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Editorial introduction

With every issue released, we, the AJAL Editorial Team and FAAPI, renew our commitment to developing an open access platform for sharing research and practice in the vast field of applied linguistics.

We concur with Martel and Wang (2015) when they suggest that understanding teacher identity is crucial for creating teacher education opportunities which are contextualised and meaningful. The first article in this issue responds to the vast and growing interest in teacher identity. Based at the University of Bath (UK), Ba-Linh Tran and Hugo Santiago Sanchez explore, through a case study research methodology, the trajectory of two Vietnamese teachers of English to understand identity formation. Qua studies on funds of identity (e.g. Esteban-Guitart & Moll, 2014), the authors show qualitative autobiographical tools which help tap into teachers' biographies, roots, and ramifications.

Our second article responds to a recent addition to the type of submissions accepted by AJAL: the interview-based article. Through an inspiring example of international collaboration, Charles Bazerman and Diana Mónica Waigandt engage in an interview to discuss current issues and implications around the notion of writing across the curriculum with a particular focus on efforts made in the Argentinian context. The article features, what we shall call, an inclusive non-European-centred list of references for it contains the works of several Argentinian academics in the field of academic writing in higher education.

Our third article illustrates classroom activities from Indonesia. Authors Heffy Dianawati and Herri Mulyono, through collaboration between a teacher and a university-based teacher educator, provide an inspiring account of how writing can be promoted among teenage learners through a focus on creativity. Their experience serves as an example of the possible and the doable in ELT classrooms around the world. What is commendable about this practice-driven contribution is the solid rationale which informs such teaching practices.

The fourth contribution is also worth celebrating. It responds to our special call *Collaborative Writing in Teacher Education* to promote the publication of experiences taking place in higher education institutions in Argentina. The aim is to encourage teacher educators to work with their students in the dissemination of their practices

and research interests. In this case, student-teacher Sofia Alejandra Sottani and teacher educator Paola Cossu, from ISFD n° 129 (Buenos Aires) reflect on the importance of developing plurilingual competence in the language classroom. The authors provide ideas and potent concepts which can be explored in different settings.

Last, the issue contains a book review of Maureen Ellis' *The Critical Global Educator: Global Citizenship Education as Sustainable Development*. Routledge kindly sent us a copy of the book which Melina Porto accepted to review for AJAL. In the words of the reviewer, "this book represents a theoretical and empirical contribution to an understanding of global citizenship education as sustainable development and a conceptualisation of the critical global educator."

As a concluding thought, we would like to highlight the collaborative nature of this issue. The articles included represent how researchers and teacher educators based at different institutions can work with their students and other colleagues to promote the dissemination of their projects. This is a timely feature as the [2016 FAAPI Conference held in San Juan](#) dealt with the collaborative and multidisciplinary nature of English language teaching.

Darío Luis Banegas and Raquel Lothringer

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The person and the teacher: A case study into language teacher identity formation

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Abstract

Research in mainstream and language teacher education has underlined the importance of understanding teacher identity. As part of a larger investigation, this study examined the identity formation of two Vietnamese English teachers via a case study design using background and auto-biographical semi-structured interviews. The findings reinforce the conclusions drawn in some previous studies about teacher identity formation being a complex process involving professional and personal factors. Additionally, however, the results shed light on the role of formal and informal pre-training learning experiences both inside and outside the classroom, in the formation of *language* teacher identity. The study thus expands our understanding of teacher identity and calls for a more holistic perspective that acknowledges this multiplicity of prior learning experiences as well as the professional and personal dimensions of this construct.

Keywords: teacher identity; language education; holistic perspective; Vietnam.

Resumen

La investigación sobre la formación docente en general y en idiomas ha subrayado la importancia de comprender la identidad del maestro. Como parte de una investigación más amplia, este estudio examinó la formación de la identidad de dos profesores de inglés vietnamitas a través de un estudio de caso, utilizando entrevistas semi-estructuradas de antecedentes y auto-biográficas. Los resultados refuerzan las conclusiones de estudios anteriores sobre la formación de la identidad docente como un proceso complejo que involucra factores profesionales y personales. Por otra parte, sin embargo, los resultados arrojan luz sobre el papel de las experiencias previas de adquisición de una lengua formales e informales, dentro y fuera del aula, en la formación de la identidad del profesor de idiomas. El estudio amplía así nuestra comprensión de la identidad docente y sugiere una perspectiva más holística que reconozca esta multiplicidad de experiencias previas de aprendizaje, así como las dimensiones profesionales y personales de este constructo.

Palabras clave: identidad docente; enseñanza de idiomas; perspectiva holística; Vietnam.

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AS A SOCIAL construct that provides a framework for language teachers to be, act and understand (Sachs, 2005; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005), language teacher identity has attracted enquiry in recent years (see Fajardo Castañeda, 2014; Trent, 2013). This has added to our comprehension of not only teachers but also teaching. As Varghese et al. (2005, p. 22) argue, "[i]n order to understand language teaching and learning we need to understand teachers; and in order to understand teachers, we need to have a clearer sense of who they are." However, a review of the literature in language and mainstream education indicates that teacher identity has been investigated mainly from a professional perspective and that limited attention has been awarded to the role of personal factors in forming identity (see, e.g., O'Connor, 2008). The study reported in this article contributes to this line of enquiry on teacher identity by adopting a holistic perspective that encompasses both professional and personal aspects. More specifically, it examined how teachers' previous educational experiences as well as their life history were involved in identity formation.

Teacher Identity Formation

There appears to be little shared understanding of what constitutes the formation of teacher identity in both the language and mainstream education literature. Several authors have suggested that teacher identity formation is deeply influenced by prior learning experiences. Lortie (1975) introduced the notion of *apprenticeship of observation* to refer to the way in which teachers' experiences as learners influence their conceptualisation of education and teaching philosophies. Johnson (1994) reported, for example, that her pre-service English teacher participants held and acted out images of their former language educators, classroom dynamics, curricular materials and instructional activities. These pre-training conceptualisations and beliefs about teaching have been found to be resistant to change (Pajares, 1992) and to influence subsequent cognitive development and engagement with professional education (Sanchez, 2013). Professional education (both pre-service and in-service) has also been identified as a source of identity formation. This is well documented, for instance, in studies that investigate how teacher education programmes can support pre-training belief development, ranging from increasing awareness of, consolidating, and elaborating beliefs to redefining existing beliefs, incorporating new ones, and restructuring belief systems (Borg, 2011; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000). It has also been suggested that teacher education may facilitate teacher identity development if it involves reflective practice which enables trainees to confront and deconstruct their pre-conceived beliefs and personal pedagogical theories (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Sanchez, 2013).

These perspectives on teacher identity formation may be, however, limited as they focus on how teacher identity forms and manifests in formal educational settings

and may inadvertently blur the more humanistic, personal aspect of teacher identity. Zimmerman (1998) addresses this issue, albeit not intentionally, by arguing that identity is transferable; that is, it contains aspects that are attached to a person's physical and cultural attributes and thus carried with them. Although Zimmerman's focus was not on teachers, his view is significant to this study as it suggests that teacher identity may encompass sub-identities which are outside professional contexts and which may permeate, or be transferred to, the classroom. Thus, a teacher may be Southeast Asian, female, middle-aged, multilingual, musical and motherly, and these attributes might impact on the pedagogical decisions she makes (e.g. about the selection and use of content, teaching materials and instructional techniques).

The influence of personal factors on teacher identity and its formation has been acknowledged by recent scholarship. Nias (1989) underlines the link between persona and teaching, while Kissling (2014) argues that teachers' living curricula (lived experiences outside educational contexts) is carried into their classroom. O'Connor (2008, p. 119) reported the presence of personal emotionality in professional identity, reflected in the act of caring, and revealed that teachers' "private sphere" tended to be neglected in the rationalist discourse where they are judged based on their classroom performance. Likewise, exploring teacher personal identity from the viewpoint of students, Uitto (2012, p. 293) found the "inevitable presence of teachers' personal lives in schools". She considered this presence an opportunity to build teacher-student rapport and a valuable learning experience for students.

A few studies into language teacher identity have adopted a holistic perspective. Bukor (2015) studied the biography of three language teachers and found that their personal experiences, especially with their families, strongly influenced their career choice and pedagogy. Phan Le Ha (2008) found that her participants, Western-trained Vietnamese English teachers, had to navigate a complex system of identities expected of them. This complexity was conveyed by the Vietnamese metaphor "Daughter-in-Law of a Hundred families" (Phan Le Ha, 2008, p. 191), which depicts a daughter-in-law who has to fulfil numerous roles to please her spouse's family. The author additionally highlights the reflection of national and cultural values in teacher identity and states that identity, while flexible and dynamic, can move towards a state of being tied to those values.

It is this holistic perspective on language teacher identity which helped guide the study reported in this paper, as it sought to investigate the role which pre-service personal and educational experiences played in the formation of Vietnamese English teachers' identity.

The Study

Design, Context and Participants

The present study is part of a larger, multi-method investigation into the formation and manifestation of language teacher identity. It followed a case study design and examined the cases of two individual English language teachers born, raised and trained in Vietnam, a context which has not featured strongly in the teacher identity literature. The small number of cases suited our research purpose, as we aimed to obtain depth rather than breadth of responses concerning the participants' teacher identity formation. The small sample also facilitated our data collection, based on self-reflection and narrative.

The selection of the cases was based on four main criteria: nationality (Vietnamese), qualification (Bachelor's degree or above in English language teaching), experience (teaching experience in the context of Vietnam), and teaching status (in-service). The participants were not intended to be representative of any teacher population, institution or culture. Our interest was in their uniqueness as individual teachers.

The participants were Lam and Hoang (pseudonyms). Lam was a Vietnamese lecturer at a university in Saigon. He taught English language skills and teaching methodology mainly at university level, but also worked at language centres and had recently organised one private class. He had over eight years of teaching experience and held a Bachelor's degree in English language teaching and a Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics. Hoang was an in-service, Vietnamese English teacher with three years of relevant teaching experience and a Bachelor's degree in English language teaching. He had recently registered for a Master's course in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages at a university in Saigon. He taught at a high school and language centre managed by the university where he had trained as a teacher. He also taught private classes at home.

The study was conducted at a university language centre in Vietnam. The language centre had branches spreading over various districts in Saigon and offered English language courses on General English, Language Skills, Academic English and Exam classes. The criteria for selecting this country and institution were our intrinsic interest in Southeast Asia, familiarity with the education system in Vietnam, and access to participants, one of the researchers having been born and educated in this context.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data for the study reported in this paper were collected using individual, semi-structured interviews (conducted in Vietnamese, the participants' choice). First, a 90-minute background interview was conducted with each participant to establish a profile of their educational and professional background, their motivation to follow the teaching profession, and their views on language teaching. At the end of the

interview, the participants were introduced to the *Tree of Life* (Merryfield, 1993), a self-reflection tool divided into three parts: the root—early background, the trunk—learning and teaching experience, and the limbs—critical incidents (Farrell, 2007) (See sample in Appendix). The tree analogy provides a graphic representation of a teacher's personal and professional growth and supports them in reviewing their life experiences, identifying and reflecting on their beliefs and conceptualisations, and articulating their stories (Farrell, 2007; Merryfield, 1993). A second, auto-biographical interview based on the Tree of Life was conducted three days later and lasted approximately 120 minutes each. The participants showed their trees and chronologically recounted their stories, while responding to some probing questions which facilitated our understanding of their accounts.

