish to contact an independent person about this research, you may contact:

Research Ethics Officer

Edith Cowan University

Phone: (+61 8) 6304 2170

Email: research.ethics@ecu.edu.au

Thank you for your time,

Yours sincerely

Arman Abednia



CONSENT FORM FOR THE TEACHER EDUCATOR

Title of Research: Teacher Professional Development: Contributions of a TESOL Teacher Education Program in Australia

- I have been provided with a letter explaining the research and I understand the letter.
- I have been given the opportunity to ask questions and all my questions have been answered satisfactorily.
- I am aware that I can contact Dr Yvonne Haig or the ECU Research Ethics Officer if I have any further queries, or if I have concerns or complaints. I have been given their contact details in the Information Letter.
- I understand that participating in this research will involve:
 - Ethnographic conversations, e.g., casual talks and email exchange, with the researcher, depending on the amount of free time I have;
 - Being observed three times throughout the year;
 - Being video recorded in the class for one session per unit using a wide-angle camera;
 - Notes being taken during the observations;
 - Checking part of the analysis of data to ensure it is accurately interpreted.
- I understand that the researcher will be able to identify me but that all the information I give will be coded, kept confidential and will be accessed only by the researcher and his/her supervisor.
- I am aware that the information collected during this research will be stored in a locked cabinet at ECU for 5 years after the completion of the research and will then be safely destroyed by the researcher.
- I understand that I can withdraw from the research at any time without penalty.
- I consent to having my voice recorded.
- I freely agree to participate in this research:

NAME: _____

SIGNATURE: _____ DATE: _____

Appendix E - Transcription Conventions

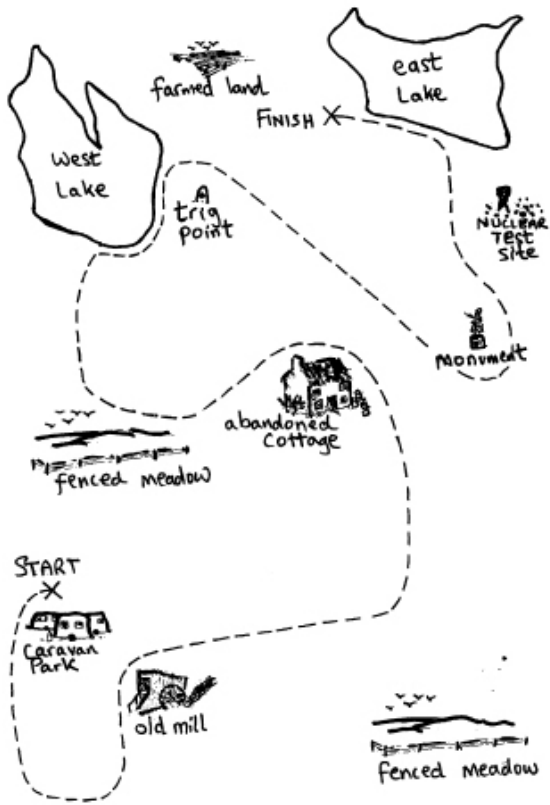
Transcription Conventions (Jefferson, 2004, pp. 70–78)

| <i>Symbol</i> | <i>Description</i> |
|---------------|--|
| [| Beginning of overlap |
| = | Latching (i.e., no interval between the end of a prior and the start of a next part of talk) with change of speakers |
| (.) | Untimed micro-intervals |
| (1.0) | Length of an interval in second and tenths of a second |
| ::: | Sound stretch |
| - | A cut-off of a prior word or sound |
| . | Stopping fall in tone |
| , | Continuing intonation |
| ... | Ellipsis: an utterance is partially reported |
| ? | Rising intonation |
| ,? | Rising intonation weaker than that indicated by a question mark |
| <u>word</u> | Emphasis |
| ↑ | Shift into high pitch |
| °word° | Sounds softer than the surrounding talk |
| >< | The bracketed material is speeded up |
| <> | The bracketed material is slowed down |
| ((...)) | Verbal descriptions and visual data |

Appendix F - Map Task

Surveyor map

Settler map



Retrieved from <http://groups.inf.ed.ac.uk/maptask/maptasknxt.html>