Data analysis was performed first within each case, in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the participants as individual teachers, and then across the cases. All data underwent thematic, cyclical analysis. We analysed data iteratively throughout the period of fieldwork, forming as many themes as possible. Themes emerging from one data source informed our collection of subsequent data, and the analysis of the latter helped to confirm or revise the themes previously drawn. Afterwards, we compared and contrasted the themes from both cases to explore the role of personal and educational factors in their teacher identity formation.

Informed consent was obtained from the participants. Their anonymity was maintained throughout via the use of a pseudonym and omission of identifying details. We allowed the participants to refuse answering any questions they deemed intrusive. We briefed the participants before every interview and performed member checking at the end of the project by asking them to read through the data and analysis and identify any misrepresentation of the data.

Findings

This article reports on the teacher identity formation of Lam and Hoang based on the analysis of a background interview (BI) and life interview (LI) with each participant. The findings are written in a chronological order using a narrative style, with cultural information provided where necessary. The presentation includes quotes from the participants (translated by us from Vietnamese into English), verbatim report written in italics to highlight important expressions, and additional comments from the researchers between brackets. The names of the teachers cited by Lam and Hoang (Ms. Tam, Ms. Lan, Ms. Doan, Mr. Tran, Ms. Van) are pseudonyms.

Lam

Lam's story of becoming a teacher began in primary school, with his very first teacher:

Her name was Tam. She was very just [...] She treated everyone the same, conscientiously and with care. (LI)

She was “the one [he] remember[ed] the most” from primary school, leaving a “deep inspiration” that would later motivate him to pursue the teaching profession (LI). Back then, however, Lam did not think he would teach English, partly because “[his] impression of them [English teachers] was that they were very strict and scary.” (LI)

The English language only emerged towards the end of his secondary school when Lam attended a short course in a language centre and “developed a passion for English” (LI):

I was impressed by the fluency of the classmate sitting next to me, and she suggested that we both have conversations in English [...] The course greatly improved my grammar. (LI)

This also raised his confidence and led him to apply for the Advanced English class in a famous gifted high school in Saigon, and it was there that Lam met the teachers who, to him, were the “role models” in shaping his teacher identity and from whom he “learned a lot about English, teaching and lifestyle.” (BI). The first prominent influence they had on him was related to his career:

Ms. Lan corrected and explained everything in the Cambridge Proficiency exercise books without any pre-made notes. I was impressed. I wanted to know how it felt to be like her. (LI)

Ms. Doan told me to apply for the University of Education. Ms. Lan said the same thing. Even Mr. Tran said ‘you could be a second Mr. Tran’. (LI)

They encouraged me to follow that path [...] I would stay and talk to them after school, listen to how they went into teaching [...] [and] what it was like to be a teacher. (BI)

Lam made his choice of university and future career based on both indirect and direct inputs; he was inspired in subtle ways by observing his teachers and was motivated by their career advice, which was given in the informal, personal context of after-school conversations.

Lam’s teachers also exerted an influence on his pedagogical development: “High school exposed me to various ways of teaching and communicating with students” (LI).

In particular, there was one who Lam highlighted as having “the most impact on [his] teaching style” (LI):

I began studying with Mr. Tran from Grade 11 [...] His personality was his greatest teaching asset, not his ELT methodology [...] He made jokes [...] I liked how he could relate the content to his students [...] he was also good at building rapport. (LI)

It was the interpersonal rather than professional aspect of his former teacher’s style that captured Lam’s attention. This, combined with other factors, would later help Lam to form what he called his own “ban sac”: “Ban sac lies in my choice of techniques [...] my communication style [...] Bac sac stems from my personality, my background.” (BI).

Ban sac is a Vietnamese concept that refers to an individual’s personal or cultural traits that are unique, special and attractive. As a teacher, Lam believed that he and his ban sac had to stand out: “People compare teachers to ferrymen. Personally I don’t like this image because a ferryman is so quiet, so obscure [...] I don’t want to be like one, silently committing to work [...] carrying my bag to school and back” (BI). Lam presented the ferryman metaphor, which, to him, reflected the hard work, dedication and selflessness expected of teachers. His rejection of such analogy indicated that he placed much value on being outstanding. This was further substantiated when he then presented his own metaphor:

A teacher can be ... a popstar, singer. Well teachers also stand in front of an audience, get applauded, have to try their best to perform their song and keep the flame up. And we run from show to show a lot. (BI)

Lam felt that a teacher was also a performer as both stood in the limelight, trying to maintain the energy of their respective audiences, and had to handle high pressure work. Lam then elaborated on his ban sac:

If my class wanted to party, okay party, I would pay. That was part of my ban sac, a generous benefactor. (BI)

My mocking does leave an impression. If you ask my students, no doubt many will say I mock a lot. Surely it makes me different from others. (BI)

The greatest lesson Lam learned from his teachers, however, was neither career choice

nor methodology, but one of a more “humanistic” nature:

Have you ever wondered how your handouts had been made? When I visited Ms. Van’s house, her firstborn was still a baby, and she held a book in one hand while rocking the cradle with the other, feeding her daughter now and then. Materials were made from moments like that, so we should have a more *con nguoi* [humanistic] look at teachers. For example, when we detect errors in spelling or format, we should be less critical. I mean considering all the chores they have to do, producing acceptable original materials is already a feat, much better than photocopying from some resource books. I also talked to her husband; I saw her in her other roles: a mother, a wife. In the end, teacher is just one among all those roles we play in life. (LI)

Lam could visit Ms. Van’s house frequently since his “was close to hers. [He] usually went to her house [...] to borrow books.” (LI). This allowed him, from a personal angle, to see his teacher as a mother and wife, and led him to advocate a more humanistic and holistic view of teachers.

It took Lam a few years into his career to experience the multiplicity of roles he had to fulfil, which changed his *ban sac*:

In recent years I’ve become the breadwinner in my home [...] I have to grind my teeth when I hate a class but have to take it to maintain my income [...] And I can’t party that much with my students anymore [...] Exactly since when, I cannot remember, I’ve thought about materialistic values. It’s not that I am ... but maybe I’ve changed, but it’s because I have to; otherwise, I wouldn’t get by. (BI)

Lam presented his internal struggle with job satisfaction, finance and maintaining his *ban sac*, which resulted in his unwilling change from a generous benefactor to someone who had to grind his teeth to get by. The excerpt thus shows the extent to which Lam’s role as the family’s breadwinner redefined his *ban sac*, and possibly teacher identity.

In addition, Lam found that he could not keep personal matters from affecting his teaching:

When I’m upset, I inform my students that I might not be pleasant that day and thus if my voice is harsh, they understand why [...] I mean we cannot hide our emotions; we are human [...] I want sympathy. (LI)

Lam considered the person within him inseparable from the teacher, hence the difficulty in suppressing the occasional negativity brought by “daily matters” and, as a result, the need for sympathy as a human being (LI).

Graduating from high school, Lam entered university and commenced his teacher training. He felt that the training itself “did not have much of an impact” even though he acknowledged “it was good to have” (BI). It seems, however, that Lam judged the impact of his course only in terms of linguistic competence as he later added that “high school had already reinforced [his] English enough” (BI). What really mattered to him was, as was the case of his high school, the contact with his teachers: “I was the president of the English Club, so I had to frequently liaise with lecturers. Thanks to such contact, I could see their ordinary side.” (LI).

He mentioned particularly a lecturer of a short-term translation course at another university. This lecturer, although not part of Lam’s teacher training programme, was important as he would influence the way Lam perceived his own relationship with his institution: “Now he was a larger than life character [...] his style radiated a you-need-me-but-I-don’t-need-you-air [...] they [his university] had to conform to his requests.” (LI). This became evident when Lam asserted that if the university he was teaching at “treat[ed] [him] badly”, he would “quit but [not] starve” since he had secured teaching positions at other institutions and, on top of this, established a degree of independence from each: “One way or another I have to tell them I don’t teach at their place only [...] I mean, make sure that they need us more then we need them.” (LI).

Hoang

Hoang embarked on his journey to become a teacher early in his life: “I was born into a family of teachers [...] My grandfather was an English teacher, and my father used to teach physics” (BI). He felt that such “family tradition” gave him a “positive attitude” towards teaching (BI). His father, in particular, also had an influence on his pedagogy:

The way my dad talks is very pedagogical, very structured [...] whenever he wants to tell me something, he says ‘there are three things you need to know’ [...] first, second, third. (BI)

Hoang found that, as a teacher, he employed “the same structured instruction style”, going from “the general to the specific” with “numbered ideas” (BI).

To Hoang, however, it was one of his teachers, rather than his family, that really oriented him towards the teaching profession:

I was scared of English ... I got nightmares. In Grade 5, I met this teacher

who transformed my fear into an interest, and then I felt I had the potential to learn English [...] He inspired me to become a teacher. (BI)

This teacher was significant as he supported Hoang affectively, enabling him to overcome his fear, and, more importantly, became an inspiration for the latter. Hoang, however, noted that while he wanted “to help other people” (BI) as his teacher had done with him, he “did not consider going for English” (LI). In fact, he intended to teach Maths because he “was very good at it during primary and secondary school, so [he] thought Maths plus teaching equalled Maths teacher!” (LI). This was the case until the end of secondary school when Hoang attended the District selection for the Hoc sinh gioi Thanh pho (City contest for excellent secondary school students):

I was dreaming about Maths and Chemistry [...] my grades [for both] were very high [...] When I took the selection exam, I failed at both ... pathetically failed. I was devastated. (LI)

Hoang appeared to take the failure with his two favourite subjects very seriously. This, however, became a turning point for him:

One of my aunts was teaching English [...] So my aunt ... said one thing that inspired me ‘You can study English and you do study it well. If you choose to follow it, you will definitely succeed.’ And I tried [...] Finally, I passed the entrance exam for the Advanced English class at Phan Nguyen gifted high school. (LI)

His aunt’s inspiring words were key to Hoang’s English learning. Therefore, influenced by his Grade 5 English teacher and aunt, he developed an interest in the language and, rising from his failure, turned English from something he “could learn but didn’t have that much passion for” (LI) into his strongest subject and future career.

As a teacher, Hoang considered inspiration central to his identity:

I believe teachers should be *nguồn cảm hứng* [source of inspiration]; my teaching philosophy leans towards inspiring rather than instructing [...] if we instruct a student one thing, they learn that thing only, but if we motivate or inspire them, they may, by themselves, do further reading and learn at least two-three. (BI)

Hoang seemed to conceptualise instruction as knowledge transmission. Contrasting this

with inspiration, he placed great emphasis on the latter and thus the affective dimension of teaching. He then explained that by motivating and inspiring, teachers could foster autonomy in their students, and this, in turn, would lead to more sustainable language learning.

Entering high school, Hoang soon discovered that he was struggling with the standards of his Advanced English class: “It was the first time I knew what Advanced English was like [...] I barely kept my head above water in Grade 10 [...] I was nearly at the bottom of the class [...] The first semester was so horrible.” (LI). To cope with this situation, Hoang used a strategy inspired by his table tennis coach:

He had a lot of influence on me. The thing about him was that his numerous achievements did not come from natural talent, but from hard work, conscientiousness. He rose from the bottom [...] I figured I could do it, just like him. Hard work was my strategy. (LI)

Hoang could relate to the coach as he himself possessed, he believed, no “innate ability or [Advanced English] background” and had to start from the bottom in his new environment (LI). Thus, he decided to emulate how his coach had professionally succeeded: through hard work. His industry was rewarded as he, by the end of the second semester, “moved up” to the “top 10” of his class (LI).

To Hoang, this success shaped his perception of weak students and his attitude towards them:

I protect the weak [...] I feel for weak students since I see myself in them ... I also see hope. That is, they cannot be weak forever; one day they will rise. If I can inspire them, they will have hope and become better. (LI)

The struggle with his studies allowed Hoang to empathise with weak students, leading him to believe that, as their teacher, he was also their “protector”. He reiterated the importance of affect in his pedagogy, emphasising hope and inspiration in teaching weak students.

In addition to study, Hoang’s time at high school was also significant because it was then that he reduced “[his] weight [from] 90 to 72kg”, became “noticeably more sociable and outgoing” and began “living independently” (LI). All this, he believed, “enhanced [his] confidence in public and therefore helped with [his] teaching” (LI). In fact, Hoang felt high school played the most important role in shaping his identity as it had “physically and mentally transformed [him] into the person [he] is today.” (LI).

By contrast, Hoang remarked that he did not gain much from his teacher training

programme at university:

I did not learn much as an undergraduate [...] To be honest, I was dissatisfied with, not all, but many lecturers in our department. They did not teach properly, and some did not even come to class at all. They changed the way I looked at lecturers. (LI)

The teaching staff quality did not meet his expectations and thus affected both his training and perception of university lecturers. However, he highlighted two positive influences of his undergraduate years. One was that the programme reinforced his belief in the importance of affective factors: “Psychology, and specifically affective factors, was a major part of the theories we learned [...] We even had a separate module called Educational Psychology” (LI). The other, more important, impact came from his Microteaching module:

I hated conventions, so I experimented a lot with my microteaching lessons. Every time I tried something new, I was fortunate to fail [...] I feel that experimenting has helped me in some ways because it appears that I’m more creative than my colleagues. (LI)

Hoang found conventional methodology “boring” and questioned why “everyone was doing the same thing” (LI). This motivated him to explore original approaches, though these would often lead to negative results. However, he did not perceive this as detrimental; such mentality allowed him to leverage failures and thus develop his creativity. Yet, he could not have experimented with his lessons had it not been for his Microteaching lecturer, who said: “I will not judge whether you are right or wrong. One day when you have learned too much, you will start to doubt everything you know” (LI). Moved by these “powerful and wise” words, Hoang learned that everything was “a matter of perspectives [and] judging framework” and that teachers should be responsive to “students’ level and the context” (LI).

Hoang’s perception of himself as creative and context-sensitive later shaped his practice:

I created new ways of teaching. When I teach word stress on numbers, I tell students that if the number is bigger ... like in 15, 1 is smaller than 5, so the stress is on the bigger number 5 ... fifteen. But in the case of 50, the front number 5 is bigger ... fifty. (LI)

Students like it when we could integrate content that is relevant to their daily life, like issues on social media. (LI)

He believed that this made him a “successful teacher to a degree”, evident in “good feedback from students” (LI). He also found that, as a teacher, his identity was reinforced by his own students: “Many wrote to me on social media that I had made them love learning English [...] Those kinds of comments inspire me [...] Moments like that realised my dream of making people shine.” (LI). He was, once again, inspired, but in this case, by his students.

Discussion

Cross-case analysis shows pre-training learning experiences played a pivotal role in shaping the participants’ teacher identity. Their journey to become teachers began in the very first formal educational context—primary school—where both were left with lasting impressions of their former teachers. These impressions then became the projected mental images of the ideal teacher that both participants wanted to become—Lam, for example, wanted to be a just and caring teacher like Ms. Tam (cf. Calderhead & Robson, 1991).

The impact of prior educational history on teachers’ identity formation and cognitive development is well documented in the literature (see Lortie, 1975; Sanchez, 2013). However, the findings here reveal that these early experiences, while motivating Lam and Hoang to follow the teaching profession, did not lead them to pursue the English language as their subject matter. This suggests that during the formation of language teacher identity the fondness for teaching and the subject matter (in this case, English) might not necessarily emerge together. Lam and Hoang only started to learn English actively under external influences: while the former was motivated by his impression of a classmate, the latter took the initiative after the incident where he underperformed in his favourite subjects (Maths and Chemistry) in the city contest.

High school appeared to play the greatest role in the participants’ *language* teacher identity formation. Lam found inspiration in his English teachers’ subject matter knowledge and personality. The teachers additionally shaped his teaching and communication style, which would later become part of his own uniqueness as a teacher (i.e., his *ban sac*). His high school teachers thus played a central role in Lam’s prior learning experiences and in his identity formation, as they provided the source of his subject matter knowledge, motivation and pedagogy. To Hoang, his initial struggle with English learning helped him develop sympathy towards weak students and a perceived need to support them. The influence of subject-specific learning experiences and teachers has been reported in the literature (Johnson, 1994; Sanchez, 2013). However, Hoang,

unlike Lam, was not influenced by his language teachers, but rather his table tennis coach. This shows that a language teacher's identity could be influenced by experiences in another discipline. This concurs with the findings reported by Sanchez (2011), where one of the English teachers in his study associated her concern for "weaker" students with her own previous school experience striving to learn music. Thus, though most recollections of images from prior learning experiences appear to be subject-specific, it is likely that teachers may relate their identity and teaching practices to schooling experiences beyond their teaching field.

Personal experiences also featured strongly in the data as influencing the formation of Lam and Hoang's language teacher identity. Hoang's positive attitude towards teaching came from his family tradition; his structured instruction style, in particular, was strongly influenced by his father. More importantly, these experiences intertwined and complemented educational ones. Hoang's aforementioned critical incident in the City contest would not have been so transformative had his aunt not subsequently offered her inspiring advice; it also contributed to his affect-oriented teaching philosophy. In addition, Hoang stated that his physical and mental transformation at high school included both educational and non-educational factors. His narrative shows that his identity drew heavily on his living curricula (Kissling, 2014) as his lived experiences outside the classroom shaped, *inter alia*, his positive attitude, pedagogy and choice of subject matter.

In the case of Lam, his language learning experiences were accompanied by episodes of after-class meetings with his teachers where they explicitly advised him to pursue teaching and recounted their own stories. These experiences corroborate the findings of Uitto (2012) that students' personal encounter with their teachers, either in or outside school settings, can become valuable learning experiences. Lam's visits to Ms. Van's house made him aware of the various roles (Phan Le Ha, 2008) that she had, which helped develop his humanistic perception of teachers. More importantly, the participant himself experienced such multiplicity and noted that, as a teacher, his transferrable identities (Zimmerman, 1998) and personal matters permeated his pedagogy and teacher-student relations. This evidence of teacher-student interaction outside the classroom and its impact on teacher identity formation also calls for a more holistic and flexible conceptualisation of apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) which encompasses not only teachers' *formal* but also *informal* experiences as learners and their role in the development of their pre-training teaching beliefs and philosophies.

The impact of teacher education on the participants' teacher identity seems unclear. Both deemed it of little significance, possibly influenced by what they perceived counted as impact (e.g. Lam assessed impact exclusively on the basis of development in linguistic competence) or by their expectations of teaching quality (e.g. Hoang's dissatisfaction

with many of his lecturers). However, both teachers provided evidence of impact, evident in Lam's view of the teacher-institution relationship and in Hoang's motivation to develop original pedagogical approaches. This might suggest that their perceived lack of impact may have been informed by the way they operationalised impact (Borg, 2011), that is, by their expectation that impact encompassed deep or radical changes, rather than subtle forms of development.

Conclusion and Implications

Teacher identity is a multi-faceted social construct that emerges from both professional and personal experiences. Empirical works, however, have often emphasised the professional aspect of teacher identity at the expense of the private sphere, although these are inextricably connected and the boundaries between them are blurred. The present study has aimed to address this gap by adopting a holistic perspective to investigate the identity of two Vietnamese English teachers, whose narratives indicate that identity formation is a complex process in which professional and personal factors intertwine.

The cases discussed here have clear implications for teacher education and teachers themselves. It is unfortunate that teacher education has often been regarded as "separate from the ongoing lives of teachers and student teachers" (Clandinin, 1992, p. 121), which consequently shows the limitations of these programmes in the development of teacher identity. We thus argue that teacher education should pay attention to and cultivate the richness and complexity of teachers' lives. The present study provides evidence that this can be done via self-reflection, using tools such as the Tree of Life to support pre- and in-service teachers in developing awareness of their identity and the role of various factors in its formation. Our experience using this tool suggests that teachers with limited experience undertaking self-reflection can be guided by prompt questions which encourage them to visualise different parts of the tree in a way that reflects their unique personal, educational, and professional history. Empirical evidence from this and previous studies (e.g. Calderhead & Robson, 1991) also indicates that identifying significant people and critical incidents in previous personal and professional experiences can support the process of retrospection.

Clandinin and Huber (2005, p. 43) have noted that "teachers teach who they are". Evidence is mounting that who teachers are encompasses a wide array of personal as well as professional factors. Therefore, any attempts at understanding teaching practice will require that we adopt a holistic approach which views teacher identity in its full complexity if we expect research and teacher education to promote more impactful and sustainable forms of professional development.

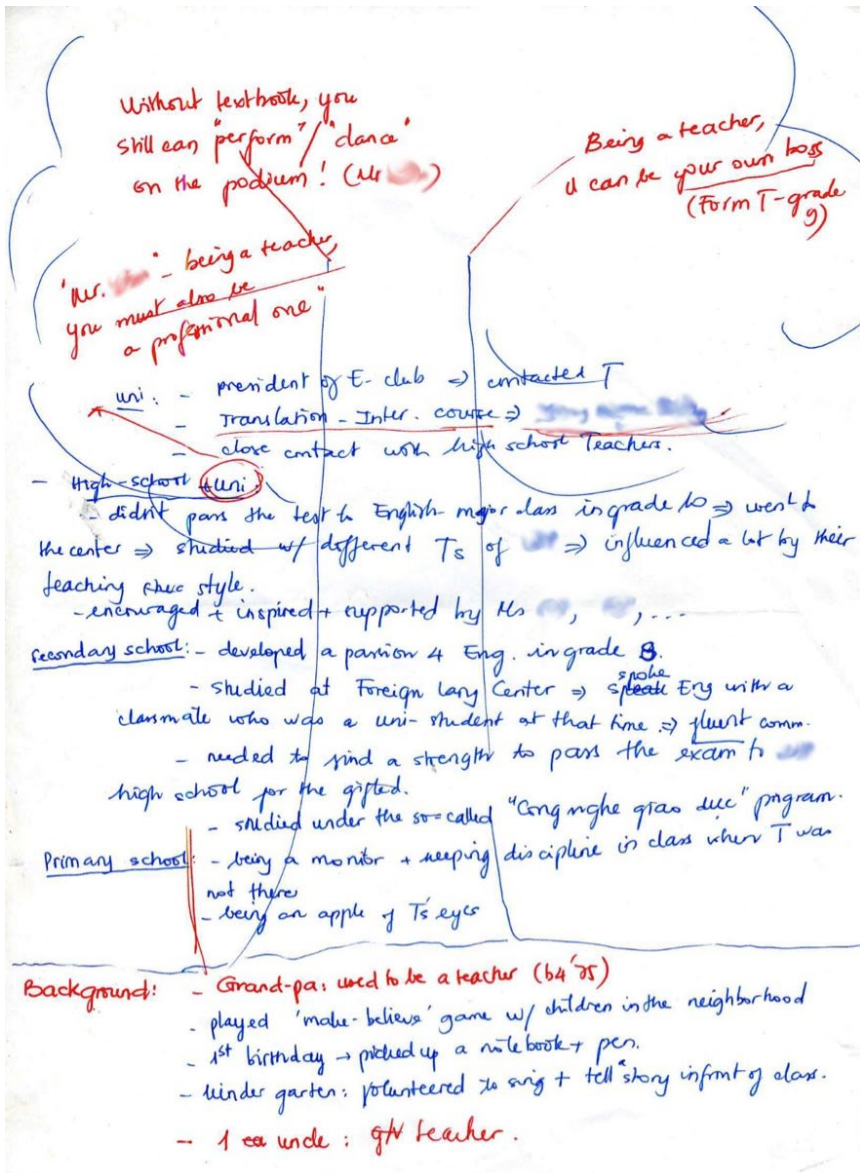
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Appendix

Sample 'Tree of Life' (identifying details have been blurred).



The inevitability of teaching writing: An interview with Charles Bazerman

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Abstract

In this contribution we firstly refer to the actions that have been taken in the Argentinean state higher education system to foster the development of academic literacy, and that have paved the way for the consolidation of a field of action and thought that has gradually situated academic reading and writing at the center of the learning process in academic contexts. Secondly, we present an interview with Charles Bazerman that was carried out during his visit to the Universidad Nacional de Entre Ríos in 2014. Dr. Bazerman refers to the Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) movement as a powerful approach that addresses writing development from all the disciplines, to the role of genre and to how technology is changing the way we teach writing.

Keywords: higher education; academic reading and writing; academic literacy; writing across the curriculum; languages for specific purposes.

Resumen

En este trabajo nos referimos a las acciones que se han llevado a cabo en el sistema universitario público argentino para promover el desarrollo de la alfabetización académica y que han contribuido a la consolidación de un campo de acción que ha situado gradualmente a la lectura y la escritura en el centro del proceso de aprendizaje. Seguidamente, presentamos una entrevista con Charles Bazerman realizada durante su visita a la Universidad Nacional de Entre Ríos en 2014. El Dr. Bazerman se refiere al movimiento *Escritura a través del currículum* como un enfoque potente que impulsa el desarrollo de la escritura desde todas las disciplinas, al rol del concepto de género y a la manera en que la tecnología está cambiando la forma en que enseñamos a escribir.

Palabras clave: educación superior; lectura y escritura académicas; alfabetización académica; escritura a través del currículum; lenguas para fines específicos.

SINCE THE 1990s, in Argentina there has been widespread concern over how the diverse student population entering university reads and writes. In fact, in higher education, undergraduate students learn and are assessed through reading and writing activities in almost all content subjects. Furthermore, at the graduate level, writing a final project, a dissertation or a thesis is one of the most important academic processes students must go through to achieve degree completion. Consequently, this growing interest has led to a number of actions within the Argentinean state university system aimed at facilitating the process of enculturation of students into the target discourse community and at reducing dropout rates. In this sense, Applied Linguistics has played a central role in the development of these actions through the pioneering work of Elvira Arnoux who paved the way for the creation of workshops aimed at helping school leavers to enter tertiary education (Arnoux et al., 1998), for the publication of manuals (Narvaja de Arnoux et al., 2002) and for reflection upon the teaching-learning process involved in academic writing (Arnoux, 2006; Arnoux et al., 1996). Another leading voice who has sparked interest in reading and writing in Argentina and Latin America is Paula Carlino who created the GICEOLEM¹ at the Instituto de Lingüística (Universidad de Buenos Aires). This researcher reported the different actions taken in Argentinean leading universities (Carlino, 2006) and, since then, many other initiatives have followed (Alzari et al., 2014; Amieva, 2014; Añino et al., 2012; Arnoux, 2008, 2009, 2011, 2015; Carlino, 2013, 2014; Pipkin Embón & Reynoso, 2010).

These actions are often referred to as remedial as they tend to keep the development of academic skills on the margin or outside the curriculum instead of being situated as an integral part of it (Carlino, 2012). Furthermore, workshops for students and teachers are usually generic in content and do not recognize the varying requirements of the disciplines (Skillen et al., 1998). However, although many of these initiatives have been carried out with little or no institutional support, this joint effort of teachers and researchers has paved the way for the consolidation of a field of action and thought that has gradually situated academic reading and writing at the center of the learning process in Argentinean academic contexts.

The Contribution of Foreign Languages Courses to Academic Development

Foreign language courses have been offered for over half a century in the higher formal Argentinean education system (Klett, 1999a, 1999b, 2001; Martirena et al., 2005; Vila Zarco, 2004). The first university to include a reading and translation test into its curriculum was the Universidad Nacional de La Plata in 1943 as students needed to read career-related reference books in French, English and German. More than a decade later, in 1959, foreign language courses were created at the Facultad de Filosofía y Letras belonging to the Universidad de Buenos Aires. Nowadays, similar courses

are offered at almost all the national universities and, although they have been given different labels and whether integrated or not into the curriculum, they are generally focused on the teaching of a single skill—reading comprehension. Their main objective is to equip undergraduate students with the necessary tools to become competent and critical readers in the target language and to enable them to have non-mediated access to specific bibliography required by the humanities, social sciences and science and technology curricula.

The implementation of these foreign language courses at the tertiary level is generally based on theoretical issues and research related to the teaching of languages for specific purposes (LSP). Their target populations are adult non-native speakers, a fact that encompasses different pedagogical implications from the initiatives described by Carlino (2006). Although these courses have been influenced by the successive reigning methodological approaches for the teaching and learning of foreign languages, university teachers have gradually designed in-house materials and developed specific approaches for their courses (Bertazzi et al., 2003; Blum & Di Benedetto, 2012; Devicienti, 1970; Klett, 2007; Ramírez de Perino, 1994; Sahian & Lindholm, 1976; Suarez Cepeda & Salomon Tarquini, 2007). Some have also compiled bilingual dictionaries to cover the terms of particular subject fields (Pérez de Pereyra & Aguilar de Espinosa, 2002).

As it can be seen from records of conference proceedings and other publications of the field², LSP teachers have shown interest and have become involved in the study of different aspects of the reading comprehension process, in translation matters, in the relationship between reading in L2 and writing in L1 and in the writing process itself (Bertazzi & Mallo, 2005; Domínguez et al., 2005; Dorronzoro, 2003a, 2003b; Gentile, 2006; Klett, 2004; Mulone, 2015; Noceti, 2015; Pasquale, 2006, 2007; Pérez de Pereyra et al., 2015; Reynoso et al., 2009; Rosa & Waigandt, 2006; Venticinque et al., 2007; Wahl, 2015).

Academic Development and the Writing Across the Curriculum Movement

Thanks to a joint effort of five Argentine national universities—the Universidad Nacional de Quilmes, the Universidad Nacional de General Sarmiento, the Universidad Nacional del Centro de la Provincia de Buenos Aires, the Facultad de Filosofía y Letras belonging to the Universidad de Buenos Aires and the Universidad Nacional de Entre Ríos—Professor Charles Bazerman visited Argentina in June 2014.

Dr. Bazerman is a leading expert on writing across the curriculum (WAC) and has contributed significantly to the establishment of writing as a research field. He is also known for his work on genre studies and the rhetoric of science. He has authored over 18 books and edited over 20 collections including: *A Rhetoric of Literate Action* (2013), *A Theory of Literate Action* (2013), *Reference Guide to Writing Across the Curriculum*

(2005), *Writing Skills Handbook* (2003), *Reading Skills Handbook* (1988), *Traditions of Writing Research* (2010), *Genre in a Changing World* (2009), *Writing Selves/Writing Societies* (2003), *What Writing Does and How it Does It* (2004), the *Handbook of Research on Writing* (2007) and *Textual Dynamics of the Professions* (1991).

As part of his visit to Argentina, Dr. Bazerman travelled to Entre Ríos to participate in the *Jornadas de capacitación sobre lectura y escritura en la universidad* that took place in Oro Verde on June 18 & 19, 2014. Over 70 teachers and researchers belonging to the Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, the Universidad Nacional de Río Cuarto, the Universidad Nacional del Litoral, the Universidad Autónoma de Entre Ríos, the Universidad Tecnológica Nacional (Facultad Regional Paraná) and the Universidad Nacional de Entre Ríos attended the meeting. Twenty-two presentations³ on writing were given as part of the programme that also included Dr. Bazerman's plenary conference *Writing in Higher Education in the Americas: A personal journey into data* and other more informal opportunities to talk to the guest of honor. Charles Bazerman was kind enough to grant us the following interview on our way to Paraná from Oro Verde.

Diana Waigandt: What is Writing Across the Curriculum?

Charles Bazerman: Writing Across the Curriculum (or WAC) in the United States is based on a long history of writing instruction and writing expectations in university courses, but which was renewed and given programmatic focus starting around 1970. The US higher education WAC movement was also influenced by parallel developments in British Secondary Education, developed by James Britton and his colleagues in the late 1960's. WAC in the US has taken on a number of different forms and has a number of different consequences.

It was initially an attempt to encourage teachers in all areas to assign more writing so that students would get more practice in writing. Those of us who were teaching writing said if students just write in our writing classes they will not write very much and they cannot develop much as writers. The students, as well, will see writing as just something that you do in an English class and not something that you need to do through your whole career.

So writing instructors on a number of different campuses started contacting teachers in other departments to find out whether they were assigning writing and what kinds of writing they were assigning. We would encourage them to assign more writing and we would talk with them about how they might give more effective assignments so that they would get better results. We also tried to give them ideas about how writing might help connect students with their subjects and how teachers could find out what the students were thinking through seeing what students wrote. We engaged in dialogue with instructors in different fields and had seminars to help support them to use more

writing. In the dialogue we found out that writing in their fields was very different from what we imagined and varied from area to area. So that led to investigations of disciplinary writing practices. We also found that when teachers introduce more writing, their teaching changes. As they understood more what students were doing, they started to see how the writing could help students develop their thinking. So, WAC became actually a way of developing teaching through the university and changing the nature of teaching.

Also as we discovered more about writing in the different disciplines our teaching of writing changed. This was the same time as writing centers were being developed at universities, helping students with their assignments in an individual way. Students would then start bringing in writing from the different disciplines, such as their assignments for History and Geography. So the writing centers started to engage with Writing Across the Curriculum. In a number of universities the writing centers became the heart of Writing Across the Curriculum. So there are many ways in which there have been connections made between writing and different departments and the campus as a whole.

In the volume that I worked on with some of my students, the [Reference Guide in Writing Across the Curriculum](#), we've collected many of the resources and the different kinds of programs that have been developed. There are many books written on WAC by people who've tried many different kinds of initiatives. There is an annual Conference on Writing Across the Curriculum where people would get and share ideas. There is a conference that has actually just occurred down here in Argentina. There is a journal now called Across the Disciplines and there's the WAC Clearinghouse. The Clearinghouse has many resources for writing across the curriculum. So WAC has become a very wide movement, not just in the United States but internationally. In universities in many countries, like in Argentina, students study only within different faculties so any writing support that is provided has to be in the disciplines, in the faculties. So it is that aspect of writing teaching that fits best with many universities globally.

DW: Do you think it is possible to integrate current genre approaches to the teaching of reading and writing?

CB: Genre approaches to writing actually have grown out of the teaching of reading and writing in the different disciplines. So, it is not a question of integrating genre with WAC; North American and ESP approaches to genre were born out of reading and writing in the disciplines. Swales' ESP version of genre came out of his experience in Aston University in Birmingham, helping in that case second language students write scientific articles. He was trying to give them a model for how they could structure their ideas and build their ideas more, starting with the article introduction, which was the first great success of that model. The article introduction highlights the relation of

reading and writing because the article introduction is the place that brought together the literature. Scientists in their article introductions need a strategy to talk about their reading that sets up what they have to report in their own research. So research article introductions developed a structure which Swales investigated and used to teach to science and engineering students. And so his version grew out of practical teaching of reading and writing in disciplines.

The U.S. tradition also came out of teaching writing. As we investigated writing in different disciplines, it was clear that students wrote in many different genres, in many different ways, that were different than what we were teaching in writing classes. At that time we were not thinking about genres in what we were teaching. But when we started to see different genres in scientific papers, in reviews of literature, in historical narratives, we realized that in writing classes we were teaching specific essay genres. So we started to become more aware of genres in our own fields as we started to try and support teaching genres for other fields.

When I personally started to research the difference between writing in different fields, I would see that there were many, many differences and I had a hard time to think about all the differences until I started to think about genre as an organizing concept. Several years before her well-known paper was presented, I had a long conversation with Carolyn Miller. In that conversation I realized her concept of genre was what I needed to help me understand what was going on in these different fields. Genre provides a way of teaching and a way of researching and organizing our understanding about the differences of writing in the different fields. So genre is already integrated into WAC and grows out of it.

DW: So they are perfectly compatible, those different approaches...

CB: Yes. Genre approaches are integrated, already as I said, into teaching reading and writing. But there are different approaches and each highlights different aspects. So the Swales' approach provides good models for students to begin writing in different areas. His research method provides ways of identifying typical patterns that are used in different areas and those patterns can be introduced to the students. Students can then see not only that they need to have those parts but that there is also a logic to the parts and organization and that logic has to do with the thinking and the argument of that field. So it is a very good way to introduce students to disciplinary writing.

The approach that I tend to use emphasizes the social interaction and the role of the function of writing in specific situations. It allows students to make more flexible choices as they understand the logic underneath the genre practices. They see that genres change and genres become containers for their meanings. It emphasizes meanings and transactions and helps students understand the social situation and their

communicative impulses. Genre is a way of packaging meaning, making it work and making it recognizable to others. It can work well in combination with the Swales approach and a number of people combine both approaches as you do here. I think one of the characteristics of the North American approach is that it puts the individual students' communicative impulse, what they have to say, at the center, and puts it within a social situation, whereas the Swales' approach puts the general textual patterns within a stabilized social situation at the center and then the students fill the pattern with their communicative impulses.

DW: In what way do you think technology may change the way we teach and learn to read and write?

CB: It is not a question that it may change. It is changing. It already has changed. As the technology becomes more available, that is the world in which people are now communicating in science and in business, in law. All writing is now occurring in electronic environments even though people may still use paper and pen for very personal reasons. They may use paper and pen in early parts of their processes when they are more free form in their thinking, but everything gets transcribed at the end into a digital form, and most composing now actually happens in digital form. We have many kinds of software to facilitate writing, and processes and thinking about writing and putting knowledge together. Also most information we now get comes to us in electronic form. We were just talking a few minutes ago about digital libraries here in Argentina--there is a National Digital Library, which now makes accessible to you all the publications in the world. In order to be in touch with all of knowledge you don't have to go to a big building in a place which has a lot of money to collect so many books. You can do it right from your desktop.

Even if you go to a McDonalds now, the clerk at the front processes electronic information which is communicated to the kitchen in the back, and the order also is integrated with the billing, accounting, and inventory systems—it's all integrated information. So this is the way the world writes now. And it's going to be more and more the case now that technology is becoming cheaper, becoming more varied and more sophisticated.

So the question is how this is going to change our teaching? What are our students going to need to know to be able to write with the technology, and how can this technology help our teaching? One thing that you probably have experienced is that revision has become easier but also the ease of revision has added new challenges. So in the old days every time I would work on revision I had to copy the whole text. I could make a few marks on the existing draft, but then I had to copy it all over again. In some ways actually this was good because I had to pay attention to my words many times.

Every time I typed the text again or wrote it again I had to think through these words. On the other hand, it took a lot of effort to do that. So now it is very easy to revise it and print it out and think about it. On the other hand the text looks so neat I am tempted not to think very deeply about the words. I have to make an effort to concentrate on each detail. Nonetheless, it is very easy to make changes, and very easy to rearrange and reorganize parts. It is also very easy now to bring in information from the outside. If I am writing and I say 'Oh, I need to check some facts.' Rather than having to go to the library I go to Wikipedia or Google, or if I need a scientific article I can connect to my library and download the article.

So we live and write in a much richer information environment. In the old days if I was writing a paper which had a lot of resources then I had to take notes in the library or I had to borrow the books. I could only stack so many on my desk. There would be a great mess, they were so many. Now they are all in my computer and on the Internet and I can draw on them all at once.

The good part is the richness of the information and the possibility to think about all this information. The bad part is that sometimes there is too much to think about and maybe it is too easy just to copy and paste, so you don't think about the materials you are using. We have to learn new ways to make ourselves to think more deeply about the information. But also there is software that helps us organize our thinking. There are all these new formats for communicating rapidly--I can communicate around the world through e-mail, I can write blogs, I can write web pages and use hypertexts. These are all new forms which raise new issues about how to write well, how to create in those environments, how to use multimedia.

One of my students became very interested in how to communicate with students through multimedia. So, she responds to student papers through voice notation while she creates a video of her marking students' papers. The students see the annotations, her cursor moves, her underlining, but also the students hear her comments. She found out that this is a very effective way of getting students' attention and helping them think about revision.

So there are just so many new possibilities. Of course we still want people to think about organizing large essays, to develop thoughts and develop knowledge, but even this is being done in different ways and is being shared in different ways.

Who knows in ten years or in twenty years what the technology would be and how to use it educationally? Yes we must confront this and we must be optimistic about creativity and not just say: oh the old ways, they have gone...! People said the same thing when the printing press came along, they said the same thing when radio and television came along, but I think, actually, now people are smarter than ever before because we think with the technologies. Are you familiar with the cyborg? A cyborg is a mix of

machine and person. With cyborgs we are excited about the machine enhancements of our strength or memory, but the cyborg always has a human part; that human part must become smart enough to use all the extensions that the machines offer us. We are learning to use our intelligence more creatively, sometimes to do more fundamental things because the new machines can take care of the more mechanical parts.

DW: You came to Argentina to collect data personally. Has this journey been successful?

CB: There are two kinds of data. One is my personal data, my experience and my richness of knowing about different academic worlds and of course that has been a great success. I've learned so much about the people, the educational issues, the responses to local situations, and the educational initiatives. Also we have a project called ILEES, where we are trying to collect in a more organized way the experiences and intellectual developments in the teaching of writing in Latin America. And I made contact with people and more people are going to be, I hope, responding to [our survey](#) and reporting the developments on their campuses. We will find more ways of understanding the networks that are here developing in Argentina. I've also been communicating with some scholars I've been working with before, and our discussions are going forward, including my longstanding discussion with Paula Carlino, who is a tremendous force for change.

Yes, it has been a great success in that way as well.

DW: And what is your message for Argentinean scholars struggling to publish, struggling to teach?

CB: The first message, the big message, is, it is worth the struggle. The teaching of writing here is now starting to blossom. It is not just a single seed or two but there are many seeds and they are growing. Publication opportunities within the country and within the region are starting to grow. That is one thing that is needed: to develop more opportunities for people to share ideas and to share their research in the region. There are also more opportunities for people to have experience teaching so that is something that will feed on itself, that would help to grow. The more teaching there is, the more people will value it. And the more institutional place and support it will have because it is just so important and so useful. So that will grow, I hope the research will grow, along with the opportunities to communicate.

There are also many international opportunities, more and more congresses in the region and internationally to participate in. I will mention of course in 2017 in Bogotá there will be the International Society for the Advancement of Writing Research, which is the biggest group of people globally to talk about writing research. In the meeting we

just had in Paris, we had twelve hundred people from about seventy countries. Of course it's lovely to be in Paris but it is also lovely to be in Bogotá and it is much nearer to here so I encourage everybody to join and come with us and connect with the colleagues from around the world.

And also, do not get frustrated with short term problems, because it takes a long time to develop a profession with full institutional strength. In the U.S., the field of teaching of writing took many decades to develop, and we are still working to build the field. Over time things get better. Things change, sometimes they do not look so good. Sometimes there is some frustration, but in the long run, there is an inevitability to the teaching of writing. It will grow and if you look back every few years you will say 'We have come very far.'

Conclusion

The actions undertaken in the Argentinean state higher education system that have gradually situated academic reading and writing at the center of the learning process in academic contexts present a challenge and an opportunity to educators in higher education. The challenge is to develop context-based approaches that best respond to local situations with full institutional support. The opportunity is to continue building an Argentinean and Latin American field of teaching writing based on the many findings of existing research traditions, through cross-disciplinary dialogue and international networks. Charles Bazerman in describing the WAC movement presents how educators in the North addressed similar challenges by developing a powerful approach to support writing development from all the disciplines. This movement emerged out of concern for quality education in Britain and the United States and has spread across borders to reach international status. The many opportunities to communicate and to forge alliances with colleagues and institutions from around the world outlined during the interview could lay the groundwork for faculty collaboration, for the establishment of common agendas and for an increased recognition of the importance of writing in modern societies.

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Notes

1. Grupo para la Inclusión y Calidad Educativas a través de Ocuparnos de la Lectura y la Escritura en todas las Materias. Available at: <http://sites.google.com/site/giceolem2010/>
2. Jornadas de Enseñanza de Lenguas Extranjeras en el Nivel Superior (2003, 2005,

2007, 2009); Primeras Jornadas de Lectura y Escritura del Litoral (2006); Jornadas Internacionales de Enseñanza de Inglés en las Carreras de Ingeniería (2005, 2010, 2012); Revue de la S.A.P.F.E.S.U. (Sociedad Argentina de Profesores de Francés de la Enseñanza Superior y Universitaria 1994, 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007)

3. The book of abstracts can be downloaded from http://www.bioingenieria.edu.ar/referencia/eventos/libro_resumenes_jornadas_bazerman.pdf

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Facilitating students' creativity in an EFL writing classroom: Voices from the field

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Abstract

This article documents an English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom writing activity to promote students' creativity. This classroom writing activity had two main objectives: to provide students with writing exercises that would promote practical use of written English language as a means of communication, and to facilitate students' creativity in engaging with and solving problems in their social community. A real-world pedagogic writing task was developed to achieve these two objectives. The activity was carried out in a junior secondary school extra-curricular program with 16 students from Years 7 and 8. Students' perceptions of the writing activity were positive, and more importantly, their awareness of social issues in the community improved as students became engaged in meaningful communicative situations in their real social environment.

Keywords: creativity; classroom procedure; writing activity; learning English as a foreign language (EFL).

Resumen

En este artículo se documenta una actividad de clase de escritura de inglés como lengua extranjera (EFL) para promover la creatividad de los estudiantes. Dicha actividad tuvo dos objetivos principales: proporcionar a los estudiantes ejercicios de escritura que promuevan el uso práctico del idioma inglés escrito como un medio de comunicación, y facilitar la creatividad de los estudiantes en la participación y la resolución de problemas en su entorno social. Los objetivos se lograron mediante una actividad situada en el contexto real. La misma se llevó a cabo como actividad extracurricular en una escuela secundaria con 16 estudiantes de 7mo y 8vo año. Las percepciones de la actividad de escritura de los estudiantes fueron positivas, y lo más importante, su conciencia respecto a los problemas sociales de la comunidad ha mejorado, ya que los estudiantes se involucraron en situaciones comunicativas reales en su entorno social.

Palabras clave: creatividad; procedimiento de aula; actividad de escritura; el aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera (EFL).

TEACHING ENGLISH AS a foreign language (EFL) in junior secondary schools should aim not only to provide students with knowledge of and skills in the target language, but also to mediate meaningful target language use. The development of language learning tasks and materials should therefore address the context in which they are used (see Tomlinson, 2008a, 2008b, 2012). In this regard, students need to be given opportunities to participate in the real use of language and study “how language is used for communication” (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 159).

Creativity is viewed as a way of promoting meaningful language learning. According to Stepanek (2015, pp. 98-99), the inclusion of creativity in language learning activities helps teachers to provide students with varied expressions of the target language in accordance with certain communicative goals, to modify language learning lessons, and to engage students in close-to-reality situations. Furthermore, Maley (2015) suggests that the practice of creativity in language classrooms helps students learn the target language and respond to changes in their social lives. According to this author, creativity is an integral part of problem solving and critical thinking. Therefore, the inclusion of creativity in classroom teaching and learning practices may help to address social issues beyond the classroom environment.

Recent literature on creativity in EFL learning classroom practices has predominantly discussed the use of literature in the classroom (see, for example, Hewings, Prescott, & Seargeant, 2016; Maley & Peachey, 2015; Van, 2009). The range of classroom activities has included the use of drama (e.g. Boudreault, 2010; Galante & Thomson, 2016), creative writing such as poetry (e.g. Hanauer, 2012), short stories and fiction (e.g. Liaw, 2001) and storytelling (e.g. Heathfield, 2015; Ohler, 2013). However, classroom writing activities that promote creativity in language learning have not widely discussed in literature, specifically the use of creativity to address social issues beyond the classroom environment. It is thus the aim of this article to describe a classroom writing activity that included creativity to help students engage with social issues in their community by writing personal messages. This article explains the classroom procedure for the writing activity, and describes the school context and the students. The various stages of the activity are then presented, including the lesson plan and writing task, a survey of students’ current skills, classroom activities and the distribution of postcards, before drawing some conclusions.

A Classroom Procedure for Promoting Creativity in EFL Writing Classrooms

The writing activity discussed in this article had two main objectives: (1) to provide students with a writing activity that would promote the real-world use of written English language as a means of communication; and (2) to facilitate the students’ creativity in engaging with their social community and address particular issues in their society. For

these purposes, we adopted a process genre approach to writing, as proposed by Badger and White (2000). This approach combines a process approach and a genre approach to writing, in which a writing activity is attached to a social function, being undertaken in order to achieve certain communicative goals within a particular social situation. The development of a text should therefore consider “the subject matter, the writer/audience relationship and organisation, channel, or mode” (Badger & White, 2000, p. 158) and should also go through a rigorous writing process, including pre-writing, drafting, composing, editing, and revising (Hyland, 2003; Susser, 1994; Urquhart & McIver, 2015).

The School Context and the Students

The writing activity was carried out as part of an extracurricular activity in an “English club” at a junior secondary school in Indonesia. The activity comprised three weekly sessions of 80 minutes each with sixteen students from Years 7 and 8 aged between 13 and 14 years old. It is important to note that these students had been learning basic level of English for three years prior to our writing activity. Students’ participation in the writing extracurricular activity was voluntary, and consent from their parents had been obtained prior to the activity.

Writing Task

The objective of the writing activity in our classroom was to enable students to write messages on postcards using correct sentence structures. Specifically, the students were asked to write messages to their parents, relatives and people in their surroundings about the risks of smoking both to smokers themselves and to non-smokers in the vicinity of cigarettes. A lesson plan was designed to address these two main objectives and to guide the classroom implementation. A real-world pedagogic writing task was developed in accordance with the process genre approach applied in our classroom context. It was real-world in that it addressed students’ communicative situations in their real social environment, and pedagogic because it was purposely designed to facilitate their knowledge of genre and their writing abilities (Hyland, 2003).

In the classroom, the students were asked to write messages about the potential risks of smoking on postcards to their parents, relatives or other people they cared about in their social community. The students in our classroom were already familiar with writing messages, particularly using social media. However, we opted to create traditional postcards, for which students used thick paper, pens, coloured pencils and other materials to create their designs. This was because we planned to let the students send the cards out to people in their social community rather than within the school.

In our writing classroom, the development of postcards extended the students’

creativity. Students were given opportunities to explore their ideas about several aspects, such as the content, shape, colours and fonts relating to the design of the postcards. These opportunities aimed to promote students' self-esteem and help them learn about making decisions, both of which are pillars of creativity (Read, 2015).

Survey

One week before the writing activity, we collected information about the students' strengths and weaknesses in writing. We asked them to write a short paragraph telling us about their daily routines. The results of the survey revealed that several aspects of students' writing required improvement, namely grammar, sentence structure and vocabulary. Therefore, the first writing session aimed to address these three issues.

Classroom Activities

Pre-writing Activities

Pre-writing activities were carried out to prepare the students for the main writing activity. These provided the students with opportunities to find ideas, gather relevant information, structure the ideas and information, identify the audience and purpose of the writing, and study relevant aspects of the genre (Urquhart & McIver, 2015), which in this case was a personal message. Three pre-writing activities were undertaken: learning scaffolding, brainstorming, and reading. The learning scaffolding activity aimed primarily to address students' weaknesses in the aspects of writing identified from our survey. The choice of learning scaffolding during the pre-writing stage was based on Hosseinpour and Koosha's (2016) findings, who examined whether teacher-led, whole-class scaffolding as a pre-task has an effect on the writing proficiency of EFL learners. Using an experimental design, 50 Iranian EFL female learners participated in their study, which revealed that such activities at the pre-writing stage help students improve the quality of their writing, specifically in aspects such as content, organisation and vocabulary, rather than grammar.

In our classroom context, at the pre-writing stage, the students were taught about several aspects of grammar, including gerunds and infinitives, parts of speech, the present tense, and aspects of formality and expression in language use. These linguistic resources would help students with the writing, and would also reduce their anxiety, thus promoting learning motivation.

Brainstorming was also included in our pre-writing activities. A body of literature on second- and foreign-language writing has suggested that brainstorming activities help learners identify topics for writing (Badger & White, 2000; Guleff, 2002; Hyland, 2003; Neumann & McDonough, 2015). This is because, according to Hyland (2003, p 9), writing is widely perceived as "an act of discovering meaning... and response

is a central means to initiate and guide ideas". In our classroom, the students were asked to discuss the issue of smoking in their social community, and its risks for both smokers and non-smokers. The discussion was conducted mainly in English and was surprisingly demanding, especially for the Year 8 students. We received many good and enthusiastic responses from the students, revealing a variety of social issues. In particular, they highlighted that many parents and relatives were active smokers and smoked near their children. The students commented that it seemed that their parents were unaware of the dangers of smoking to themselves and their children. This issue was then addressed in the students' writing.

The final activity in the pre-writing stage was a reading activity. The effect of reading as a pre-writing task on students' writing achievements is evident in the literature. Kintsch (1998, in Delaney, 2008) suggests that reading prior to a writing activity helps writers to "elaborate models of the text structure and situation, enabling them to select information from the source text, evaluate it, and use it for writing purposes" (p. 141). In our context, we asked the students to read some simple texts about smoking and its potential risks. We also told the students to list the effects they had found from the text, and to note the texts' vocabulary use and sentence structures.

In summary, these pre-writing activities helped the students identify topics for the writing, improved their knowledge of the schematic structure of personal messages, and provided them with linguistic resources such as vocabulary and sentence structure. With this knowledge and resources, the students were then encouraged to draft their own messages.

Drafting

Drafting plays an important role in the success of writing since it may minimise the writing blocks faced by all writers. Drafting is an early stage of production in which writers begin to set down their ideas in sentences (Urquhart & McIver, 2015). During this stage, we gave the students freedom to express their thoughts, emotions and hopes to their parents regarding the issue of smoking. In order to motivate them to keep writing, they were told not to worry about the quality of their texts at this drafting stage. Figures 1 and 2 present two samples of students' writing.

Figure 1. Writing sample from student A with teacher feedback.

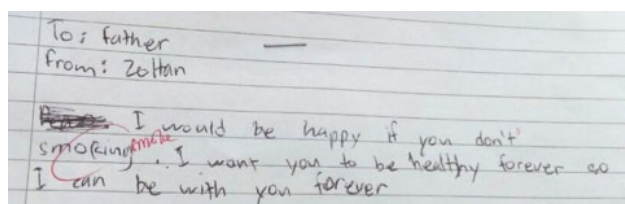
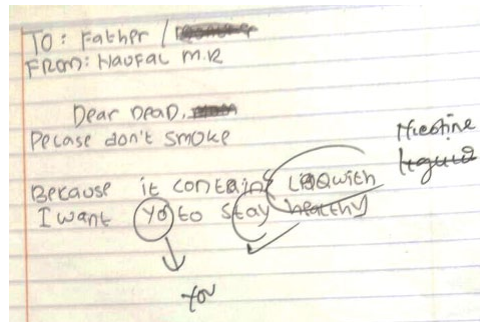


Figure 2. Writing sample from student B with teacher feedback.



During the drafting stage, one author monitored the classroom activity, supervised the students' writing progress, gave feedback and, most importantly, motivated the students to keep writing. With regard to giving feedback on the drafting stage, several studies on L1 and L2 writing have suggested that teachers' comments on preliminary drafts promote effective revision and increase the overall quality of students' writing (Ferris, 1995).

Editing and Revising

When the drafts were complete, the students were asked to edit and revise their writing. These two activities of editing and revising were intended to help them review all the information they had written, adding more ideas and removing any unnecessary parts of the text (Hamand, 2009). These activities were also intended to help students clarify the messages in their writing (Urquhart & McIver, 2015).

At this stage, the students were encouraged to work together, sharing their writing and commenting on each other's work. In addition to comments from their peers, the teachers also gave feedback during the editing stage. This feedback related mainly to problems of grammatical accuracy, diction and organisation of the writing. The students were asked to rewrite their texts based on the teachers' feedback.

Creating Postcards

Once they had finished their writing drafts, the students were asked to write the postcards. As mentioned earlier, this was intended to promote their creativity. During this stage, the students were given freedom to design a postcard and decide the layout. This was fun but challenging for the students, particularly in deciding on the kind of picture to draw, which they found difficult because they had to depict the message in their writing. We noted that the students sketched and re-sketched their pictures several times. Having drawn pictures to the best of their ability, the students then stuck them on one side of their postcards. Figure 3 shows two samples of students' drawings.

Figure 3. Samples of drawings from students C (left) and D (right).



Postcard distribution

As mentioned earlier, in addition to providing students with opportunities for real-world practice of English language use, the objective of this writing activity was to help them use their creativity to address social issues in their community. In particular, they were to use their postcards to convey the risks of smoking to their parents, relatives and other people in their social community. They called this postcard distribution activity the *Stop Smoking in Public* campaign.

When the postcards were ready, the students sent them directly to their parents and relatives. Many also distributed the cards to people at a car-free day event in the city. The students were excited to meet other people at the event and hand them the cards they had created. They also shared their thoughts about the risks of smoking with the people they met.

The students received various responses to their stop smoking campaign. Some parents appreciated their children's Stop Smoking in Public postcards and henceforth avoided smoking near their children, although, surprisingly, few parents decided to give up smoking. However, the students also received negative responses from some people who were approached while smoking at the car-free day. Although a few put their cigarettes out while talking to the students, others expressed their unhappiness.

Conclusion

In summary, all students who participated in the writing activity felt positive about it. They not only experienced the real use of English in a communicative event, but

also felt that their awareness of a social issue in the community had improved after participating in the writing activity.

Acknowledgments

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Developing plurilingual competence in the EFL classroom

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Abstract

This paper discusses the importance that plurilingualism has in a globalised world and in the foreign language classroom. It outlines the different varieties of English that have emerged as a consequence of its becoming a lingua franca or global language, and mentions the primary causes and consequences of this. In order to ascertain the importance of plurilingualism in this context, this paper discusses Kachru's tripartite model and its validity in a modern context given that nowadays English is a lingua franca. Finally, this paper analyses ways of fostering plurilingualism in the classroom by presenting teachers with examples of tasks that encourage them to adopt this perspective on teaching and learning.

Keywords: plurilingualism; multilingualism; globalisation; culture, lingua franca.

Resumen

Este artículo destaca la importancia que el plurilingüismo tiene en un mundo globalizado y en la enseñanza de idioma extranjero. Asimismo, esboza las diferentes variedades de idioma inglés que han surgido como consecuencia de haberse convertido en una lengua franca o global, mencionando las principales causas y consecuencias. En relación a esto último, este artículo discute la validez del modelo tripartito de Kachru en un contexto donde el inglés se ha convertido en una lengua franca. Además, se analizan maneras de fomentar el plurilingüismo en el salón de clases, presentando distintas tareas para motivar a los docentes a adoptar esta perspectiva para la enseñanza y el aprendizaje.

Palabras clave: plurilingüismo; multilingüismo; globalización; cultura; lengua franca.

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VARIOUS FACTORS, namely geographical-historical and socio-cultural ones, have contributed substantially to the spread of English as a lingua franca. The former relates to the spread of this language as a result of colonisation, while the latter looks at the way people from all over the world have come to depend on English for different purposes (Crystal, 2003). In this respect, English has become a vital language in the international context, essential for political life, business, communication, entertainment, safety, the media, science, education and, last but not least, the computer software industry, which has come to be at the fore of the globalised world we live in.

All the factors mentioned above are part of the phenomenon known as globalisation, which has been defined as “the phenomenon in which people in different locations worldwide are increasingly linked in such a way that events in one part of the world have an impact on local communities around the world” (Richards & Schmidt 2010, p. 247). This has had, for obvious reasons, a considerable impact on the widespread use of English since it fosters the connection between nations and their national cultures and economies. In this respect, to cite an example, English has come to be widely used in the entertainment and tourism industries around the world. Thus people who are not native speakers sing songs in English, watch movies in English, and wear clothes with English words or phrases printed on them.

As a direct consequence of globalisation, English has come into contact with several languages from all over the world. This has given way to different varieties, or World Englishes, defined by Rajagopalan (2004, p. 111) as a language that “belongs to everyone who speaks it, but it is nobody’s mother tongue.” This will be discussed at greater length in the subsequent section.

As highlighted previously, modern societies are complex environments, characterised by both linguistic and cultural diversity. Consequently, teachers nowadays encounter plurilingual students in the language classroom, and it is vital for them to teach English in a way that blurs the boundaries between the target language culture and their native culture.

The purpose of this paper is to outline the reasons why English has become a global language, explain which aspects should be taken into account when teaching English from a plurilingual perspective and to consider some of the implications of this in the classroom.

Theoretical Framework

English as a Global Language

As mentioned before, English has become a lingua franca. Although research on English as a lingua franca (ELF) has increased in recent years, a consensual definition of ELF seems to be missing (Mollin, 2006). Most definitions refer to English being used for

communication between different groups of people, each speaking a different language (Richards and Smith 2010, for example) but there does not seem to be a consensus as to the precise location of such conversations in a theoretical or conceptual space (Mollin, 2006). This brings into question the validity of the much-cited tripartite model put forward by Kachru (1985), at least as far as ELF is concerned.

This model, despite the drawbacks that will be mentioned below, has been the most influential so far, dividing English usage into three categories or circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle. This is in direct connection with the well-known distinction between English as a Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), and English as a Foreign Language (EFL). According to this tripartite model, ENL is spoken in countries where it is the first language of the majority of the population, such as the United States, the United Kingdom or Australia (i.e. the Inner Circle), as opposed to ESL, which is spoken in countries where English is an official language, but not the main language of the country (i.e. the Outer Circle). These countries are usually former colonies of the United Kingdom or the United States, such as Nigeria, India and Malaysia. Finally, EFL is used in countries where English is not used regularly as a means of communication, but it is learned at school even though students have little opportunity to use the language outside the classroom (i.e. the Expanding Circle). Japan, China, and Argentina are examples of countries that use English as a Foreign Language (Kachru, 1985; Kachru & Smith, 2008).

Despite being used worldwide, the current status of ELF has questioned the extent to which this model is still valid (Bruthiaux, 2003, Mollin, 2006), since it considers only the standard varieties of English. In other words, the speakers in the Inner Circle are defined as norm-providers, whereas, for example, learners or speakers of English in the Expanding Circle do not seem to have the right to develop a variety, and are therefore seen as norm-dependent. In addition, the model fails to account for the fact that ELF has gained prominence in recent years between the three circles, perhaps most notably in the Expanding Circle. In addition to this, some authors have suggested that ELF goes beyond Kachru's circles, involving all speakers in cross-cultural communication (Jenkins, in Mollin, 2006); said concept will be discussed in the following section.

World Englishes

As mentioned before, the variety that is generally considered to be most prestigious is that which belongs to the Inner Circle, that is, the variety of English that comes from the countries where it is spoken as a native language. However, the spread of ELF nowadays has meant that the majority of proficient speakers are not native speakers, but second-language users, and as a result of this, the Inner Circle has lost much of its privilege. In this respect, the term World English has been coined to refer to the use of this language

in countries other than those where it has traditionally been considered a mother tongue. A possible solution, as far as the tripartite model discussed above is concerned, would be, as it has been suggested by Kachru (1985), to have one big circle that includes every English speaker. In connection with this, and as a consequence of this as well, teachers nowadays encounter plurilingual students in their language classrooms, and so it follows that it is necessary to teach English in a way that blurs the boundaries between the target language culture and their native culture. This involves being sensible and reaching an equilibrium to prevent one variety from outweighing the other.

In this sense, finding a balance between the cultural implications of the different varieties and the formal aspects of the language is an aspect worth taking into consideration. Primarily this means keeping all of the cultural components present so that students will not lose their ethnic pride. This idea has given way to new perspectives as regards language teaching: plurilingualism and multilingualism.

Plurilingualism and Multilingualism

The Council of Europe (2007) makes a distinction between plurilingualism and multilingualism, defining the former as the “repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use”, dividing in this way language speakers into ‘monolingual’ (people who speak only one language) and ‘plurilingual’ (people who speak more than one language); and the latter as “the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one ‘variety of language.’” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013, p. 594)

Multilingualism takes place in countries with a colonial history or a high rate of immigration, and globalisation has helped to increase the number of contact zones between these cultures, and consequently, language exchange occurs more intensively. These contact zones have been defined as “the space in which transculturation takes place—where two different cultures meet and inform each other, often in highly asymmetrical ways.” (Pratt, 1991, p. 584)

These contact zones were scarce in the past, since hard boundaries were kept between cultures and languages, having the idealised native speaker variety as a reference for English teaching (De Saint Georges & Weber, 2013, p. 33). Nowadays, with the changes brought about by the phenomena mentioned before, it is necessary for teachers to adopt a plurilingual approach to English teaching. Such an approach will help students combine their linguistic repertoires in the different languages, provide them with exposure to the target language, help them to improve their communicative and academic skills and will expand learners’ metalinguistic awareness¹ and experiences as plurilingual speakers. As a result, learners will learn English in a more efficient way (Cenoz & Gorter, 2013), since language is seen not only as a major aspect of culture, but also as a means of access to cultural manifestations (Bernaus, 2007).

Classroom Implications

In order to promote plurilingualism in language classrooms, it is vital that learners gain knowledge and understanding of various types of discourse and language use and that they develop social and intercultural understanding. For this reason, teachers should respect the students' backgrounds and cultures, and treat their language classrooms as alternative spaces in which different cultures can come into contact and enrich one another (Barboni & Porto, 2011).

For practical purposes, it is important to know whether students already have knowledge of other languages or not. If they do, it is advisable to know how much knowledge they have; if they do not, teachers can provide them with the relevant information to improve their knowledge. This can be done through simple and interesting tasks, such as the ones outlined below. These tasks have been trialled in different courses at primary (such as the first task) and secondary schools in Buenos Aires province. The Curricular Design in this province of Buenos Aires makes specific reference to both plurilingualism and intercultural education, aiming at making students aware of the richness of both their native language and other languages, as well as developing positive attitudes towards speakers of different languages.

- What does the world eat for breakfast? When dealing with the topic of food, a good idea would be to include information about, in this case, what people have for breakfast in different countries. In this way, students will not only be revising the key vocabulary through an interesting task, but also learning about other cultures. The concepts of 'healthy' and 'unhealthy' could also be introduced, and students could vote for the countries with the healthiest and unhealthiest breakfasts.
- Recognising words from other languages that are used in the students' native language. This assignment will make students aware of how many borrowings they use in their daily lives without noticing because they have naturalised them. A cross curricular element could be added if some historical background is provided for each word, explaining how those words became a part of their native language because of colonisation and popular culture, some terms such as "okay" remain in Spanish nowadays.
- How languages are distributed around the world (where people speak French, Chinese, etc.) This is another interesting cross-curricular task, since it provides students with exposure to the target language through the explanations, as well as informing them about different parts of the world. This could very well be a cross-curricular project to carry out

with a geography teacher.

Another task through which plurilingualism can be fostered in the classroom would be an “Intercultural Roleplay” in which students are given different role-cards with traits from a variety of cultures written on them. The pupils are asked to act as depicted in their cards. Afterwards, several questions are asked in order to make them reflect on the different cultures. (European Centre for Modern Languages, 2003)

Students can also be exposed to a variety of languages and discourses by reading extracts from books or poems, listening to songs, watching interviews, music videos, or movies. This will not only bring them into contact with various cultures and languages, but will also act as a trigger for the discussion of controversial topics. For example, students could see how concepts such as beauty are conceived in other parts of the world, and they could even carry out a survey in their school to see what people think about beauty. By doing so, they will not only be using the language for communication, but they will also be learning about how beauty is conceived in other cultures. Another task could be showing students videos of people from several countries speaking English, having them guess where they come from, and asking them which differences they can observe when comparing their use of the language to the student’s own.

The tasks mentioned above are just a few examples of ways in which teachers can promote plurilingualism in their language classrooms, since the possibilities are endless. What is key is that teachers educate themselves on plurilingualism, and that through trial and error and critical and systematic evaluation, decide which strategies fit their context best.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is important to state that even though English has traditionally been considered a prestige language, it is no longer seen in this way. Rather, it provides a means of communication between people from different nations in a globalised world where cultural boundaries are often blurred. This is when plurilingualism plays a major role, since it enables students to learn the target language by building their knowledge on the foundations of their own culture. By fostering plurilingualism in the language classroom, teachers will guide students to learn the target language in a meaningful and relevant way. They will value other cultures as well as their own, and will be learning much more than just a language: they will be educated in a holistic way.

Note

1. The ability to objectify language and dissect it as an arbitrary linguistic code independent of meaning" (Roth, Speece, Cooper, & de la Paz, 1996, p. 258).

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Book review

The Critical Global Educator. Global Citizenship Education as Sustainable Development

M. Ellis, London & New York, Routledge, 2016, Pp. xv + 246, ISBN: 978-1-138-88780-0 (hb): £95.00; ISBN: 978-1-315-71394-6 (eBook)

The critical global educator: Global citizenship education as sustainable development by Maureen Ellis is part of the *Routledge Research in International and Comparative Education Series*. Departing from the premise that “[a]n acknowledged challenge for democratic, humanitarian education is its perceived lack of philosophical and theoretical foundation, often resulting in low academic status and reduced prestige” (book flyer), the author presents a variety of theoretical approaches intended to provide critical global educators with a tool for reflection, evaluation and action. Approaches include Critical Social Theory, Critical Discourse Studies and Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). The book builds on the author’s empirical PhD research (Institute of Education, University College London, UK) comprising surveys, focus-groups and interviews with over 500 international teachers, teacher educators, International Non-Government Organisations, administrators and academics. The analysis provides a rich and integral picture of the critical global educator.

After a preface, the book is organised in seven chapters and eight appendices. Eleven figures and tables related to the theoretical approaches discussed facilitate the reading of the text, addressed to researchers, academics and postgraduate students in fields such as citizenship, development, global education, sustainability, social justice, human rights and professional development. The text might however prove dense and obscure at times, particularly for the ordinary practitioner, educator and policymaker—also identified as intended readers. Aware of the magnitude of the task at hand, i.e. providing a philosophical and theoretical framework to conceptualise the critical global educator, Ellis is careful to include chapter overviews, section summaries and concluding remarks in each chapter. The appendices comprise tools, materials and research instruments that

are valuable for the researcher.

The starting point for Ellis' argument refers to the fragmented nature and origins of the term *global education* (comprising several key notions such as sustainable development, global citizenship and citizenship), which lead her to coin the acronym GCESD for *global citizenship education as sustainable development*. Her aim is powerful: "empower every discipline, each disciple committed to global learning and teaching, to realise transformational socio-political justice" (p. x). This broad focus is illuminated by her background and experience in language education and applied linguistics that includes teaching, teacher training and consultancies in Europe, Africa, Asia, the Middle East and Australia.

Chapter 1 provides a biographical trajectory of the author's life revealing personal, professional and other challenges and linking this trajectory to specific theoretical perspectives. After Ellis' critical stance is disclosed in this chapter, Chapter 2 defines global citizenship education as sustainable development (GCESD). Involved in the conceptualisation is the acknowledgement and description of factors (including political, commercial, industrial, environmental and other aspects) that tend to prevent transformational socio-political justice in general education, illustrated with the UK setting. The chapter introduces three research questions that become the book's thread: What conceptualisation of a critical global educator is available from the literature?; To what extent can a methodological framework based on CHAT provide a tool for self- or negotiated evaluation of critical global educators?; What factors influence the personal and professional development of the critical global educator?

Chapter 3 addresses the first research question: What conceptualisation of a critical global educator is available from the literature? A complex philosophy and theory for critical global educators is described, which involves eight key concepts: sustainable development, diversity, values and perceptions, social justice, global citizenship, human rights, interdependence and conflict resolution. The author argues for critical transformational pedagogy aimed at addressing the "deeper purposes of education" (p.79) and critical discourse studies to "empower collective consciousness towards freedom for all" (p.79).

Chapter 4 deals with the second research question: To what extent can a methodological framework based on Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) provide a tool for self- or negotiated evaluation of critical global educators? The method combines life story, case study and semi-structured interviews and in this chapter the author reports findings from surveys, focus group discussions and interviews to conclude that "CHAT's analytical framework provides a principled, practical methodology for systemic, self-or negotiated evaluation of critical global educators" (p.86).

Chapter 5 analyses three key policy documents in Britain which all support teaching

the global dimension in schools. These are *Developing the Global Dimension in the School Curriculum* (Department for Education and Skills, 2005); *Education for Global Citizenship: A Guide for Schools* (Oxfam, 2006); and *The Global Dimension in Action* (Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, 2007). The author claims that a “discrete disciplinary curriculum, disconnected from the media, medium or multimodality of students’ existence, further distances powerful disciplinary knowledge and multiple literacies from agency, productivity and politico-economic global integrity” (p.115). Observing several profound weaknesses in policy, provision and practice for this global dimension, the chapter becomes a harsh critique that highlights the need for a rigorous philosophical and theoretical underpinning. The author claims that this book offers such basis.

A long chapter 6 addresses the third research question: What factors influence the personal and professional development of the critical global educator?, by presenting interview findings from 18 participants. It succeeds in portraying a complex and deep tapestry of their educational trajectories involving personal, professional, political and other dimensions illustrated in solid and multiple descriptive and narrative vignettes.

Chapter 7 emphasises once more the value of CHAT from a methodological standpoint. Stemming from the theoretical discussion and empirical evidence in previous chapters, Ellis makes eight recommendations: critical discourse studies should frame GCESD in teacher education; curriculum developers and teachers educators should bring to the foreground the political, cultural and other underlying discourses in their disciplines; policymakers should explicitly lead to GCESD; educators should get involved with critical action research; higher education institutions should implement and evaluate critical GCESD, coordinating interdisciplinary partnerships involving the school, the community and the university; they should also establish long-term alliances with international non-government organisations; university research capacity should be developed through transnational partnerships; and thematic global research networks (transdisciplinary, international, multi-stakeholder) should be developed.

Finally, the appendices are in general useful and can be seen as one of the book’s assets. Appendix 1 lists initiatives (global, regional, national—since 1928) and publications related to GCESD. Appendices 2 and 3 include sample handouts that the author used in teacher-training sessions, related to the research. Appendix 4 presents a timeline of the activities undertaken during the five-year research reported but does not really add much. Appendix 5 includes details about the survey, focus groups and interviews.

Overall, this book represents a theoretical and empirical contribution to an understanding of global citizenship education as sustainable development and a conceptualisation of the critical global educator. Drawing on rich data from a case study

involving 500 participants in the British context, Ellis' in-depth analysis gives voice to 18 interviewees in a vivid portrayal of the critical global educator. Descriptive and narrative vignettes with the participants' voices, accompanying figures and useful appendices counterbalance the dense writing at times, which presupposes a knowledgeable and well-informed reader.

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D. Coyle, P. Hood and D. Marsh

Cambridge

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2010

Pp. v + 173

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Lantolf, J. (Ed.). (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Little, D. (1991). *Learner autonomy 1: Definitions, issues and problems*. Dublin: Authentik.

Meza Rueda, J.L. (2008). *Historia de maestros para maestros. Pedagogía narrativa expresada en relatos de vida*. Bogotá: Universidad de La Salle.

Pérez-Cañado, M.L. (2012). CLIL research in Europe: Past, present, and future. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15(3), 315–341.

Prince, P. (2011). What's the story? Motivating e-learners with fiction. In D. Gardner (Ed.), *Fostering autonomy in language learning* (pp. 225–233). Gaziantep: Zirve University.

Richards, K. (2006). "Being the teacher": Identity and classroom conversation. *Applied Linguistics*, 27(1), 51–77.

Smith, R. (2003). Teacher education for teacher-learner autonomy. In J. Gollin, G. Ferguson & H. Trappes-Lomax (Eds.), *Symposium for language teacher educators: Papers from Three IALS Symposia*. Edinburgh: IALS, University of Edinburgh. Retrieved May 2, 2012, from http://homepages.warwick.ac.uk/~elsdr/Teacher_autonomy.pdf

Smith, R., & Erdogan, S. (2008). Teacher-learner autonomy: Programme goals and student-teacher constructs. In T. Lamb & H. Reindeers (Eds.), *Learner and teacher autonomy: Concepts, realities and responses* (pp. 83–102). Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Ushioda, E. (2011). Motivating learners to speak as themselves. In G. Murray, G. Xuesong & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Identity, motivation and autonomy in language learning* (pp.11–24). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

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